



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
In Soviet Central Asia and
Kazakhstan.

The area covered in this Review embraces the five S.S.R. of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan. According to Soviet classification "Central Asia" (Srednyaya Aziya) comprises only the first four of these, Kazakhstan being regarded as a separate area.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with
St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group.

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. II. No. 1

1954

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to

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

Vol. II 1954



CENTRAL ASIAN RESEARCH CENTRE
66 King's Road,
London, S.W.3.

I N D E X T O V O L U M E I I O F
C E N T R A L A S I A N R E V I E W

The Index consists of four parts:

- I An index to articles arranged under subject headings, namely, Agriculture, Communications, Cultural and Political subjects, Industry, Public Works and Services.
- II A general index of personal and geographical names, and subjects. In this index titles of articles are given under the republic to which they refer.
- III A glossary of foreign words and abbreviations.
- IV A list of maps and diagrams.

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It will be noticed that the text of the Review contains some inconsistencies in the spelling of proper names; these are partly due to inconsistencies in Soviet publications. Every effort has been made to arrive at the most accurate spelling and, where the spelling in the Review differs from that in the Index, the Index version should be taken as the correct one.

Except in the case of places lying outside the area dealt with by the Review, as far as possible the republic in which each place-name occurs is stated in the general index. Where several kolkhozes or raions have the same name the exact location of each is given wherever possible.

The following abbreviations are used throughout:

Kaz.	for	Kazakhstan
Kirg.	for	Kirgizia
Tadzh.	for	Tadzhikistan
Turk.	for	Turkmenistan
Uzb.	for	Uzbekistan

In the Index references are made only to page numbers and not to issue numbers. In Volume II of Central Asian Review,

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III

G L O S S A R Y

Agrolesproyekt	Authority responsible for afforestation
Aivan	Uzbek house porch
Aktiv	Active element in a Party organization
Akyn	Kazakh bard
Aryk	Small irrigation canal
Ashkhabadproyekt	Ashkhabad planning authority
Aul	Small administrative unit, a village
Ayil	Kirgiz village
Bab	Stone statue
Bai	Feudal landlord
Bakhshi	Strolling minstrel
Barkhani	Shifting sands
Beit	Burial ground
Beshik	Cradle in a Kirgiz home
Bogara	Cultivated land dependent on rainfall rather than on artificial irrigation
Brigada	A group of workers engaged on a specific task, e.g. ploughing a field
Centner	100 kilograms
Dekhan	Peasant
Desyatina	2.70 acres
Detgiz	Children's Literature Publishing House (Moscow)
DOSAAF	Voluntary Association for Cooperation with the Army, Air Force and Navy
Ferganavodstroi	Fergana Irrigation and Construction authority
Gidroproyekt	Authority responsible for planning, scientific research and survey to do with irrigation
Glavmetsbyt	Main Metal Supply authority
Glavkinoprokat	Main Film Hire authority
Glavunivermag	Main department store
Glavvtorchermet	Main Scrap Metal Supply authority
Gorpromkombinat	Town industrial kombinat
Gosplan	State planning authority

Hectare	2.471 acres
Kazakhknizhtorg	Kazakh book supply authority
Kazsnabpros	Kazakh authority for the supply of school equipment
Kiiz-ui	Felt hut
Kirgizpotrebsoyuz	Kirgiz consumers' cooperative
Kishlak	Village
Knigonosha	Book pedlar
Knigotorg	Organization for the supply of books
Kolkhoz	Collective farm
Kollektiv	Employees taken collectively
Kombinat	A group of industrial undertakings dependent on each other
Komsomol	Lenin League of Communist Youth
Koshkar-muiiz	Ram's horn
Kulup-tas	Carved stone pillars
Kurgan	Memorial hummock surmounted by a tomb
Kus-Kanat	Bird's wing
Litgosizdat	State Literary Publishing House
Mihrab	Prayer niche in a mosque
MZhS	Mechanized animal husbandry station
MTS	Machine tractor station
Narodnaya stroika	Use of mass manual labour on construction work
Nazireh	Imitative tradition in Eastern poetry
Obkom	Oblast committee
Oblast	Administrative division of a republic
Oblastpotrebsoyuz	Oblast consumers' cooperative
Politekhnizatsiya	Practical and theoretical technical training
Food	36 lbs.
Radio translyatsionnaya tochka	Radio relay unit
Radio uzal	Radio exchange
Raikom	Raion committee
Raion	Division of an oblast q.v.
Raipotrebsoyuz	Raion consumers' cooperative

Ratsionalizatsiya	Introduction of new ideas designed to rationalize production processes
Sagana-tam	Sarcophagus
Saksaul	Halyxylon ammodendron, a hardy desert perennial
Samosval	Dumping wagon
Shturmovshchina	Rush tactics, shock-work
Shuga	Sludge ice
Shyrdak	Brightly coloured felt carpet
Skopom	Working in gangs
Sovkhoz	State farm
Sovkhoztrans	Sovkhoz Transport authority
Soyuzdorproyekt	Union Road-Planning authority
Soyuzzagottransport	Union Supply Transport authority
Sredazgidrostroi	Central Asian authority for construction works relating to irrigation projects etc.
Sredazgidrovodkhlpok	Central Asian Cotton Irrigation authority
Sredazkhimash	Central Asian chemical machinery works
Sredazneft	Central Asian Oil Trust
Sredazugol	Central Asian Coal Trust
Sredazzheldorstroi	Central Asian Railroad Construction authority
Stakhanovite	Follower of Stakhanov's methods in achieving maximum output
Tangi	Kazakh tribal signs
Tekhnikum	Specialized secondary school
Textiltorg	Organization supplying textiles
Tire	Clan
Trust (Russian: Trest)	A group of undertakings producing the same product or dealing with the same raw material
Tue-taban	Camel's foot
Turkmenburneft	Turkmen Oil Development Drilling authority, subsidiary of Turkmenneft q.v.
Turkmenneft	Turkmen Oil Trust
Turkmennefterazvedka	Authority for prospecting and exploratory drilling for oil in Turkmenistan, subsidiary of Turkmenneft q.v.
Turkmenneftestroi	Authority for the building of oil installations, workmen's quarters etc. in Turkmenistan, subsidiary of Turkmenneft q.v.
Turkmenneftezavody	Turkmen oil refinery authority, subsidiary of Turkmenneft q.v.
Turkmentekhsnabneft	Turkmen authority for the supply of technical oil equipment, subsidiary of Turkmenneft q.v.
Turkmenvodstroi	Turkmen Irrigation and Construction authority
Tush-kiyiz	Kirgiz embroidered wall hangings

Uravnilovka	Equal pay for unequal work
Uzbekenergo	Uzbek Electric Power authority
Uzglavknigtorg	Uzbek Main Book Trading authority
Valenki	Felt boots
Verst	1.067 kilometres
Vostokzagotzerno	Eastern Grain Supply authority
Yurta	Felt tent
Zveno	Link; subdivision of a brigada q.v.

IV

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appear in every issue.



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
Kazakhstan.

The area covered in this Review embraces the five S.S.R. of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan. According to Soviet classification "Central Asia" (Srednyaya Aziya) comprises only the first four of these. Kazakhstan being regarded as a separate area.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with
St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group.

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. II. No. 1
1954

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Lt. Colonel G. E. Wheeler, 66B King's Road, London, S.W.3. and Mr. D. J. Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW is published quarterly by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with the Soviet Affairs Study Group of St. Antony's College, Oxford. It aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current political, social and material developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as they are reflected in Soviet publications.

The selection of material is designed to represent positive achievements and shortcomings in the same proportion and with the same degree of emphasis as they are represented in the Soviet press and other Soviet publications. Explanation and background material are added where these seem to be necessary.

The Review is normally divided into six sections, one for each Republic and one containing articles of a more general scope. Each of the five sections dealing with the Republics contains material arranged under one or more of the following headings: Agriculture, Industry, Communications, Public Works and Services, and Political and Cultural Affairs. Subjects are only treated when a sufficient amount of significant material is available.

The maps of the five Republics, the Altai Region and the Fergana valley have been specially drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre by the Royal Geographical Society whose assistance is gratefully acknowledged. These maps have been to some extent based on those contained in Shabad's Geography of the USSR, but additional details and some alterations have been incorporated.

The spelling of place names corresponds in general with the system followed in Phillips Record Atlas (1952 Edition), namely, an approximate transliteration from the original Russian used in Soviet maps.

The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post free. The price of single copies is Seven Shillings and sixpence.

Distributing Agents:

Messrs. Luzac & Co.,
46 Great Russell Street,
London, W. C. 1.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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S O V I E T S O U R C E M A T E R I A L O N
C E N T R A L A S I A

As explained in the general introduction to the Review, all the material contained in Central Asian Review is drawn from Soviet publications and it has been suggested that some general description of Soviet source material would be of use and interest. A detailed analysis of the very large number of Soviet books, periodicals and newspapers which are devoted to, or contain material on Central Asia, would fill a considerable volume, and the aim of the present brief article is merely to describe the nature, scope, and to some extent the limitations, of the material used.

Source material on Central Asia falls into two main categories: a) material published in the Central Asian Republics and Kazakhstan in Russian and Central Asian languages and intended primarily for the consumption of the people of Central Asia; and b) material published elsewhere in the Union and intended for all-Union consumption. A less important class of material is that contained in propaganda literature intended for foreign consumption. All these categories of material have one feature in common: they are subject to what in the West would be regarded as rigid official control. Deviations from the Party line, when they occur, are quickly corrected. Such deviations may be accidental; or they may be due to a change in the Party line coinciding with their perpetration in writing. It also seems possible that they are sometimes permitted in order either to provide material for an object lesson, or to create an impression of freedom of thought and expression.

Material published in Central Asia

By no means all the literature published in Central Asia is available outside the Soviet Union, or even outside Central Asia itself; it is therefore difficult to describe its scope with any degree of precision. A large number of daily newspapers, periodicals and books are printed in Russian and Central Asian languages and according to press reports they have a very wide circulation. Newspapers constitute the most important and

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reliable source of information on current developments. In addition to the five principal dailies published in Russian in the capitals of the Republics, namely, Pravda Vostoka, Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, Turkmeneskaya Iskra, Sovetskaya Kirgiziya, and Kommunist Tadzhikistana, with their counterparts in national languages, there appears to be a large number of provincial newspapers published in Russian and local languages. The total number is unknown, but sixty are reported to be published in Turkmenistan alone.

The five principal dailies are more or less uniform in appearance and make-up and in these respects they conform to the standard pattern of Soviet newspapers. Each issue normally carries a leading article, political guidance notes, news-stories on political, economic and cultural subjects, and two or three longer articles. The back page is usually devoted to foreign news and commentary, and a few theatre, cinema and lecture notices. "Human interest", as understood in the West, is almost entirely absent, but "feuilletons", often of a satirical nature, are becoming more frequent. The normal make-up is frequently abandoned in order to make room for long and detailed reports of important speeches, Party sessions, and other material of Soviet and foreign origin.

The principal value of the daily newspapers as source material lies in their detailed reports of industrial, agricultural and cultural developments. These include searching and often violent criticisms and exposures of shortcomings in the various fields of public endeavour, as well as reports of progress and achievement. There is good reason to suppose these are factually accurate, for misrepresentation of local circumstances exposed to the public view could serve no conceivable purpose. On the other hand there are omissions and "fade-outs" which would be impossible in most other countries. Such untoward incidents as flying or railway accidents are not generally mentioned, and reporting on subjects which have filled the columns of the press for months may suddenly cease without a word of explanation. A case in point is the subject of the Main Turkmen Canal, which until April 1953 gained steady publicity in the Turkmenistan press. Since then, there appears to have been no mention of any activity or progress either at the headworks of the Canal or in the work of excavation. All leading articles, and most other articles as well, bear unmistakable signs of having been written in accordance with official directives. In a surprisingly large number of cases articles begin with two or three paragraphs explaining how things ought to be and describing positive achievements. Then comes a paragraph beginning with the word odnako (however), followed by a description of how things actually are, usually accompanied by criticisms. The general lay-out of the newspapers is uninspiring according to western notions, but the type-matter is always legible.

What have been described as the vernacular counterparts of the principal Russian dailies are not merely translated versions of them. Indeed, although the general pattern is the same and most of the articles appear in both languages, it is seldom possible to say in which language the original was written. From the fact, however, that the Russian articles usually appear first and the vernacular versions one or more days later, it can be inferred that Russian is the leading language. The vernacular papers contain more material on agricultural subjects, and more of the articles are signed.

Apparently a considerable number of reviews and magazines are published in Central Asia both in Russian and in the vernacular, but full particulars of these are lacking. Such issues as have been seen do not appear to contain much original source material, except on linguistics and other cultural subjects. The principal monthly periodical dealing with political and cultural matters seems to be Zvezda Vostoka, published in Tashkent. Many of the departments of universities and academies of sciences publish lengthy bulletins with long articles on political, economic, scientific and cultural subjects. Most of those seen are in Russian and it is not known whether vernacular counterparts exist. The bulletin of the Kazakhstan Academy of Sciences, however, contains articles both in Russian and Kazakh. The articles are mostly written by non-natives, usually Russians. Thus in an issue of the Bulletin of the Department of Social Sciences of the Tadzhikistan Academy of Sciences published in 1952 all the contributors have Russian or other Slav names. An interesting new development was the appearance in May 1953 of a humorous monthly magazine published in Stalinabad in the Tadzhik language with a circulation of 10,000. The name of the magazine is Khorpushtak (The Hedgehog) and in contents and appearance it resembles the Moscow weekly Krokodil. Effectively, if somewhat crudely, printed in four colours, apparently by letterpress, it is written in a popular style, and were it not for the use of the cyrillic character, would be readily understood in Persia and Afghanistan.

Judging from press reports, the number of books published in Central Asia in both Russian and vernacular languages is very large. Most of the vernacular publications are political and scientific works translated from Russian originals. Many of the works of such classical Russian writers as Tolstoi and Turgenev have also been translated and published. Most of the historical works so far seen have been in Russian and it seems that original works from the hands of Central Asian writers are confined to imaginative ones, apart from school text-books in vernacular languages, which are being produced in increasingly large numbers. Generally speaking, books published in Central Asia at present constitute a less valuable source of material than those published in Moscow, but with

the advance of education this situation may change.

It is noteworthy that whereas none of the newspapers so far seen contain any indication of circulation, the number of copies printed of magazines, reviews and books is invariably shown.

Material published in Moscow and elsewhere

As source material on actual developments in Central Asia, Moscow and other all-Union publications provide less detailed and less up-to-date information than the Central Asian press. But they are valuable and important for other reasons. The newspapers Pravda and Izvestia frequently contain criticisms, complaints and exhortations regarding Central Asian affairs which are invariably reflected in the local press as coming from the fountain-head of wisdom and control. Comments and criticisms of a lighter but nonetheless significant kind often appear in such papers as Literaturnaya Gazeta and Krokodil.

Central Asia occupies a prominent place in many of the large number of political, scientific, economic and popular reviews and magazines published in Moscow. Such periodicals usually deal with the positive and purely scientific technical aspect of developments. Articles are usually long and well written, but they sometimes seem to ignore, if not actually contradict, the topical reports and information appearing in the local press. Specific references to Central Asian political affairs in such journals as Kommunist are relatively infrequent.

The number of periodicals which are potential sources of material on Central Asian economy, industry and agriculture is too great to be listed here. Among the principal may be mentioned Khlopkovodstvo (Cotton-Growing), a monthly of about 60 pages (circulation 12,300), Ugol (Coal), a monthly of 48 pages (circulation 8,700), Planovoye Khozyaistvo (Planned Economy), a monthly of about 96 pages (circulation 29,000), Mekhanizatsiya (Mechanization), a bi-monthly of 48 pages (circulation 16,300), Sotsialisticheskoye Zhivotnovodstvo (Socialist Animal Husbandry), a monthly of 96 pages (circulation 23,400). All of these are serious publications written from a scientific and technical rather than from a political standpoint. Another scientific magazine which is illustrated and slightly more popular in its appeal is Priroda (Nature), a monthly of 128 pages (circulation 40,000). The principal sources of material on history and linguistics are Voprosy Istorii (Problems of History), a bi-monthly of 152 pages (circulation 33,000), and Voprosy Yazykoznaneya (Problems of Linguistics), a bi-monthly of 152 pages (circulation 15,000). All the foregoing magazines are well printed, most of them on White Printing paper, but a few, such as

Mekhanizatsiya and Ugol, on Imitation Art. The quality of the one-colour half-tone illustrations is good, but that of the three-colour half-tones in Priroda leaves much to be desired.

The popular magazines also frequently print articles on Central Asia, but apart from the excellent illustrations, these are less valuable as source material, since they consist largely of positive propaganda directed towards young people. Nevertheless the descriptive articles often provide useful background material. The principal popular periodicals examined are:- Vokrug Sveta (Round the World), a monthly of 64 pages (circulation 105,000). This is an illustrated magazine produced by letter-press with coloured illustrations. It has ostensibly the same scope as the National Geographical Magazine, but its articles on foreign countries have a strong anti-capitalist bias. Here again articles on Central Asia are fairly frequent. For instance, the issue of November 1953 carried a long article on the Fergana valley by the well-known writer Z. Murzaev. Central Asia is also kept before the readers of the highly popular weekly Ogonyok (The Gleam). This magazine has a circulation of 550,000 and resembles the British weekly Illustrated in appearance. Articles on Central Asia which appear in this and similar magazines are naturally superficial and are chiefly remarkable for the sharp contrast which they present with accounts of conditions and developments which appear in the Central Asian press. Similar contrasts can be observed in such lavishly produced propaganda magazines as Soviet Union, which appears in several foreign language editions. Too much importance should not perhaps be attached to this phenomenon.

The number of comprehensive works on Central Asia which have appeared since the war is apparently small and many of those published are out of print or impossible to obtain for some other reason. The available books range from illustrated and often well-written travelogues, such as My Journey through Soviet Uzbekistan, by Vitkovich, to scientific treatises on such subjects as cotton cultivation, irrigation and mineralogy. An important archaeological work is The Archaeological and Ethnographical Work of the Khorezm Expedition (1945 - 1948), edited by Tolstov and Zhdanko, and it seems likely that this class of literature will develop as post-war archaeological expeditions get into their stride. A considerable proportion of the large number of grammars and dictionaries of Central Asian languages are available in Western Europe capitals. Special mention must be made of Soviet works on geography. Apart from the material contained in the Geographical Series of the Bulletin of the Moscow Academy of Sciences and that of the All-Union Geographical Society, a good deal of general information on the geography of Central Asia is contained in geographical works of various kinds. Two of the principal of these are Suslov's

Physical Geography of the U.S.S.R. and Baranski's Economic Geography of the U.S.S.R. Comprehensive atlases and gazeteers are unfortunately unobtainable, but a useful atlas for the use of Middle Schools has recently been published. Much useful information is contained in an historical atlas of the U.S.S.R. in 3 volumes. There is now a tendency to reprint the works of pre-revolutionary geographers and travellers such as Przhevalski, Kozlov and Obruchev.

There is a serious lack of up-to-date works of reference. Standard works of reference such as almanacks, year-books, gazeteers and the like are either not published in the U.S.S.R. or are not available. This is no doubt partly due to rapidly changing conditions, but it is noteworthy that such reference books as do exist are by no means confined to factual information. The first edition of the Great Soviet Encyclopaedia is no longer officially recognized and complete editions of it are difficult to find. A new edition is in the process of compilation, but has so far only reached the letter 'L'.

It will be seen from the foregoing that the amount of source material on Central Asia is considerable, but the absence of any complete bibliography and the difficulty of obtaining published books, periodicals and newspapers constitute serious drawbacks. Much of the available material is unequal in quality and seems to lack objectivity. But conditions in this respect may improve, and much is to be gained by careful research into the existing sources of information. Cumulative study of these sources will not only produce a large amount of factual information on current conditions and developments, but may throw light upon the many subtle changes of approach to such matters as history, science and culture which are characteristic of Soviet policy.

The articles in Central Asian Review are generally compiled from several Soviet sources. Complete translations of original Soviet articles or articles consisting of resumes of single Soviet articles will only rarely be included. This is because single articles are usually written within the rigid framework of the Party line, which is apt - and indeed intended - to obscure objectivity. Even highly specialized articles frequently contain political material which strikes western readers as irrelevant and which sometimes seems to be included by specialists merely as a matter of form.

MANPOWER: ITS SELECTION, ORGANIZATION AND PERFORMANCE SEEN IN
RELATION TO EFFICIENCY AND PRODUCTIVITY

MANPOWER IN INDUSTRY

(Concluded)

The need to increase the productivity of industrial workers and the methods whereby this is to be achieved are the subject of constant discussion in the republican and local press of Soviet Central Asia. The methods are defined broadly as the more efficient organization and disciplining of labour, the exercise of criticism and self-criticism, the encouragement of competition in the form of "Socialist emulation drives", the introduction of the various technical or "rationalizing" improvements and economies devised by the workers themselves, and the provision of sound technical training. Since it is regarded as a paramount task of Party cells in industry to forward these ends, the Party's political functions inevitably go hand-in-hand in many instances with technical and administrative ones, and a constant watch has to be kept to see that preoccupation with technological detail does not usurp the place of political propaganda work, and that industrial managements are not embarrassed by over-zealous Party functionaries trying to do their job for them.

A survey of the Central Asian press shows that intensive efforts are being made to overcome the still numerous shortcomings evident in industry, and if emphasis here is on defects rather than on achievements, this reflects the general trend of the press as the main forum for the airing of criticisms. The greatest stress is being laid at the present time on the need for improving amenities for the workers; there seems to be a growing realization that the incentives to production hitherto offered have been insufficient, and that better living and working conditions must be introduced if industry is to produce to full capacity.

Technical Training

The provision of improved facilities for general education and of better technical training, particularly for key workers is regarded as a sine qua non of increased output and productivity. In illustration of this, Turkmenskaya Iskra points out that in Ashkhabad output of high-grade textiles and other piece goods went

up to 98 per cent of the planned target in the first quarter of 1953 as a result of the course of stakahnovite training completed by 800 women workers there.

Much can be learned from the press about both the achievements and the deficiencies of vocational training in the Central Asian republics. On the credit side of the account should be reckoned such institutions for long-term training as the No. 1 Mining School at Shurab in the Tadzhik coalfields, which since it was founded has turned out more than 2,000 young miners for the Tadzhikugol (Coal) Trust; the three-year school for locomotive engineers at Alma-Ata in Kazakhstan, where training, uniform and accommodation are all free and trainees receive in addition travelling concessions and a monthly grant of 100 rubles; the Ashkhabad Oil Technicum in Turkmenistan, providing a four-year course with exemption from tuition fees for native entrants; and the 20-year-old railway school at Ayaguz (Kazakhstan), said to have graduated no fewer than 6,000 qualified railway workers ranging from station-masters to booking clerks. Also on the credit side of the account are the shorter stakhanovite and refresher courses successfully sponsored by individual works and branches of industry and the visual and oral methods of training (film demonstrations on technical subjects, exhibitions, placards and broadcast lectures) which, it is claimed, often achieve notable results in terms of increased output and productivity and economies in time and material.

Shortcomings in training

Against these successes, however, must be weighed a number of defects the existence of which the local Central Asian press has been the first to acknowledge. Thus in some concerns the number of workers actually getting stakhanovite or other training was said to be small - in the Stalinabad Shoe Factory of Tadzhikistan, indeed, no more than 25 per cent of the total. At another Tadzhik concern, the Kanibadam Spinning Mills, the percentage was even lower and some factories of the Tadzhik local and light industries network provided no training facilities at all. Although in Tadzhikistan as a whole the planned increase in qualified personnel was being achieved, thanks to the introduction of intensive training schemes, it was a slow business and there was still a widespread shortage of trained men in industry. The situation was worse in Kirgizia, where plans for the training and re-training of mechanics remained systematically unfulfilled despite the increasing demand for qualified manpower. This was due in some degree to the inadequacy of the existing vocational school network, which meant that personnel had to be trained on the spot, an unsatisfactory and inefficient process. In those industries where technical instruction was provided, it was often of poor quality and given by ill-qualified

instructors. At No. 1 Ashkhabad Railway School, for instance, the curriculum could not be completed on time because of the incompetence of the teachers. At Schools No. 4 and 5 of the same railway, the tuition given to students was technologically obsolete for the same reason, and the rapid turnover among the staff did not exactly make for the stable conditions so necessary in intensive training. Complaints were also made of an unsystematic, "formalistic" or "abstract" approach to the question of training labour. For example No. 4 School for Oilworkers in Tadzhikistan was said to have turned out 100 specialists in 1952, but the instruction they had gained had been over-theoretical and its value had not been enhanced by the fact that obsolete derrick equipment had been used in training, though modern equipment was available. A similar account was given of the Bairam-Ali Engineering School in Turkmenistan. This was one of the oldest schools of its kind in the republic; it provided a ten-month course for tractor drivers, mechanics and factory foremen and its curriculum embraced a wide range of subjects; but here again, instruction was too theoretical and though the trainees did acquire the rudiments of engineering and a certain practical experience of machines, their understanding of the new stakhanovite methods and approach to work was sadly deficient.

One factor of considerable local importance in industrial training in Central Asia is the inadequacy of instruction in the vernacular languages. The need for such instruction is well exemplified by the case of the Kzyl-Kiya Mining School in Kirgizia, where, according to the press, the authorities had simplified the curriculum for non-Russian students, arguing that the trainees' lower cultural and educational level and poor knowledge of Russian had made it inevitable to resort to this dangerous expedient. Again, the Turkmenistan press registered complaints from railwaymen of the Ashkhabad line that too few technical lectures were being given in Turkmen, although the majority of the men working down the line were natives. And there was criticism of the fact that at the Bairam-Ali Engineering School mentioned earlier students were obliged to take down all their notes in class, since no vernacular textbook on mechanical engineering had been published in the whole of Turkmenistan. On the other hand, no criticism was apparently made of conditions for entry to the Ashkhabad Oil Technicum, where knowledge of spoken and written Russian (as well as of mathematics and the Constitution) was compulsory for the entrance examination, and where the four-year course was conducted entirely in the Russian language.

Organization, Administration and Discipline

The efficient organization of the workers time is recognized as another of the keys to higher productivity. Hence the stress in many Soviet industries on the performance of daily tasks in accordance with strict schedules and time-graphs based on the study of the various operations which go to make up the production process. Workers are to be encouraged to operate several machines at a time and to work in composite teams or brigades in which every member is responsible for a specific item of production. (There is admittedly nothing particularly novel in these methods, which have long been in use in capitalist states and merely represent an aspect of Taylorism adapted to Soviet conditions). In industry, as in agriculture, the need for stability of labour is emphasized. From the point of view of increasing efficiency, the ideal would be for every worker to remain permanently attached to his particular job, machine or field of activity, for his everyday tasks to be regularly apportioned and the results of his hourly, daily, weekly and monthly endeavours carefully checked and tabulated. But this often remains only a distant ideal. In Kirgizia, for example, the allocation of work in coal prospecting and drilling operations was said to be so far from perfect that members of prospecting teams at Tash-Kumyr were often diverted from their rightful jobs to quite different tasks. At the surface coalmines of the Sredazugol and Tadzhikugol Trusts, slackness not only among miners but also among the more highly-paid foremen and managers had apparently resulted in such poor organization that whole brigades were sometimes idle for hours on end for one reason or another. And Uzbekugol had cause to complain that progressive methods of coal extraction such as the "cyclical" method were not being fully introduced, that labour norms were not uniformly carried out and that machinery and equipment were not being used to the full.

Labour discipline

Efficient organization is unlikely to be achieved in the absence of discipline, and the problem of enforcing labour discipline is accordingly one that constantly exercises the Soviet authorities in Central Asia. Often enough the failure of discipline can be traced to the most elementary cause. At the truck sheds and garages on the Orto-Tokoi Construction Site, for example, it was said to be due to the simple facts that the basis on which earnings were calculated had several times been changed, and that liaison between drivers at the garage and excavator mechanics was poor. On the railways, it was found that discipline slackened in direct ratio to the neglect of Party work. Whenever Party work flagged, time-tables would be upset, trains delayed and accidents grow more frequent. Needless to say there is no dearth of suggestions from "rationalizers of industry"

for improving labour discipline. At the Tashkent Textile Combine it was even proposed that individual efficiency and achievement should be assessed by means of marks, as in school. This system of checking results was actively canvassed in wall news-sheets, and its application keenly studied by delegations visiting Tashkent expressly for the purpose. Where incentives proved ineffectual, however, deterrents had to be used. Such at least is the inference that might be drawn from the discussions at a recent plenary session of the Tashkent Oblast Party Committee. The session expressed its disapproval of the fact that a good many enterprises failed to inflict "corrective punishment" on workers who persistently violated State and labour discipline. It was thanks to such laxity, the session concluded, that the Tashselmash had repeatedly failed to reach its planned output targets.

"Socialist competition" and production norms

In Central Asian as in other Soviet industries, "Socialist competition" drives play a major part in efforts to raise productivity. In Tadzhikistan their promotion was apparently regarded as the primary task of the trade unions. Competition might take the form of "emulation" between individuals within a particular concern (efforts to achieve Stakhanovite records and the like) or of drives between industrially related trusts, such as the Emba and Central Asian oilfields, and among other industries, or different divisions of a railway network. Collective drives of this latter type were said to have led to great improvements in production. Delegations from the competing industries would visit each other, and frank mutual criticism and a valuable interchange of experience would ensue. But enthusiastic organizers of "socialist competition" often have to contend with apathy, and the press shows that their exhortations in connection with the new industrial targets set at the 19th Party Congress fell flat in a good many concerns. At the No. 4 Transport Base in Tadzhikistan only 20 men volunteered to complete in the emulation drive, and at No. 2 Base of the same organization only 45 per cent of the employees took any active part. In other plants, the apathy came less from the rank and file than from the ostensible organizers of the drives. At various Balkhash industries in Kazakhstan, only a few striking propaganda posters were on display, and of these some were still (in August, 1953) calling on the workers to fulfil 1952 production plans, whilst others (at the Kungrad Machine Shops) urged them to intensify their efforts in honour of the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution. At the Krasnyi Metallist Works in Turkmenistan, where the factory aktiv had hitherto enjoyed a reputation for being keen and progressive, the wall news-sheet had been forsaken by its editor and socialist emulation drives had

not been mentioned at factory meetings the whole year. A report from Turkmenistan in June 1953 said that some industrial plants there had made no plans for competition drives whatever, and production had suffered accordingly. Tadzhik trade unions were criticized for insisting on quantity of output rather than on quality in sponsoring emulation campaigns.

To judge from the press, a good deal of confusion still exists about individual output norms and their relation to the monthly pay-pocket. Press correspondents in Kirgizia reported in March that the noxious practice of uravnilovka, or equal pay for unequal work, was still the order of the day at the construction sites of the Frunze Gospromtorg, so that a bricklayer who laid, say, 2,000 bricks per day was getting paid the same as one who laid only 800. At the Mechanical Glass Works in Turkmenistan, output norms were set too low for full production to be reached; furthermore earnings were not based on individual output and performance, and jobs were not classified, and remunerated, according to their degree of difficulty or the specialized knowledge they required, so that thanks to low-set norms for ordinary jobs, an unskilled man at the works was often able to exceed his norm by as much as 230 per cent and earn as much as his skilled colleague whose more complex task made it difficult for him to show spectacular stakhanovite results. In other Turkmenistan industries, there was so little uniformity in production norms for identical work even when performed under identical conditions that, to take but one example, a four-wheeled cart took 93.7 hours to produce in Mary, 115.7 in Ashkhabad and 136.9 in Tashauz.

Political organization and control

Party leaders continually repeat that political indoctrination is the very crux of successful industrial and economic development. But the question of how, through political penetration and control of the economy, to perform this indoctrination is a delicate one. Not only is there a danger of unwarranted interference by Party organs and officials in purely professional matters of management and technology on which they may be ill-qualified to pronounce; but over-absorption in such matters may lead to the neglect of their real task, which is to provide general political guidance and "uplift" and see that Party directives are followed and State plans fulfilled. It is therefore laid down that Party organs, whilst fully entitled to supervise and "guide" the work of industrial plants and their management, must not attempt to take decisions on minor questions or on the day-to-day administration of the concern, which are the business of the management. The function of the primary Party cells is thus, ideally at any rate, an advisory one. They

subject the work of the plant to scrutiny, bring the results of their investigations to the notice of the management, and see that any improvements they may recommend are carried out. They are also responsible for the execution of the State plan insofar as it falls within their competence, and local Party committees are expected to give serious consideration to their opinions and suggestions.

Examples of both good and bad work by Party organs in industry could be multiplied; the cells of the Krasnyi Molot works in Turkmenistan were, for instance, cited for their high degree of vigilance. The serious failure in coal deliveries by the Tadzhikugol Trust, on the other hand, was attributed in the main to inefficient Party guidance. In 1952, costs of oil-prospecting in the new oilfields of Chelekenneft rose by 115 rubles a metre, and drilling estimates were exceeded by several million rubles; matters were no better in 1953, but still nothing was done to remedy the situation. This was due to the lackadaisical attitude of the local Party Committee. The 7th Plenary session of the Frunze Town Party Committee in Kirgizia censured various primary Party cells in the republic for failing to exercise their right of supervision, not giving sufficient study to the economy of their enterprises and neglecting to organize drives for higher productivity, improved quality of output and reduced production costs. There were said to be no less than 7,000 registered propagandists in Kirgizia; a complaint against these was that many of them were too much inclined to concentrate on local economic problems at the expense of Marxist-Leninist teaching. In Stalinabad the town Party committee was criticized for attaching too little importance to establishing good contacts with Party cells and aktivs in industry. Very few meetings of Party aktivs in industry to raise output had been held, although the committee had long been aware that the building trusts were far behind schedule and that some buildings, such as the Tadzhik State Library, were taking from 5 to 7 years to complete. In contrast, there were many examples of the spectacular results which efficient Party propaganda could achieve. The really considerable progress made at the Chelkar Diesel Locomotive Depot on the Chelkar section of the Orenburg line could be ascribed to the appeals for increased efficiency by the 300 agitators on the job. Workmen at the sheds were now exceeding their daily norms and repairs to Diesel engines were well and promptly executed. Good results had also been achieved at the Tadzhik Traktorodetal works since Party agitators there had begun to take their work more seriously. The quality of output had improved, and the high percentage of rejects been reduced. In comparison with 1951, output had risen by 18 per cent in 1952, and according to the latest reports planned production targets were being

fulfilled as regards both quantity and quality. However, numerous examples make it clear that strong Party representation in certain industries, such as the coal industry, is in itself no guarantee of qualitative and quantitative improvement in the output of that industry. In No. 8 Mine at Shurab (Tadzhikistan) there were said to be 133 Party members working underground. Nevertheless, and despite the fact that labour productivity at the coal-face was no more than 50 per cent, the local Party aktiv was doing little to make more satisfactory use of production reserves or to introduce scheduled graphs of production. The Leninabad Silk Kombinat boasted a Party aktiv 200 strong, 90 members of which occupied responsible posts whilst many others operated the machines; but this had not prevented serious deterioration in the work of the silk-reeling section of the Kombinat, and in the weaving section, which was already behind with its output, workmen had to remain idle for hours because of breakdowns in machinery or organization, and the percentage of rejects turned out was high. The political education of the many native women employed at the Kombinat was moreover being neglected, and they were, it seems, still imbued with the old, stubborn prejudices.

The supervisory functions of the Party organs, in industry as in agriculture, also extend to keeping an eye on the selection and promotion of workers. Thus lack of Party vigilance was blamed for the fact that many posts at the Samarkand Station Engine Depot were occupied by ill-qualified men (the foreman at the tool-shop was no technician but an ex-club leader) while many graduates of technical colleges with excellent qualifications were employed in a menial capacity as timekeepers, storekeepers or warehousemen.

The improvement of living and working conditions

Measures to improve living and working conditions are now being introduced on an increasing scale in line with the Government's new emphasis on serving the needs of the consumer. But to judge from the press in many parts of Central Asia they still offer but small inducement to the industrial worker or trainee to give of his best. To take a few examples: it was reported from a construction site at Kos-Kuduk in Kazakhstan that workers there could sometimes not even discover how much they were earning, as they were not issued with pay-books. To check up on their accounts they had to go all the way to Alma-Ata, and once there, adjustments and corrections were not easy to make. One case cited was that of a Kos-Kuduk carpenter who at the end of the month was paid only 310 rubles, though in actual fact he had earned 554. Another was that of a brigade whose members, after fulfilling all their set tasks, were told at the end of the month that their earnings were practically non-existent and

that adjustments could not be worked out there and then. It was no wonder that labour discipline had weakened at Kos-Kuduk and that the men stayed at home when they felt like it or knocked off, whistling, at mid-day. Then, conditions for young workmen living in barracks were often primitive in the extreme. In a barracks for young building workers in Frunze (Kirgizia) the state of the dormitories was deplorable. The beds were rickety and falling to pieces and should have been scrapped long ago. Catering facilities for workmen were often bad; at one works restaurant in Alma-Ata a correspondent complained that there were only 9 glasses, 4 tea-spoons, 5 forks and a single knife, and tea was drunk out of soup-plates. Too few cultural amenities were provided, sanitation rules were not always observed, and in some industries, according to reports at the 6th Plenary Session of the Tadzhik Trades Unions, labour protection and safety regulations were not up to the standard required by law.

Most if not all of these defects would, it is claimed, be remedied given sufficiently conscientious Party work and a reasonable attitude to criticism on the part of factory managements. But experience shows that the latter is not always forthcoming. To quote a single example, the local correspondent of an Uzbek paper revealed in September that criticism from workers was not favourably viewed by the management of the Uzbek Metallurgical Plant. Men were actually losing their jobs or being down-graded for sending critical articles to local papers or for airing grievances against the management at workshop meetings. Worse, members of the Party aktiv at the plant, including the influential Secretary of the Begovat Town Party Council, were fully aware that criticism was being suppressed in an "un-Soviet" manner but had not lifted a finger. This ran counter to all the official teachings on the subject of criticism, which was supposed to be freely exercised by the rank and file of the workers in the interests of their own welfare and of increased efficiency and output.

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MOUNTAIN CLIMBING IN CENTRAL ASIA

The initial impetus to organized mountaineering in the USSR was given by Professor Nikoladze, who, in 1923, led a group of students to the summit of Mount Kazbek in the Caucasus. Since then, mountain climbing has become increasingly popular and progressively more general and better organized, and has spread to embrace not only the Caucasus, but also the Tien Shan range and the great Pamir plateau of Central Asia.

The first Central Asian expedition was made by a team of Ukrainian sportsmen to the Tien Shan range in 1927, and this was followed in 1928 by an expedition to the Pamirs organized by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. By the early 1930's mountaineering had assumed the proportions of a sport of the masses, and during these years not a few notable feats were accomplished, including the discovery and scaling of the Stalin Peak (7495 metres), the highest mountain in the USSR, by E.M. Abalakov in 1933, the completion of the Pamir survey by the 1928 expedition and the climbing in 1934 of the Lenin Peak (7127 metres) by the expedition under the leadership of V. Abalakov.

From 1934 onwards, development was characterized by two separate but simultaneous trends - the gradual expansion of the sport as a form of popular recreation, and the formation of groups of skilled and highly trained experts for the scaling of the highest and most formidable peaks, the surveying of hitherto uncharted regions, the testing of food, clothing and other mountaineering impediments, and for the collection of the scientific data of all sorts - geographical, botanical, geodetic and the like - which high altitude climbing yields. For the masses, training camps, staffed by suitable instructors and first aid teams and equipped with wireless, were established along the slopes of the Tien Shan range by various sporting clubs of the USSR; for the experts, the Alpinist of the USSR badges, Class I and Class II, and two other distinctions, Master of Mountaineering and Distinguished Master of Mountaineering, were inaugurated in 1934. Late in 1936 the All-Union Section of Mountaineering was created, and by the end of the 1930's more than 25,000 enthusiasts were regularly engaged in mountain climbing each season, and most of the highest peaks in the Tien Shan and the Pamirs had already been scaled.

Organised mountaineering, brought for all practical purposes to a standstill by the war, was resumed with renewed vigour as soon as hostilities ceased. An article which appeared early in 1946 in Soviet Literature described the growing popularity of the sport and the plans and preparations which were being made for the summer of 1946:

"Demobilized from the Red Army, Soviet enthusiasts are preparing for the first post-war climbing season. The 1946 programme is considerably handicapped by the fact that the bases and training camps in the North Caucasus suffered severely during the German occupation. Three camps, however, were refitted last year, while a further ten will provide training for five thousand climbers during the coming season."

In spite of this handicap, the 1946 programme was an ambitious one and appears to have led to a number of noteworthy achievements; eleven major virgin peaks are said to have been scaled and very considerable progress was made with the survey of hitherto uncharted regions both of the Tien Shan range and of the Pamirs. Among the more notable performances were:

(a) The scaling of the Marble Wall Peak (Mramornaya Stena)

A first attempt to scale this peak was made in 1902, but was abandoned at the 5000 metre level. In 1935 a group of Soviet mountaineers was also thwarted by avalanches. The 1946 expedition, which reached the summit, was led by Professor A.A. Letavet, an authority, who had already taken part in eight previous expeditions in the Tien Shan range. In his report, he wrote:

"The Marble Wall is a snow-clad mountain of marble strata at the junction of the Sary-Dzhas and Meridional ranges, crowned by a triangular peak of 6150 metres.

Before starting its attack this summer, our group made an elaborate reconnaissance of four neighbouring peaks ranging from 4700 to 5350 metres in height. This gave us an excellent opportunity to study the Marble Wall from various points and to select the route for our attempt.

The assault began on 24th August from a camp situated at a height of 3950 metres. Each member of the party carried a load of some 25 kilogrammes - tents, sleeping-bags, equipment, and provisions for seven days. Camp II was pitched over trenches dug in the snow at 5100 metres. On the morning of 27th August, a party of seven set off for the final assault and reached the summit on the following day.

To the south-east of the Marble Wall the Meridional range culminates in a gigantic, cupola-shaped peak, to which we gave the name of The Centenary of the Russian Geographical Society.

Prolonged and violent snow storms, coupled with intense cold, prevented any attempt to climb this peak, and on 3rd September the expedition began its descent."

(b) Ascent of the Patkhor and Karl Marx peaks

An expedition, organized by the All-Union Committee of Physical Culture and Sports of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and led by the well-known sportsmen E.A. Beletski and E.M. Abalakov, set out from Moscow at the end of July with the object of exploring the Rushan and Shakhdar ranges of the Southern Pamirs. During a fortnight's arduous climbing, the expedition first reached the summit of a hitherto unknown and unclimbed peak at the highest point of the Rushan range (since named the Patkhor Peak, 7150 metres) and later succeeded in reaching the virgin summit of the Karl Marx Peak (7000 metres), the highest peak of the Shakhdar range.

(c) Survey of the Tien Shan range

A very considerable amount of preliminary survey had already been accomplished at the end of the last century, firstly by P.P. Semenov, whose contribution was so great that he came to be known as Semenov-Tyan-shanski, and later by the explorers Przhevalski and Mushketov. Inadequate knowledge of the science of topography, however, had left many blanks on the maps of the period; but recent topographical research, supplemented by the detailed reports of a number of climbers, led, according to a Tashkent report, to the preparation, in 1946, of a new and complete map of the Tien Shan range.

(d) Survey in the Pamirs

Survey of the Pamirs was carried out almost entirely by topographers of the Red Army. One party, operating for six months of 1946 in the Eastern Pamirs at heights of 5000 metres and over, produced detailed descriptions and maps of the range and of the area around Lake Kara-kul.

A second party in the course of a survey of the eastern boundaries of the Trans-Alai range made more than fifty ascents of peaks between 5000 and 6000 metres in height and including the formidable Mount Napkaldy in the heart of the Northern Pamirs, and in 1946 alone nearly 30,000 square kilometres of the Pamirs were surveyed and charted.

A particularly strong expedition, consisting of Professor Letavet, E.M. Abalakov, N.A. Gusak and E.A. Beletsky, the three latter of whom had already scaled the Stalin Peak, and a number of other holders of the Master of Mountaineering distinction, carried out a valuable general survey of the Tien Shan range, but failed to achieve its primary object, the scaling of Victory Peak - a mountain which to this day has defied all attempts to climb it.

The story of the discovery and the naming of this peak is not without interest. The crests of the Kokshaal Range, to the south-east of the Sary-Dzhas chain, are normally hidden in perpetual cloud, and until recently the Khan Tengri (6955 metres) was generally accepted as being the highest peak of the Tien Shan range. In 1940, however, the members of an expedition on the Sary-Dzhas were vouchsafed a clear view, and there to the south-east, they observed a peak of the Kokshaal range which, though they had no instruments for accurate measurement, clearly surpassed in height the Khan Tengri. In 1943, an expedition of the Military Topographical Department of the Soviet Central Asian Military District established the position of the peak as being 16 kilometres to the south of Khan Tengri on the upper reaches of the Zvezdochka glacier, and its height as 7440 metres.

"The position and the height of this mountain were determined (in 1943) at a moment in our patriotic war when final victory was already being regarded as a foregone conclusion, and for that reason it was decided that the mountain should bear the proud name of Pik Pobedy - Victory Peak - and serve as a monument of our great deeds."

The enthusiasm displayed in the first post-war climbing season appears to have been maintained in subsequent years; indeed, administrative and organizational supply did not initially keep pace with popular demand, and complaints about the general shortage of training camps, instructors and mountaineering equipment of all kinds were widespread. There was, for example, but one school of instruction for instructors, organized by the Soviet Trade Unions, and lack of trained teachers resulted in the closing of many camps for part, and in some cases, for the whole of the season. The Soviet Government, however, intervened and voted considerable sums of money for the development of mountaineering, and by the summer of 1953 no less than 23 camps were in use in the Caucasus, the Tien Shan and the Pamirs, affording training and instruction to tens of thousands.

"Taking into consideration the great importance of mountain climbing for the collection of geographical data in the Soviet

Union", the 2nd Geographical Congress of the USSR decided to create a "Commission for High Altitude Exploration", to be attached to the All-Union Geographical Society and to work in collaboration with the All-Union Alpine Society, founded in 1936. As a result, cadres of indigenous experts have been formed in the various federal republics, to act both as instructors and as guides in the local ranges familiar to them.

Kazakhstan

A flourishing Alpine Club has been established in Kazakhstan, and "Alpiniads" - organized mass expeditions - are being arranged annually in the Trans-Ili Ala-Tau, the popularity of which as a mountaineering centre is second only to that of the Caucasus.

In 1953 more than a thousand expeditions were carried out under the auspices of the club, and groups comprised of Karaganda miners and collective farmers reached the summits of the Centenary of the Geographical Society Peak (6400 metres), the Grebeshok (6200 metres) and the Bayankol Peak (5800 metres).

Mountaineers of the East Kazakhstan oblast organized a large number of climbing groups in 1953, and hundreds of climbers from Zyryanovsk, Leninogorsk and other centres explored the slopes of the Sarymsakty Range. Members of the Metallurg Club reached the summit of the highest peak of the Sarymsakty, and in recognition 32 of them were awarded the insignia of "First Class Alpinist of the USSR."

The fizkulturniki (sportsmen) of the Karaganda coal mines succeeded in scaling the steep and rocky ridges of the Trans-Ili Ala-Tau mountains, and a party of 47 young miners reached the summit of the Molodezhnaya Peak on the Talass ridge of the Western Tien Shan. The Urozhai Sporting Club organized an "Alpiniad for Rural and Artisan Youth". Two new camps have recently been opened in the Trans-Ili Ala Tau range by the Iskra and Spartak Clubs, and the keenness of the young climbers and the training they are receiving are both regarded as highly satisfactory.

In the Tien Shan, two major exploratory expeditions were undertaken in 1953 - one on the Meridional Range and the second in the uncharted Bayankol - Marble Wall area.

The Meridional Range Expedition

The Meridional Range runs roughly at right angles to the

parallel chains of the Tien Shan mountains, dividing them into almost equal halves,

Early in August 1953 an expedition set out from Przhevalsk and after a twelve-day march reached the foot of the Meridional Range. Here, stores and equipment, which had been transported by pack-horses, were transferred to improvised light sledges, constructed of skis, and thence hauled upwards by hand. By the end of August the preparatory work was completed, and a base camp was established in a snow cave dug at an altitude of 5300 metres near the source of one of the minor tributaries of the Inylchik glacier.

An advance camp was pitched on the Sino-Soviet border at an altitude of 6300 metres, and from there an assault group of four pushed on to the summit. For several days severe snowstorms compelled the party to seek such meagre shelter as their small tent afforded, but eventually, on 7th September, the summit - 6800 metres was reached. The leader of the group, Vitaly Nosdrykhin, left a written record of the event on the spot, and the highest point was christened Pik Druzhby - Friendship Peak, "in honour of the friendship uniting the two great peoples of China and Soviet Russia."

The Bayankol - Marble Wall area

Details of the activities of this expedition were given in the Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 11th October 1953.

Training and testing of clothing and equipment commenced in 1952 and continued throughout the winter. The base camp was established some twelve kilometres from the small hamlet of Dzhar Kubak, at a point from which a good general view of the area under exploration could be obtained. Though severely hampered by continuous snow, rain and cloud, the expedition completed its preliminary survey and selected the routes for the final assaults within a week.

The assault party first attacked the Marble Wall, the summit of which was reached without any incident worthy of note. On its return journey the party deviated to climb two further peaks - the Pogranichnik (5200 metres) and the Uzlovaya (5070 metres), and after a week's rest at base turned to the ascent of the Bayankol Peak, a hazardous and difficult undertaking.

Bayankol (5790 metres) is crowned by a symmetrical snow dome, guarded, on the side from which it was being approached, by an all but vertical and unscalable ice wall. The expedition worked its

way along the high southern ridge and after sixteen hours of arduous and continuous climbing reached the foot of a glacier which seemed almost as if it were suspended in mid-air. Here camp was pitched for the night, and the next day the summit was reached. From it the expedition found stretched before it a vast panorama, in which the Stalin, the Khan Tengri and the Chapayev peaks, and beyond - above the Kokshaal range - the Pik Pobedy were all clearly visible.

In all, seven major ascents were made by the expedition; scientific data of considerable importance were acquired, numerous samples of high-altitude flora and rocks and a few interesting archaeological finds were collected; and from the many and excellent photographs and drawings brought back it was found possible to make a complete and accurate map of the area. As a reward, several members of the expedition were invested with the insignia of "Master of Mountaineering."

Pamirs

The principal event of the 1953 season, an outstanding feat of mountaineering, was the ascent of the formidable Korzhenevski Peak (7105 metres), one of the highest mountains in the Soviet Union.

The peak was first explored in 1936 by a party under the leadership of A.B. Dzharapidze and N.A. Gusak, and in 1937 another expedition, headed by D.I. Guschin, failed only by a hundred metres to reach the summit.

In 1950 preparations for a further assault were begun under the auspices of the Soviet Trade Union Club; selected young mountaineers, based on a camp in the vicinity of the Grum-Grzhimailo glacier, underwent a rigorous training and were subjected to tests involving a number of ascents of over 6000 metres. The best of them were then nominated to form the Korzhenevski expedition. Training of the chosen team began in 1952 under the direction of Masters of Mountaineering E.A. Beletski, A.S. Ugarov, A.S. Gozhev, A.I. Ivanov and I.S. Daibog, all of whom were also to form part of the expedition.

Early in August 1953 the expedition set off. The first difficulty arose when it was found that the bridge across the Muk-Su had been destroyed by floods. The crossing, however, was successfully accomplished with the aid of ropes, and the next day the expedition climbed up and across the innumerable and formidable crevasses of the Korzhenevski glacier to a height of 4400 metres, where the first camp - Camp 4400 - was established and a rest taken.

On 17th August climbing was resumed, one party of four being detached to climb the 6200-metre crest to the north of the Korzhenevski Peak. The second camp was pitched at 5600 metres, and the third at 6100; between Camp 4400 and Camp 5600 very deep snow was encountered, but the climb from Camp 5600 to Camp 6100 proved to be the most difficult passage of the whole ascent. When the latter camp had been pitched, the weather deteriorated, and the expedition found itself exposed to continuous severe and icy winds; during the last two days of the storm, the climbers found that they had little inclination to eat, but were very thirsty and drank copiously of hot tea. When at last the storm subsided, the expedition pushed on; two further camps were established at 6400 metres and 6800 metres, and on 22nd August the assault party attacked and reached the summit.

Writing in Sovyetski Sport of 3rd November 1953, D. Zatulovski, who directed the expedition on behalf of the Trade Union Club, says:

"The climbing of the Korzhenevski Peak proves that the 1953 expedition was composed of well-trained and expert cadres. But such isolated achievements only serve to emphasize the very inadequate efforts so far made by Soviet sporting organizations in general, and in particular by the General Directorate of Physical Culture and Sport of the Ministry of Health of the USSR, which has done nothing at all, to foster the organization of high altitude climbing en masse. It is high time that attention was concentrated on the interests of climbers in their hundreds of thousands rather than on those of a few isolated groups of experts. Every aspiring mountaineer should be given the opportunity of gaining experience of high altitude climbing."

Tadzhikistan

The first mountaineering camp in Tadzhikistan - the Garmo Camp - was opened by the Nauka Society in 1953. The Principal of the camp is "Master of Mountaineering" B.A. Garf, and among its members it includes many students from Moscow University and scientists from the various Institutes of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. During this, its first season, the club organized a number of groups which climbed the Molotov Peak (6898 metres) and explored the southern slopes of Stalin Peak and the largest of the Pamir glaciers, the Garmo glacier.

From this brief survey of activities, it would appear that mountaineering as a sport has both flourished and increased in popularity during post-war years in the Soviet Union and that its devotees are making by no means negligible contributions to the growing accumulation of geographic and scientific knowledge.

"Mountain climbers" writes N. Tikhonov in Sovyetiski Sport "have made great contributions to Soviet science, and thanks to their heroic and useful work, many complicated riddles of the mountains have been solved in the Pamirs, the Tien Shan and the Altai."

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GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES

CHAPAYEV Peak - in the Central Tien Shan region.

INYLCHIK - a glacier south of the Sary-Dzhas range.

KARL MARK - a peak in the Shakhdar Range (roughly 37.15N 72.50E.)

KOKSHAAL TAU - a range roughly south of 42N., stretching between 79 and 80E.

KORZHENEVSKII Peak - in the Peter I range.

LENIN Peak (7127m.) - almost in the centre of the Trans-Alay range, astride the Osh - Khorog highway, stretching into China.

MARBLE WALL - a peak at the intersection of the Meridional and Sary-Dzhas ranges.

MERIDIONAL RANGE - a mountain chain astride the Sary-Dzhas range.

PATKHOR - a mountain of the Rushan range, very near the intersection of 38N. and 72E.

PETER I range - south of and parallel to the Muk-Su River.

POGRANICHNIK - in the Marble Wall peak area.

RUSHAN, Shugnan and Shakhdar ranges - mountain chains in the South-West Pamirs.

SARY-DZHAS - a range north of Khan Tengri astride the Meridional Chain, between the Terski Ala Tau and the Khan Tengri massif.

UZLOVAYA - in the Marble Wall peak area.

ZVEZDOCHKA - a tributary of the Inylchik glacier.

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CIVIL AVIATION IN CENTRAL ASIA

Since the end of the Second World War civil aviation in the USSR has expanded considerably, and it is to be developed still further in the period 1951 - 1955. The total length of the nation's airlines is now 175,000 kilometres; the number of transport planes in operation is constantly increasing, and more and more airports are being equipped to provide a continuous 24-hour service. The new lines put into commission since the war include a direct link between Leningrad, Central Asia and Kazakhstan, a line running from Moscow through Kazan, Sverdlovsk, Petropavlovsk, Omsk, Pavlodar and Semipalatinsk to Ust-Kamenogorsk, and another running from Sverdlovsk through Kustanai, Akmolinsk, Karaganda and Balkhash to Alma-Ata. Moscow is now linked with the Turkmen capital of Ashkhabad by way of Penza, Uralsk, Aktyubinsk and Nukus. The Moscow-Frunze and Moscow-Stalinabad air links, yet another postwar development, have reduced travel time between these cities by five or six times and greatly expedited freight and mail deliveries to the Tadzhik and Kirghiz capitals. The volume of passenger traffic carried by airlines linking Moscow with Kazakhstan and Central Asia has multiplied several times in comparison with the pre-war volume. During 1951 and 1952, about 8,000 workers and technicians and over 3,000 tons of equipment and spare parts were brought by air to the Main Turkmen Canal zone, thus contributing to the progress of work on this new project (now apparently shelved) with its potential network of irrigation canals and power stations. Not so long ago the journey from Ust-Kamenogorsk to Moscow and back took over two weeks by rail; today, by air, it takes only three or four days. Often the freight planes bring raw materials, semi-manufactured goods and spare parts for various Central Asian engineering plants. They also transport high-grade steel, ball-bearings, wireless equipment, rubber, precision instruments, liquid oxygen, varnishes, dyes and so forth. Air transport is much used in areas where no good roads are available. The sulphur mines of the Kara-Kum desert, for example, are served exclusively by aircraft, which deliver equipment, fuel, foodstuffs and even drinking water to the mines, returning with cargoes of sulphur.

Kazakhstan

A large aviation network now covers the Republic. The capital Alma-Ata is connected by air with Moscow, Tashkent, Frunze, Novosibirsk, Omsk, Sverdlovsk, Sochi and Mineralnye Vody in the Northern Caucasus, as well as with all the Republican oblast centres.

The air ambulance service has expanded greatly and in 1952, 8000 ambulance sorties were flown and over 2000 patients evacuated from remote districts inaccessible by other means of transport.

The Agricultural department of Civil Aviation has branched out into a number of specialized operations such as fertilization of winter wheat, sugar-beet or cotton plantations; pest control, the spreading of weed-killer and the removal of cotton leaves by means of chemical spraying. Aircraft flying at very low altitudes - sometimes at not more than five metres above ground - spread insecticides over vast areas of cotton or other crops. In the Lenin kolkhoz (Novo-Pokrovsk raion) low-flying aircraft fertilize strips of soil 10-12 metres wide; some 300 hectares of rye and perennial grasses were treated in this way in 1953. In the Molotov kolkhoz (Novo-Pokrovsk raion) and the Zaviety Ilicha sovkhov (Borodukhino raion) hundreds of hectares have been fertilized from the air. At the Kirov kolkhoz (Churchum raion) the use of aircraft resulted in a saving of about 1000 trudodni (workdays) as well as ensuring protection against pests. In the Zaisan and Samarskoye raions of East Kazakhstan about 8000 hectares of wheat crops were treated in 1953, and the area cleared of pests was five times larger than in 1952. In eleven kolkhozes of the Dzhabul oblast the spraying of sugar-beet fields with potassium chloride resulted in an extra yield of four centners per hectare from a 2000-hectare plantation; and the average harvest of grain and perennial grasses after aerial chemical treatment likewise rose by about four centners per hectare. Even more striking results were obtained at a Kustanai sovkhov where winter rye aerially treated with ammonium nitrate in early spring grew 20-25 centimeters higher and a good deal denser than previously; whilst aerially-sprayed wheat was even found to yield 16.7 centners per hectare more than hand-sprayed wheat. Chemical weed-killer is extensively sprayed from the air in the Michurin sovkhov, (Alma-Ata oblast). The sowing of saksaul by air in desert areas generally yields good results; its cost does not exceed that of ground sowing, but it is still infrequently practised. There is some complaint that aircraft are too seldom used in fertilizing rice plantations. Only 107 hectares were said to have been treated in 1952, although it had been demonstrated that one aircraft could fertilize 50-60 hectares of rice per day, whereas only 0.5-1 hectares could be treated in the same period by hand.

Designing model aircraft is a very popular pastime with Kazakh schoolboys. The organizations run by DOSAAF (Voluntary Society for Aid to the Army, Navy and Air Force) and the 200 school groups studying model aircraft construction in Kazakhstan have a combined membership of some 4,000 young people. According

to the Soviet press, three world records were set up at the second All-Union Model Aircraft Contest in 1952 by two boys from Alma-Ata, Pyotr Velichkovski and Pavel Gorynin. After much preparatory work in the schools, DOSAAF and Komsomol organizations, about 200 model aircraft builders from the Republican Aviation Club, the Alma-Ata Pioneer Palace and sixteen different oblasts of the Republic took part in the contest. Among the exhibits were piston-engined, jet-propelled and remote-controlled models of gliders, aeroplanes and flying boats, besides reproductions of existing Soviet aircraft. On 15th July 1953 the radio-controlled model built by Velichkovski and Gorynin reached an altitude of 1,050 metres, and remained in the air for 1 hour 36 minutes 52 seconds, landing 7 metres from the point of take-off. This beat a previous Moscow record by 25 minutes 37 seconds.

Uzbekistan

According to an official notice published in Pravda Vostoka by the Uzbek Civil Airways Administration, booking is now open for passenger air-transport to all destinations, and freight is being accepted in unlimited quantities. Return tickets, valid for 45 days, are sold 5 days in advance. There is a 50 per cent reduction in charges on all freight carried between the Kara-Kalpak ASSR and Tashkent and between the Khorezm oblast and Chardzhou. The Uzbek papers have been advocating the creation of raion air bases in the Republic. Pravda Vostoka recommends that these should be organized at M.T.S. centres, (See CAR No. 1. p. 18) where supply, transport and storage facilities are available, and that they should be equipped with permanent meteorological installations, wireless transmitters and so on. Control of aircraft, flying personnel, fuel and lubricants would continue to be in the hands of the Civil Airways Administration. The methods of aerial fertilization and weeding developed by the Scientific Research Institute attached to the Civil Airways Administration are said to be not always suited to the climatic and agricultural conditions of Uzbekistan, and the Soviet press has been stressing the need to introduce a special course on aerial crop treatment into the curriculum of the secondary and higher agricultural schools. In Uzbekistan, as in Kazakhstan, aeroplanes are used for sowing saksaul, and large areas of the Kyzyl-Kum desert and the Yaz-Yavan steppe have been planted in this way.

Tadzhikistan

The Tadzhik capital of Stalinabad has direct air links with Moscow, Tashkent, Baku, Samarkand, Leninabad, Kulyab, Khorog and Mineralnye Vody, as well as with the oblast centres and some of the

raion towns of the Republic itself. In the summer of 1953 thousands of hectares of crops were immunized against pests by aircraft of the Tadzhik Civil Airways Administration; the acreage given aerial chemical treatment in the first seven months of 1953 was double that treated in the corresponding period of 1952. The fight against pests proved particularly efficacious in areas difficult of access such as swamps, river-estuaries, reed-beds and semi-deserts. Good work was done in the orchards of the Shakhrinau and Kurgan-Tyube raions. Aeroplanes also proved their usefulness in the destruction of cotton pests. Soviet scientists and airmen are said to be trying to evolve the best method of eliminating cotton-leaves so as to facilitate the harvesting of cotton by machinery on a wide scale. A special training school has been organized for pilots and technicians destined for agricultural operations, so as to ensure that the work is in expert hands. However, much also depends on the cooperation of agricultural personnel on the ground; they must determine the pest-infected areas to be treated, prepare landing-strips in their vicinity and supply the requisite chemical products, signallers and auxiliary staff to load the planes. From time to time the authorities who are supposed to allocate certain definite tasks to the pilots and supervise their work are taxed with red-tape, bureaucratic behaviour and general inefficiency. It sometimes happens that a kolkhoz management will select for treatment too small an area, or one made unsuitable by various natural obstacles for low-altitude flying. Again, aerodromes are often too remote from the land to be treated, and raion authorities sometimes omit to see that properly equipped landing-strips are provided.

Kirgizia

Passenger services from Frunze to the capitals of other Soviet republics and to all the oblast centres of the Kirgiz SSR have doubled since May 1953, and passenger traffic in the Republic rose in 1953 by over 200 per cent as compared with 1945. Planes now leave Frunze daily, reaching Moscow the same day. With the extension of airlines in the Republic, luggage and freight are transported in ever-increasing quantities. Among the manifold assortment of goods now carried by air are electrical and precision apparatus, spare parts for machinery, machine-tools, pharmaceutical products and fruit. The Kirgiz air ambulance service has greatly widened the scope of its activities since the war, and cadres of efficient pilots, trained to fly night and day under all weather conditions, have been formed. Aerial sporting activities are very popular in the Republic. Large numbers of young people are said to be taking part in various study groups specializing in piloting, navigation, glider-flying and so on.

Some Kirgiz pilots have flown more than a million kilometres, among them Faizov, Kaldybaev, Ishimbai Abdraimov and Klochenko, one of the veteran pilots of the USSR, who has served with the Civil Airways for 25 years and flown some 3 million kilometres. Aviation, it is claimed, is now a "feature of everyday life" in Kirgizia.

Turkmenistan

Daily air services are in operation between Ashkhabad and Moscow, Tashkent and Chardzhou, and a service runs to Mineralnye Vody on alternate days. In 1952, 600 tons of goods and more than 1,000 people were transported to the Kara-Kum area of Turkmenistan alone. The following instance is quoted as typical of the work being done by the Republican air ambulance service: in August 1953 the oblast public health department received a radioed message from No. 30 geological team, working on the Ust-Urt plateau, urgently requesting medical help for one of its members who was badly hurt. An ambulance plane was immediately sent to the spot, although this entailed for the pilot a 500-kilometre flight over an unfamiliar route. More than 300 similar sorties were flown by Turkmen health service planes in the first 8 months of 1953, and the service is gradually being extended to embrace the remotest settlements. Caspian fishermen, oilmen on Cheleken Island, miners and other workers in isolated regions now benefit by it.

An exhibition of model aircraft was organized in July 1953 by the Ashkhabad DOSAAF Aviation Club. Three young designers were singled out for special mention from among the 32 competitors. V. Shushpanov and E. Rusakovski, from No. 15 School of the Ashkhabad Pioneer Palace, each received watches and drawing sets, whilst V. Sergeev, from No. 6 School, was given a wireless-set.

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NEW TRENDS IN CENTRAL ASIAN DRAMA

In October 1953, the Board of Soviet Union Writers held its XIV plenary session, and although the ensuing discussions were primarily of an exploratory character, in preparation for a further session in January 1954, they throw a not uninteresting light on the trends of Soviet literary development and will undoubtedly carry weight at the All-Union conference, which is to be held in the autumn of this year and which, it is expected, will exercise a profound influence on Soviet literature as a whole, and especially on those regional authors who look to Moscow as the source of their inspiration and guidance.

The session was opened on 21st October by Fadeyev, whose speech on the conditions and tasks of the Soviet drama was followed by a short statement by A. Surkov, on the convening, after a lapse of nineteen years, of the second conference of Union writers. A long report on the Soviet drama and theatre was then made by K. Simonov.

The emphasis laid on drama and theatrical matters seems to indicate that this is the section which is regarded as the weakest in the whole edifice of Soviet literature. The Union controls 497 theatres, in which plays are presented in 39 languages. The overall financial outlay is big, and financial success is therefore a matter of considerable importance. According to Ponomarenko, the USSR Minister of Culture, few plays, however, attract full houses for any length of time, and a great number have to be withdrawn after very short runs of a dozen or so performances.

The majority of the speeches at this session was made by Russian writers, rather than by the few Central Asian authors who were present, but the opinions expressed revealed a very considerable measure of unanimity both on the reasons for the unsatisfactory state of current Soviet dramatic art and on the shortcomings which must be eradicated, before any improvement could be achieved; and as Kazakhstan, Kirgizia and Turkmenistan have no set traditions on the principles of dramatic construction and the technique of theatrical production, and are eager to absorb all the guidance that their accepted cultural centre, Moscow, can give them, it is obvious that even these preliminary discussions in Moscow will have sharp and immediate repercussions on the regional playwrights of Soviet Central Asia.

It is perhaps of interest to mention that generally speaking failure was not attributed to incompetence on the part of actors in the interpretation of their parts; throughout the session attention

was concentrated upon the audience and its requirements, the playwrights and their ideas and technique, and the critics and their approach to their task.

A new generation, it was recognized, had emerged from the trials of the post-war period; the modern audience was both more discriminating and more exacting, and it rejected the surfeit of plays dealing with the petty, commonplace problems of kolkhoz or industrial life, and the bare propaganda, agitka type of play, the whole purpose of whose plot was to serve as a peg upon which to hang some ideological principle; instead, it demanded something which appealed to its growing cultural demands and a return to that technique in the handling of the development of human conflicts, which had produced such plays as Chekhov's "Three Sisters" and Ibsen's "Nora".

Their failure to recognise these new demands and to meet them, the poor quality of their characterization and the poverty of their stereotyped, unnatural dialogue are among the chief shortcomings of which the modern Soviet playwright was accused; and the critics, it was contended, invariably regarded every play with the ideological eye, concerning themselves primarily with the appropriateness of almost allegorical stage figures and the correctness of the sentiments expressed, rather than with real human characterization and the quality of the dramatic construction and writing.

Salient features of the speeches by Russian speakers

As the principal official speaker at the session, K. Simonov was restrained and, to a certain degree, conventional. But while adhering to the principle that the essence of drama was the expression, in artistic form, of the ideas and conflicts arising from the struggle for the attainment of Communism, and warning playwrights of the Union to avoid the fallacies and pitfalls of cosmopolitanism, he, too, protested against unreal formalism and called for a truthful representation of present-day conditions, with neither distortion, embellishment nor fear. Simonov - as did most of those who followed him - strongly condemned as dangerous and unreal the "non-conflict" theory of dramatic presentation - the theory that the class struggle within the Union was already ended and that in a classless society acute conflict of ideas and inner struggles were therefore no longer possible. This theory, and the glossing over of actual conditions had resulted, he said, in an inclination on the part of theatregoers to regard the characters in a play as unnatural and inept in their reactions to the dramatic situations which confronted them, and as images or symbols rather than as sentient human beings. The characterization

of Party workers, he thought, was particularly poor. The Party official was invariably represented as a man of integrity, not because his ability or character showed him to be such, but ipso facto, because he was a Party official. In most plays his role was restricted to that of a critic and judge of other people; he was no longer lifelike, and he offended against all the tenets of socialist realism,

The writer Lavrenev stressed the narrow field to which playwrights restricted themselves in the selection of their themes. There were kolkhoz plays and plays on "production" themes, plays on "the construction of a Kakhovka dam" and plays on "the cultivation of citrus fruit in the Crămea"; but there was very little which portrayed the conflict of human emotions or the actions and reactions of live human beings. So materialistic had the general background become that many plays were little more than scientific dissertations, the proper understanding of which often demanded high technical knowledge. One play, "The White Waggon", he said, actually contained whole extracts from a scientific text-book on oil extraction.

A certain Mikhalkov strongly attacked the attitude of both critics and certain Party officials. The former, he said were prone to judge a play solely on the ideological or political leit-motif of its plot and to ignore all manifestation of emotion and the portrayal of the complex nature of human behaviour. The latter, he felt, were both hyper-sensitive and too interfering.

In support of his arguments he quoted the instance of a play, in which a Second Secretary of the Party was described as being more intelligent than the First Secretary, and which on that account was roundly condemned by the critics for the impropriety of its deviation from normal standards - First Secretaries being, as everybody knew, always of a higher grade of intelligence than their subordinates. In another play which he quoted, a kolkhoz Chairman confessed that, because of inadequate knowledge, he felt himself incapable of managing one of the new type, large kolkhozes. The local Party authorities, said the speaker, immediately protested against the production of the play; most of the local kolkhoz Chairmen, they asserted, had no special education, and the production of this play would be tantamount to an attempt to "slaughter the administrative cadres." Critics were also very prone to oppose the production of any plays which dealt with such problems as that of an implacable enmity between two families or of a socially unequal marriage, problems which they persisted in regarding as unreal and untrue to life. There were still plays such as one in which the son of a socially

prominent engineer was not allowed to marry, because his dear mother opposed the - to her - obvious misalliance of marriage with a working girl. And another, in which the young man, though madly in love, refrained from marriage simply because he felt that marrying into the girl's family would jeopardize his career.

Other speakers were generally unanimous in their condemnation of the prevalent formalism by which complex human relations and conflicts were reduced to trivial misunderstandings between, for example, a Party man and a practical economist, a Chairman of a Town Council and a Secretary of a Town Committee and so on.

The standpoint taken by Fadeyev was remarkable for its vigour and fighting spirit. He called for implacable antagonism to bourgeois nationalism, cosmopolitanism and the harmful non-conflict theory. At present, he declared, the sharp edges of realism and the acute contradictions of conflicting human emotions were being smoothed over and given a purely mechanical solution, and he demanded a bolder treatment of these complex problems. What was wanted, he said, were dramatic masterpieces which would not merely titillate, but would shock and uplift the audience to a higher spiritual level.

Points from the speeches of Central Asian speakers

Writers from the Central Asian Republics were well represented at the session, and their politically most active members, Turzun-Zade Mirzo and Gafur Gulyam, were elected to the new Presidium, which was to consist of 33 members.

The Kazakh writer, M. Auezov, who had frequently been violently criticized for his novel "Abai" and for his deviations from the orthodox Party interpretation of the past, proposed that a theatre should be opened in Moscow, devoted to the sponsoring of friendship between the peoples of the Soviet Union, at which the best plays by the entire brotherhood of Union authors should be produced in Russian.

He spoke emphatically of the extreme scarcity of works on the theory of drama. The very form of Soviet dramatic art, he felt, was nebulous, and he thought it was high time that an authoritative and detailed definition of the theory and practice of dramatic construction should be produced.

Later, on 1st December 1953, Auezov published an article on the theory of Soviet drama, in which he dealt more fully with the criticisms he had made at the plenary session. Drama, he maintained, was

the most exacting genre of artistic expression and had a rigidity of form and construction, the laws of which were immutable. He complained that, although its structure was of majestic proportions and worthy of the deepest study, no adequate analysis of the various aspects of dramatic art was included in the curriculum of the more advanced schools, and that even the basic works on the theory of literature devoted but meagre space to the art of dramatic construction. The conflict of human emotions, he asserted was the basis of drama, and he recommended young writers to study the dynamic structure of Gorki's emotional and human dramas, rather than to ape the unreal and petty squabbles, the futile dialogue and the purely materialistic mise-en-scene which characterized the majority of modern plays.

The Kazakh writer, Mustaffin, concurred generally with the views already expressed regarding the fallacy of the non-conflict theory, the futility of the materialistic "production" type of play and poured ridicule on a play by the Kazakh dramatist, Imanjapov, in which the problem of creating a new breed of sheep was the basis of the whole plot. He broke new ground, however, in drawing attention to the extremely low quality of the translations of Russian classics, which had resulted in the enforced withdrawal of plays by even such masters as Gorki himself and Ostrovski. He also pleaded for a strengthening of the existing ties between Moscow theatrical circles and the Soviet Writers' Union of Kazakhstan.

Mirshakar, the representative from Tadzhikistan, concentrated his attack on the damage caused to the dramatic art of his republic by the non-conflict theory. Tadzhik writers, he said, had thereby been induced to regard idyllic life as the only possible subject for artistic representation, to avoid any conflict between good and evil as being no longer typical of Soviet conditions and to restrict such types of controversy to a portrayal merely of varying degrees of goodness. When, for example, a Tadzhik writer realistically described "the wrinkled face of a seventy year old Tadzhik woman," he was immediately accused of distorting the image of a venerable Soviet lady.

Only three new plays had been recently produced, he said, and though their subjects varied slightly, their plots were non-existent, their treatment was commonplace and their characterization stereotyped; all three portrayed the conventional efficient Party worker, the erring kolkhoz Chairman, the progressive Stalhanovite women workers and the old women and mullahs still burdened with outworn religious inhibitions.

Local talent, the speaker declared, was plentiful; but the elementary technique of dramatic construction and theatrical production was wholly lacking, and he called upon the Moscow literary journals to publish a series of detailed and comprehensive articles on dramatic art for the guidance and instruction of local playwrights.

Abdomomunov from Kirgizia was in complete agreement with the arguments and criticisms voiced by previous speakers, and beyond quoting several amusing examples in support of the general arguments, he contributed nothing original to the discussions.

In contrast to the majority of speakers, Yashen, the Uzbek representative, was less critical and thought that much had already been achieved in his republic to promote dramatic art, though much, of course, still remained to be done. He deplored the fact that for several years no new play by an Uzbek author had been approved for production; and for this he blamed the system of official control and approval at present in force. The republican government departments which sanctioned the production of plays were not, he asserted, sufficiently pliant and yielding to the authors' legitimate demands, and he advocated a system whereby authors would have the right to negotiate direct with the theatrical managers for the acceptance of their plays.

This suggestion met with unanimous approval, particularly from the delegates from Russia itself, where supervision and bureaucratic control were stronger than anywhere else and where authority was centralized in one single office in Moscow, from which alone approval for the production of a play could be obtained. The delays caused by this bottle-neck were frequently so great, that Russian writers at times had recourse to a ruse, whereby they had their plays translated into Uzbek and passed through the less busy Tashkent office more swiftly than would have been the case in Moscow.

Yashen pressed strongly for theatrical emancipation. He wished the theatres to be the arbiters of their own repertoires and their managers to be freed from a bureaucratic control, which both restricted the field of selection of plays and delayed their presentation.

The Turkmen writer, Mukhtarov, whose speech was described in the press as a sharp and intriguing exposition of the evils besetting the theatre, inveighed against the unjustifiable interference of official supervision committees, which, though they were ignorant of even the rudiments of dramatic construction, frequently intervened and insisted on alterations in theme, dialogue and character.

It is, of course, as yet too early to expect repercussions from the Central Asian Press to the drastic change of approach to literature which the Moscow session almost unanimously advocated. It can, however, be safely assumed that these repercussions, when they do come, will be both interesting and far-reaching, and will very probably lead to considerable reevaluation of some inflated literary reputations.

Meanwhile it is of interest to note that many of the almost revolutionary changes advocated were not aired for the first time, as might be supposed, at the Moscow session, but had been the subject of discussion in Central Asian literary circles for some considerable time; and this applies particularly to the Uzbek drama, to the lack of literary appreciation among dramatic critics, and to the restrictive and interfering practices of Party officials.

In a recent article, on conflict in the drama, for instance, it was clearly shown that the dramatists of Uzbekistan in the early days after the revolution had faithfully followed the best examples of Russian classical drama and had studiously learned from them the basic principles of dramatic construction and presentation.

The plays by Hamza Hakim Zade Niyazi, for example, became very popular, because they reflected the real, and not the imaginary, conflicts of the life of a definite historical epoch. In "Bai and Batrak", centred round the acute struggle between a bai and his hired labourer, Hamza succeeded in portraying the revolutionary development and the growing communist leanings and teachings in an "attractive and subtle" form. Of equal merit, except that its denouement was dramatically somewhat weak, was the opera, "Gulsary" by Yashen.

This high quality was maintained during the immediate post-war years. Such plays as "Silk Suzanne" by A. Kahhar, "The Dawn" by N. Sofronov and "Novbahor" by Uigun were acclaimed by the public, though they were not without blemish from the point of view of dramatic construction.

In "The Dawn", Sofronov's characterization of General Kuropatkin and the merchant, Azizbai, as representatives of a past era in all its reactionary essence, was excellent; but he failed adequately to draw the characters of the future, looming on the immediate horizon, the workmen and peasants girding themselves for the struggle for a better life. Uigun's "Novbahor" gave a vivid picture of life on a post-war kolkhoz, but finished very weakly and unsatisfyingly on a note of pure compromise.

Insistence on the non-conflict theory inevitably induced deterioration in the quality of dramatic production. In Uzbekistan, as elsewhere in the Union, there was still dishonesty, laziness, pilfering of socialized property, and the feudal attitude towards women persisted. But officially the existence of scoundrels, bureaucrats and reactionaries was regarded as incompatible with the new Soviet era and their representation on the stage as out of place.

Thus, the legitimate demands of realism in dramatic presentation were discarded, an idealistic treatment of life was substituted, and the final result was a crop of plays - by Hamraev, Melkumov, Babadzhanov, Mukhamedov, to mention a few typical examples - which were unreal in their dramatic situations, expressionless in their dialogue and devoid of any characterization, action or dramatic tension.

During the last few years, the article concludes, not one single play has been written which satisfies the growing aesthetic demands of the public.

In conclusion, it would seem that the revisionist theories expressed with such force and unanimity at the Moscow plenary session may well have a swift and far-reaching effect on the whole trend of Soviet literary and dramatic art, and its eventual repercussions on the drama and theatre of Central Asia should provide illuminating material for a future article in this Review.

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U Z B E K I S T A N

MECHANIZATION OF COTTON HARVESTING

In recent months the Central Asian press has devoted a number of articles to the **mechanization** of cotton cultivation now being undertaken in Uzbekistan and other cotton producing areas of the Soviet Union.

The figures quoted for the whole of Central Asia and Azerbaidzhan shew that in the period 1940 - 1952, mechanization had increased by 47 per cent, the average yield per hectare by 6 centners and the total output of raw cotton by 70 per cent. At the same time it is pointed out that this progress has been neither general nor uniform. The utilization of available harvesting machinery is far from widespread and in a number of cotton estates harvest yields remained very low. In 1952 as many as 18 per cent of the cotton growing kolkhozes in Uzbekistan gathered only from 10 to 15 centners per hectare, while 7.4 per cent did not even reach that figure.

On some of the modernized and enlarged kolkhozes in Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan, and especially on sovkhos lands where labour is organized on industrial lines and is more regimented, results however were good. In 1952, of 2153 kolkhozes 525 had produced over 25 centners per hectare and some even went up to 35. In the Denau raion the average was 33 centners. During the first 20 days of harvesting last autumn, the 47 harvesters of the Shakhriszyabz M.T.S. had been used on 1200 hectares and had gathered 1773 tons of raw cotton or over 380 centners per machine, which was considered a good average.

These higher yields of the larger kolkhozes were taken into account by the 19th Party Congress in Moscow when formulating its directives for the current five-year plan. This stipulated a 55 to 60 per cent increase in the output of raw cotton and an average yield of 26 - 28 centners per hectare in Central Asia and Southern Kazakhstan. To aid the harvesting, modern machinery was to be introduced on a more extensive scale. In particular emphasis was laid on cotton harvesters which could be profitably used over large and unbroken tracts of land not cut up by the network of permanent irrigation canals.

Production of SKhM-48

Of the various harvesting machines, including the SKhP-48

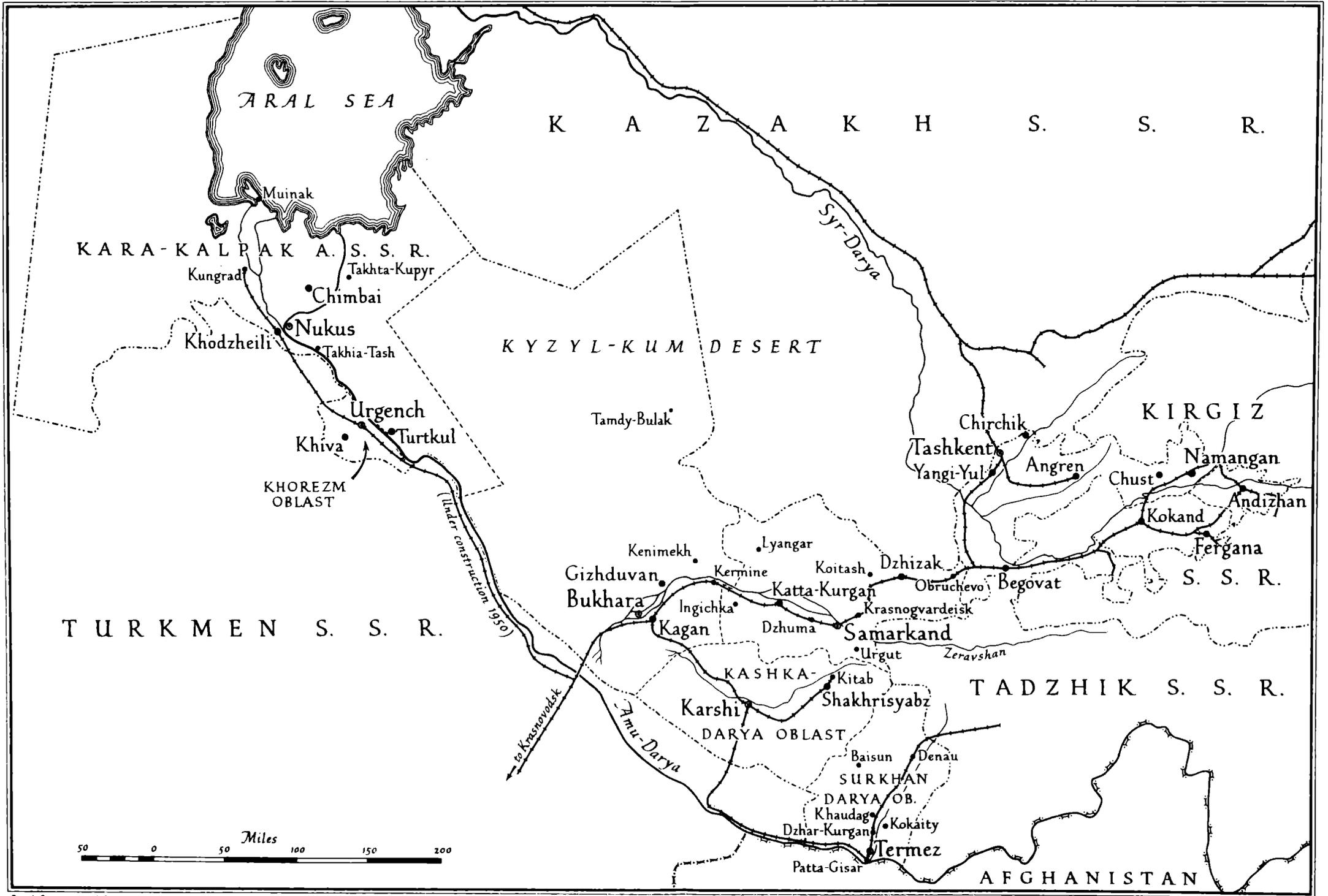
(P for pneumatic), which have been tried out, the SKhM-48 has shown itself to be the most efficient and labour-saving. In the first experiments, in which a "Universal" tractor was used, this harvester gathered 85 per cent of the crop on a field suitable for mechanized harvesting. In a single day it proved capable of collecting from 21.5 to 37.7 centners. Since these trials, an improved type, the SKhM-48M has been exhibited at agricultural shows but has not yet gone into serial production.

It has been estimated that the harvesting of cotton takes up 50 per cent of all the labour hours required in its cultivation; this in itself explains the significance of the SKhM-48 now being mass-produced at Tashselmash. The selection of this particular plant for the manufacture of harvesters is part of the policy of the Union, to keep production of specialized machinery as near as possible to the areas where they are to be used. Furthermore, Tashkent is the centre for the cotton zone, and labour cadres for increased production are readily available.

Mechanization

Although the mechanical ploughing, cultivation and harvesting of cotton has fallen short of the norms fixed for 1952 and 1953, mechanization of agriculture in the five republics has been proceeding apace. 121,000 tractors (reckoning on a 15 h.p. basis) are now working on Central Asian fields together with 23,000 combines and other auxiliaries. The present allotment in Uzbekistan is 14 tractors for every 1000 hectares and it is expected that by 1955 the harvesting of cotton by machinery will reach 60 or even 70 per cent. Judging, however, by current performances and past results this may be an optimistic target. In 1950 for instance 177 M.T. and 15 sovkhos stations participated in the mechanical cultivation of cotton, but managed to extend their operations to only 6.1 per cent of the total work involved. By 1951 this had increased to 9.1 per cent. In 1953, 243 M.T. stations were already in operation but were handicapped by defects both in management and machines which considerably impeded the work. The First Akhunbabaev in Fergana had introduced mechanization on 22 per cent of the area under cotton cultivation and had reaped 59 hectares with each harvester, while the Second Molotov averaged 83.7 hectares and the First Chinaz 68. Individual drivers operating from these stations had in some cases managed to collect 111 tons and at the First Namangan 135 tons. In 1951 at this particular station 47 harvesters averaged 68 tons per machine, which meant a saving of 13 to 32 working days per hectare in ploughing, cultivation and harvesting.

UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



The present target set for every kolkhoz farmer is to handle seasonally with the help of M.T. stations and mechanical equipment from 2 to 3 hectares devoting not more than 60 days to work on each hectare.

Shortage of trained personnel

In a number of Uzbek raions there seems to be a pronounced shortage of experts in agricultural science and of low-grade technicians. The First Kuibyshev M.T.S. is short of 124 tractor drivers and the Kenes and Kungrad stations of 64 Diesel operators, while in the republic as a whole the shortage of foremen supervising tractor brigades exceeds 250 men.

The summons 'Back to the land' sounded at the 19th Party Congress in Moscow has not so far met with any vigorous response from the agricultural experts and technicians of Central Asia. In Karakalpakia for instance, of 200 kolkhoz chairmen only 24 had any agricultural or general education worth mention, while the considerable number of 709 specialists registered in the Republic continued to cling to the comforts and amenities of the cities. Most of them would rather work at odd jobs as radio engineers, broadcasting announcers or economic advisers to the many trusts operating in the towns than go out into the country. The local authorities decided to transfer to the rural districts 184 agronomists, 77 veterinary surgeons and a number of technicians but this move has barely begun. Of 153 agricultural experts with university degrees only one or two have so far left their office chairs for the rough and active life of a kolkhoz manager or itinerant agronomist.

The complaint has been made that local party, soviet and republican officials have in a number of cases refrained from assisting those who had decided to leave the towns and take up work in the country. There were some among them whose transfer to kolkhozes had already been gazetted in government publications but even this final formality did not always induce their immediate chiefs to release them, or the kolkhoz administration to provide suitable amenities.

Of the mechanics and technicians already at work in the country many have no previous practical experience and some are not even fully qualified. As a result, in many raions, considerable losses are incurred in the harvesting of cotton through breakdowns. Occasionally, harvesters working in the fields become totally immobilized and the work then has to be taken over by the pickers. At the Second Alt-Aryk station these breakdowns were at times so frequent that harvesters were used to less than 25 per cent of the

planned norm.

Training

The training of young technicians and agronomists seems to be far from efficient. In Khorezm and the Kara-Kalpak ASSR, of 450 men called up for advanced training as combine and tractor drivers only 140 had so far arrived from their kolkhozes or M.T. stations. These included some whose education was of such a low standard as to render them wholly unfit for an advanced course.

In the slack seasons 'seminars' i.e., courses of practical studies, have been organized, but attendance had been cut from 70 to 14 hours which is much too short a time to acquire a sound operational and maintenance knowledge of a harvester. Moreover these 'seminars' were in some cases quite ineffective as the instructors had not been provided with machines for demonstration and practice purposes. In Khorezm and Kara-Kalpakia 'seminars' there was not a single SKhM-48 harvester which the men attending the 'seminar' could study and operate. At the Khiva Agricultural College the situation was even worse as the machines available on which the students were to practise had not been assembled and were rusting in their sheds. Even the Tashkent VUZI are said to have graduated students who did not understand even the rudiments of the new techniques which are progressively being applied in the mechanization of agriculture. Their training is in the main of a general nature and mostly theoretical. From the Tashkent Polytechnic, to mention but one case, not a single student graduated this year as a specialist in the construction and maintenance of agricultural machinery, a subject which is now included in most curricula of the Agricultural Colleges of the Union.

Spraying of the cotton-plants.

The most important stage in machine harvesting is the spraying of the cotton plant leaves. This lasts from 10 - 12 days and can be done by hand, by tractor-drawn equipment or by aircraft. The latter method is becoming more popular as with the better-equipped planes greater quantities of the spraying fluid can be carried and a larger area covered. Nevertheless the restricted period in which spraying has to be done makes the use of aircraft rather costly.

The plants are sprayed with a solution of calcium cyanamide. This causes them to shed their leaves in a manner not unlike their natural fall in the autumn. At the same time calcium cyanamide improves the soil and accelerates the growth of cotton without affecting its quality. On an average, the percentage of selected grades reaches 8 per cent while the proportion of first grades is

not lowered.

To synchronize the work of harvesting and spraying kolkhoz managers have to make all necessary preparations before harvesting begins. In some cases these are completed on time. In Ak-Kurgan for instance, the raikom organized the preparation of landing-strips for the spraying planes, provided suitable accommodation for the pilots and attending personnel and obtained sufficient supplies of the spraying fluid. Civil Aviation units working in cooperation with other kolkhozes have been less successful. Within the zone of the Second Khavast M.T.S. no adequate preparations were made by the autumn. Cash credits obtained by some of the kolkhozes from the State Bank for the purchase of chemicals were used up for other purposes and consignments of calcium cyanamide stored with the bank could not be moved.

Civil Aviation pilots were supposed to be paid in advance. In practice, however, this was often not done; and in the First Yangi-Yul, Pskent and Second and Third Syr-Darya M.T.S. pilots wasted much time waiting for payment.

Utilization of harvesting machines

In spite of obvious advances in mechanization, available mechanical equipment has not been used to its full capacity. In Khorezm for instance, of 967 available machines not more than 110 to 140 were in daily use, and during the last five days of harvesting no machines were used at all. The explanation given by kolkhoz chairmen, agronomists, M.T.S. directors, and not least by the cotton cultivators themselves, was that in 1953 Uzbekistan had a bumper crop and the requirements of the State Plan could be met without recourse to machinery.

Press reports have also told of deliberate attempts by kolkhoz administrators and others to slow down the rate at which harvesters were to be used. On 24th September 1953 it was alleged that the Secretary of the Chinaz raion had ordered the work of 3 harvesters at the Kaganovich kolkhoz to be stopped; and that in spite of the achievements of individual kolkhozes, such as the Kirov in Oktyabr raion where 15 harvesters were accomplishing the work of 600 kolkhozniks, in the whole of Uzbekistan approximately 6000 harvesters were still not being used. A further report published on 30th September for the whole of Verkhne-Chirchik raion showed that harvesters had been used on a total of only 129 hectares and had brought in 55 tons of raw cotton, that is about 3 tons per machine only.

Hand-picking of cotton in sprayed fields has also persisted in the Chinabad, Izbaskent, Pakhtar-Abad and Andizhan raions. This meant that large sums of money spent in spraying cotton by ODN machines or from the air has been wasted, as much of the fine technical equipment available for harvesting remained unused. In progress reports these facts were often obscured. The director of the Second Kara-Uzyak station reported that his harvester unit had worked to his complete satisfaction on an area of 100 hectares and collected 270 centners of cotton, but according to press reports this was quite incorrect as not a single centner had been collected by harvesters in the area specified.

The papers also criticized the opinions of certain responsible Khorezm workers who maintained that conditions in their areas were not suitable for a full and productive use of harvesters. This, the papers claimed, was nonsense as on the Andreev kolkhoz drivers had harvested between 33 and 43 hectares and had collected from 40 to 60 tons of cotton, which shewed that mechanical harvesting could be made much more effective.

It is difficult to assign precise reasons for the evident failure to use mechanical harvesters to full capacity, but from the complaints which appear from time to time in the press the following must be regarded at least as contributory causes: insufficient publicity given to Party directives and the advantages of mechanization; ignorance and irresponsibility of many of the kolkhoz and M.T.S. managers; shortage of trained personnel; and lastly the fear of the ordinary peasant-farmer that the large-scale introduction of machinery with its consequent reduction in manpower, will in the long run destroy their traditional means of livelihood by depriving them of full-time employment in all the operations of cultivation and harvesting.

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ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEYS IN KHOREZM

(1937-40 and 1945-52)

Much new light has been thrown on the early history of Khorezm - better known to the outside world under the old name of Khiva - as a result of archaeological and ethnographic surveys carried out in the area since 1937. These have shown that during a period starting between the 8th and 6th centuries before Christ and extending to the 5th or 6th century A.D., Khorezm, like many Western countries, went through a stage in which its social and economic life depended on a system of slavery before passing on to a feudal organization of society. It also shows that a high level of culture, quite distinct from Iranian and Arab culture, had developed, a fact which was to influence the life of both Iran and the Arab countries. During ten centuries of great intellectual activity the region numbered among its leading lights such figures as Muhammad-ibn-Musa-al-Khorezmi, founder of the "so-called Arab mathematics", and Abu-Reikhan-al-Biruni-al-Khorezmi, described as "the greatest encyclopaedist of the Middle Ages." Aerial surveys have been undertaken to supplement the work of surface expeditions with the result that as many as 200 sites of historic importance have been located ranging from ancient ruins to the mediaeval fortifications of Zhany-Darya and Kuvan-Darya in Kara-Kalpakia.

Surveys undertaken and reports issued

The first archaeological expeditions to the region were in the period from 1937 to 1940. After the war there were expeditions during the period from 1945 to 1948; and more recently there have been further expeditions in 1950, 1951 and 1952, in which prospecting was also undertaken for future work on promising sites. Reports on work done in the pre-war years and in 1945 were examined at the General Assembly of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR on 4th June 1946. In 1952 the official account of the 1945-1948 excavations, a 650-page volume edited by Professor S.P. Tolstov and T.A. Zhdanko, appeared under the auspices of the Academy. The report, entitled Arkheologicheskkiye i Etnograficheskkiye Raboty Khorezmskoi Expeditcii. 1945-1948, includes sixteen separate studies on various aspects of the work done, ranging from ornamental beads to the fauna of ancient Khorezm. Both editors, it should be mentioned, had been with the expedition in the field, and Professor Tolstov has written two further articles which have appeared in the Vestnik Akademii Nauk. The first of these, in issue No. 4 of 1952, covers work done in 1950-1951. The

second article, which appeared in issue No. 8 of 1953, deals with the work of the 1952 expedition under Professor Tolstov, which was in the field between March and November, with a staff of 82 scientists and technicians and about 150 labourers.

Aims of the 1945-1948 Expedition

The objects of the work to be done in the 1945-1948 period were stated at the time of the Academy of Sciences review in 1946. They were, firstly, the organization of excavation on a large scale on the sites of the great ruins of ancient Khorezm starting with the 200-roomed Toprak-Kala palace, the temple and the residential area of the town; and secondly, prospecting operations, hundreds of kilometres into the desert, using aircraft for the first time. This involved the exploration of the old river beds of Zhany-Darya and Kuvan-Darya in Kyzyl-Kum, and of the Uzboi in the Kara-Kum and the Ust-Urt plateau, all of which lay along the principal routes leading from the countries of the East, via Khorezm, to Eastern Europe.

Discoveries in Khorezm and the desert region

Very good progress was reported in the excavation work at Toprak-Kala during 1946-1949. More than 130 halls, rooms and corridors were excavated on two floors of the palace and in three of its towers, accounting for about 7,500 square metres of its 11,000 square metres of floor space. Besides finding much material bearing on domestic life, the workers discovered hitherto unknown specimens of Khorezmi sculpture, coloured paintings and long-sought Khorezmi manuscripts - all of the 3rd century A.D.

The aerial and motorcar survey across the Kyzyl-Kum, Kara-Kum and Ust-Urt deserts covered over 15,000 kilometres in various directions and led to the finding of 200 sites. The expedition made its own contribution to the solution of the puzzle of the Uzboi river valley. It discovered two early mediaeval trading and strategic routes from Khorezm to the Volga, which had been provided with stone fortresses and caravanserais in the 10th and early 11th centuries. In addition, the system of border fortifications, dating back to the same period, designed to protect Khorezm from invasion by nomadic peoples, was surveyed and described by the expedition.

Contribution to ethnology

The study of sites located in the watershed of the Amu-Darya and Syr-Darya valleys, has made possible some reconstruction, if

only in very general terms for the present, of the history of the ancient tribes which inhabited the region. These people, the forerunners of the Turkmens, Kara-Kalpaks and Kazakhs, lived in this area from the first millenium B.C; to the later Middle Ages. Faulty and conflicting lists of ethnic names by Polibius, Strabon, Pliny, Ptolemy and Trogus Pompeius have been replaced by others which are considered more accurate. For example the limits of the territory of the Augassii tribe have been determined.

Further expeditions sanctioned

The finding of so many sites encouraged the Academy of Sciences to organize new expeditions on a wide scale. Selected promising sites were to be excavated, while further prospecting operations were to be carried out in other areas in search of fresh fields for work.

The 1950-1951 expedition

Following the publication of the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the construction of the Main Turkmen Canal, archaeological prospecting was begun in the zone. The area covered the lands of the ancient irrigation network in the western outskirts of the Khorezm oasis and the cultivated band of Takhia-Tash and Kunya-Urgench raions of Tashauz oblast.

The expedition left Nukus on 9th October 1950 and proceeded westward. At Airtam, and especially at Kalaly-Gyr along the inner walls of the stronghold, a number of ossuaries were discovered in a special burial house. These were of several types; rectangular stone, pottery, some on four legs and others legless, basket-shaped on three legs and others made of gray clay and covered with alabaster ornaments.

Of particular interest was one of the towers of Kalaly-Gyr. This was identified as a 'dakhma' or 'tower of silence' in which the bodies of the dead were placed prior to the burial of the cleaned bones in the ossuary. One of the round chambers of the dakhma was found full of human bones. Under the floor of this chamber was a complicated system of passages presumably serving for ventilation and the removal of decomposed bodily remains.

All these burial buildings represent the most ancient monument of Zoroastrian funeral rites, as all the ossuaries hitherto discovered in Central Asia and elsewhere have been classified as

belonging to periods not earlier than 500 A.D., while the Kalaly-Gyr relics go back to between the 4th and 3rd centuries B.C. This would seem to substantiate the claim of Marquart and Barthold that Khorezm was the most ancient centre of the Zoroastrian religion.

The 1952 expedition

In 1952 a further Khorezm expedition was in the field under Prof. Tolstov. It included six stationary excavation parties and three mobile survey parties and its scope ranged in point of time from the neolithic period to the late Middle Ages and in area from the old irrigation lands of the Turtkul region of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR to the estuary of the Uzboi.

Four of the parties worked on the ruins discovered in the Upper Uzboi basin, the remains of the ancient irrigation network of Sarykamysh and on the ruins in the area of the ancient Chermen-Yab canal. Five parties undertook the excavation of the better-known sites along the right bank of the Amu-Darya in the old town of Koy-Krylgan-Kala and elsewhere. The results obtained throw much light on the link between the development of the territory and its hydrography, and also on the art and culture of Khorezm during certain little-known periods.

Upper Uzboi remains

Some details of the work of individual groups deserve mention. The Kugunek party, which was concerned with the primitive culture of the upper Uzboi valley, discovered and explored 40 settlements of the neolithic and bronze ages in the valley and in the old lake area, as well as five camps in the takyr area in the vicinity of the Zaunguz plateau, 25 km. east of the Uzboi. These go to show that the shores of the river were thickly populated between 3000 B.C. and 1,000 B.C. The theory, formulated in 1951, that by about the middle of the first millenium B.C. the picture of the valley underwent a definite change with the complete disappearance of the settled population, has thus been confirmed. But remains which might have thrown some light on the culture of this and later periods were very scarce. They were in fact limited to the sites of the camps of Scytho-Massaget nomadic tribes usually situated at some distance from the river-bed.

A certain amount of information on the mediaeval history of the valley was obtained from the Talaikhan-Ata caravanserai, north of

the Kurtysh ravine. Here the direction of the river changes from meridional to latitudinal. Half of the surface area of the caravanserai was excavated in 1952 and its period and planning were determined. It was built not later than the beginning of the 11th century, destroyed during the Mongol invasions at the beginning of the 13th century, rebuilt by the end of the 13th century and finally abandoned early in the 15th century.

The Sarykamysh irrigation system

The Sarykamysh party studied the ancient irrigation network along the western and eastern borders of the Sarykamysh syncline, a network discovered in 1950 by aerial surveying. From the examination of the east, south-west and west shores of the Sarykamysh, the sources from which the system drew its water and the date of its operation were ascertained. Numerous finds of pottery go back to between the 15th and early 17th centuries, only one find relating to the 12th century; and confirmation that the canals have been in use in a relatively modern period is obtained from the condition of the canal embankment.

The same party discovered a large ancient fortress near Kantaguru, which apparently drew water from the Chermen-Yab and the North Daudan (Mangyr-Darya) coming from the north. No signs of an independent irrigation system were found.

Chermen-Yab Canal

The old irrigation systems of the western outskirts of the Khorezm oasis were investigated by the archaeological and topographical party of the 1952 expedition. Earlier material, collected between 1945 and 1948, had been collated and a schematic map was published in 1948, it being understood that a detailed map of the old canals would be prepared later. The zone of the ancient Chermen-Yab canal was the centre of the work in 1952. It was proved that the canal, originally brought into use by the 6th century B.C., existed till the 4th century A.D. It was restored for a short period between the 12th and 13th centuries, when it was destroyed by the Mongolian invaders and abandoned thereafter.

In the two widely-separated periods in which the canal was in use, the difference in the scale and type of the buildings and other works is very evident. The mediaeval canal was much smaller than the ancient one. The old Chermen-Yab had an average

width of 12 metres, whereas the later canal did not exceed 10 metres. The canals took their water from various sources, the beds of which had a common direction and varied to a considerable extent. The upper part of the ancient canal bed is only traceable in the area located just north of the ruins of Kyzylcha-Kala, where the course of the canal is lost in the channel of the South Daudan, one of the beds of the Sarykamysh delta of the Amu-Darya.

Koi-Krylgan-Kala, an ancient walled town

One of the parties of the 1952 expedition excavated the old town of Koi-Krylgan-Kala, which dates back to between the 7th and 4th centuries B.C. It lay on the old canal which was an extension of the present-day Kelteminar aryk in the Turtkul raion of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR. The town was circular in design and 86.5 metres in diameter. A high wall with nine towers ran around it, and in the centre was a high round building, 42 metres in diameter and provided with a firing gallery with numerous narrow apertures. This two-storeyed central building, in which an area of 1400 square metres was excavated, provided a rich harvest of material. Storerooms were discovered containing pottery vessels and other receptacles of different sizes, often covered with sculptured designs. There were ceramic khums used to hold wine, ceramic drinking horns decorated with figures of horses and griffins and large flasks with relief figures.

Finds of sculpture were numerous. There were square funeral urns, or ossuaries with statues of seated figures, of half life-size. One of the khums had an inscription in characters of Aramaic origin, the most ancient so far found in Central Asia. It is apparently of the second century B.C. and consists of a name - Aspabarak or Aspabadak - of Iranian origin.

Gyaur-Kala, a border stronghold

Work at Gyaur-Kala, a fortress of the second century B.C. on the right bank of the Amu-Darya, showed that this was a border stronghold, probably built by the rulers of the Kushan empire, to protect the passage between the river and the mountains of the upper Khorezmi region from attacks from the north.

The wall of the northern side of the fortress is in a good state of preservation and provides a fine specimen of Khorezmi architecture of the Kushan period. Ruins of rooms which probably accommodated fighting men can be seen along the northern wall. In the

north-western corner of the fortress is a large square hall. Its walls are plastered and covered with drawings. Stone-based columns support the flat ceiling.

Near the hall was discovered a remarkable piece of sculpture, a well-modelled head in grey clay, one of the best examples of the realistic sculpture of ancient Khorezm. Slightly over life-size, the head is that of a bearded man of about 30 wearing a peaked Scythian hat.

The sculptures of Kunya-Uaz

In the Uaz area, north of the upper Chermen-Yab, is the site of Kunya-Uaz, a 308-metre square settlement surrounded by a 10-metre brick wall. The town inside is designed in the form of a cross and recent work has shown that the oldest of the layers on the small area excavated dates back to the beginning of the Christian era. This shows that a settlement existed here since about the Kangyui epoch, though most of the finds have been of items of the Kushan and, more particularly, of the early Afrigid periods, that is the 4th and 5th centuries.

Along the north-western wall, of which the old towers are well preserved, are most of the mediaeval buildings in the town (from the 9th to the early 11th century), but there is also material belonging to all periods of the town's history, including the little-known 4th and 5th centuries. Many ancient coins have also been unearthed here.

Chambers of great interest have been excavated in the upper layers of the central part of the settlement, including a number of ceremonial halls with high brick fireplaces, deep niches and sculptured alabaster wall ornaments. A bone plate found in one hall had erotic coloured miniatures executed with great skill on both its sides. These miniatures were the first of their kind ever to be found in Central Asia. Also found were the first specimens of stone sculpture - a female head and torso. These finds shewed that the arts had reached a high standard in those distant days.

Shakh-Sanem and glass manufacture

In the vicinity of the Chermen-Yab canal, the Shakh-Sanem site dominates the surrounding area from a height of nine metres, while the well-preserved walls rise to a height of 15 metres.

About eight kilometres to the north are the remains of workshops which once produced glass and glassware testifying to early technical progress in the area.

Excavations undertaken at Shakh-Sanem included a number of individual houses, a small irrigation network (located mostly to the north of the town) and a large cemetery. The results suggest that the settlement existed from between the 4th and 2nd centuries B.C. to the period of the Mongolian invasions in the 13th and 14th centuries A.D.

In the centre of the site are the remains of an old mosque richly decorated with carved alabaster. The mihrab (prayer niche) with its open worked semi-columns is covered with ornaments and Arabic inscriptions.

A well-preserved bronze kettle, decorated with designs and inscriptions, was one of the cooking utensils found. There were also glass vessels which must have been produced in the local works.

The town walls, erected in the 12th century appear to be even older, being different from the normal type of the period. The mediaeval stronghold of Yarbekir to the north-west shows the same trend: indeed excavations elsewhere, as at Kunya-Urgench, confirm that there was a revival of ancient architectural traditions in the 12th and 13th centuries as well as a revival of ceramic art.

The shops, workshops and refectories of Kunya-Urgench

Work in Kunya-Urgench, the mediaeval capital of Khorezm, was centred on the Tash-Kala or stone town, an area to the south of the modern town. It is an irregular polygon, roughly 600 metres by 800 metres surrounded by high ramparts and a deep moat. In the 13th and 14th centuries this was the castle of Urgench town, which then occupied a much larger area under the rule of the Khans of the Golden Horde.

North of the stone town are a big 14th century minaret and mausoleums of the 12th to 14th centuries. To the west and east of Tash-Kala are the remains of large fortifications known as Khorezm-Bag and Ok-Kala respectively.

The residential parts of the town (circa 15th - 17th century) begin just inside the walls and the main street leads to the gates of Tash-Kala. An old caravanserai proves that this was a big urban trade centre in those days and many shops and the workshops of craftsmen have been traced. At a street corner was a teashop

and in one of its rooms were many earthen teapots and a cotton bag containing coins - the takings, no doubt, of the teashop. Ash-khanas or refectories, with large cauldrons for cooking; bakeries with enormous ovens; fish kitchens; a blacksmith's shop and a public bath were among the other buildings excavated.

Dwellings uncovered included small houses, presumably of tradesmen, as well as richly decorated houses of the upper classes in which the walls were ornamented with alabaster, drawings and coloured paintings. But every house, big and small, had stone washstands, hearths and stone couches, similar to the so-called Chinese Khans and provided with heating.

The material bearing on domestic life points to a clear link between Khorezm and China at least in the period between the 15th and 17th centuries. Many pieces of Chinese porcelain had Chinese inscriptions. Mention should be made of many articles of glass, iron, bronze, bone and horn, as well as scales of bronze and iron with stone weights.

Work on the mediaeval minaret has shown that the original 11th century structure was destroyed, like almost all other buildings in Urgench, during Genghiz Khan's invasion and restored in the 14th century. Adjoining it are the walls of a large 11th century mosque partly restored with bricks made in the 14th century.

Besides exploring the Tash-Kala area, the Kunya-Urgench party studied the whole of the huge site of Kunya-Urgench, and in particular the Ak-Kala fortress, which was probably the fortress-home of the Uzbek khans of Khorezm in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Prospecting for new sites

Important prospecting operations were carried out by the 1952 expedition. These included the Aibugir, Erbrun and Buten-Tau areas, north of the Sarykamysh syncline. A number of sites were discovered along the edges of the Ust-Urt plateau and in the Buten-Tau hills. Important finds have been the sites of Aibugir-Kala and Buten-Tau-Kala. It has been shown that the limits of ancient Khorezmi culture extended far to the west, to the south-eastern Ust-Urt and to the eastern shore of the Sarykamysh. Having covered this area, the expedition turned to the south-eastern shores of the Caspian Sea and the Adzhaib ravine.

On Kunya-Ogurdzha, a sandy island in the lower course of the Adzhaib, a tributary of the Uzboi delta, were discovered traces of

a settlement established on a tract of land about 50 metres wide. It dates from between the 14th to 16th centuries and was abandoned after some disaster - possibly of a military nature. Remains of yurtas, wooden doors and large quantities of ceramic were found here and similar finds were made in other sand islands of the estuary where the settlements are ascribed to the Ogurdzhalı tribes of Turkmenia.

Summing-up of results obtained in 1952

It will thus be seen that the 1952 expedition found much new material for the proper interpretation of the history of the Sarykamysh and the Uzboi. The excavations at Kunya-Uaz shed new light on little-known periods of Khorezmi civilization, the 4th and 5th centuries. The work at Shakh-Sanem answered some of the questions relating to the "great Khorezm Shah period." An important factor in this was the artistic renaissance of the 12th and 13th centuries. Kunya-Urgench yielded the secrets of a late mediaeval Central Asian town which declined because of the invasions of Genghiz Khan and Tamerlane, of feudal struggles and the raids of nomadic races.

Geographical notes

Airtam	SW of Nukus
Aibugir	W of Nukus
Buten-Tau	W of Nukus
Erburun	W of Nukus
Gyaur-Kala	SE of Nukus
Kalaly-Gyr	S of Kunya-Urgench
Koi-Krylgan-Kala	NE of Turtkul
Kunya-Uaz	S of Kunya-Urgench
Talaikhan-Ata	S of Sarykamysh syncline
Toprak-Kala	N of Kunya-Urgench

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CRIME WITHOUT PUNISHMENT

Raukhan Abdykadyrova was in the 9th form of the secondary school in Khalkabad. Her teachers claim that she was an excellent pupil and an active member of the local Komsomol group. It was generally assumed that on leaving school Raukhan would go on to the Institute.

But one evening - it was over a month ago - the girl failed to come home. Old Ziba made enquiries among the girl's friends but could not discover the whereabouts of her only daughter. The search conducted during the next few days proved equally fruitless. The Chief of Police, Comrade Sariev, in reply to the mother's petition, solemnly announced; "She will turn up - she is not a needle."

The Public Prosecutor of the Kuibyshevsk raion, Comrade Espolov, turned the petition this way and that: "Find the kidnapper and I shall punish him" he proclaimed with noble indignation.

The disappearance of the girl alarmed many. With the inherent compassion that is characteristic of the Soviet people they took an active part in her search. Eventually by united efforts the culprit was uncovered. It transpired that he was Karazhan Izbanov, a bookkeeper in the Educational Department of the Kuibyshevsk raion.

Having already served a term of imprisonment he re-appeared in Khalkabad for the second time. On returning home he decided it was high time he set his domestic affairs in order. His first wife no longer pleased him; she did not come up to his 'intellectual level', and she was too old - over twenty-two!

It was then that Raukhan - a girl with black plaits - began to attract his attention. He noticed her as she walked from school carefree and gay among her companions. Several days later Raukhan did not return home.

A considerable time elapsed before the officials finally summoned up enough courage to question Izbanov. "Where is the girl?" This question was put to him by the second secretary of the Kuibyshevsk raion Party Committee Comrade Dzhuraev. Izbanov took offence; on what grounds did they accuse him of such a charge? The committee were contrite, they apologized and set him free.

At last the parents of the vanished girl prevailed upon the Public Prosecutor Espolov to summon Izbanov. Here is the gist of what passed between them.

"It is put about that you have abducted a schoolgirl and want to marry her?" meekly asked this staunch custodian of the law.

"This is slander. I have no intention of getting married at all".

"Is that the truth?"

"You need have no doubts about that."

"Sorry to have troubled you." The Public Prosecutor was apologetic.

But of the missing girl there was still no trace. The search conducted by the parents, their neighbours and a number of workers of the Kuibyshevsk M.T.S. where Raukhan's brother was employed, was unsuccessful.

Meanwhile the 'bridegroom' boasted to his boon companions: "I have got her well hidden. She is in safe keeping."

At the parents' insistence the Public Prosecutor again summoned Izbanov. On this occasion he admitted abducting the girl. Yes, he stole Raukhan and had decided to marry her. But what if she does not want to marry him? So much the worse for her. No self-respecting djigit* would concern himself with the wishes of a girl.

To put it in legal terms, there was here sufficient evidence to convict and it was up to the Public Prosecutor to see that the law was enforced. But the Public Prosecutor had his own ideas about what constituted a crime; in his judgment the abduction of girls did not fall within this category.

The whereabouts of Raukhan were as much a mystery to the parents as to the Public Prosecutor. No one in the raion had yet been able to solve this riddle. Meanwhile Izbanov was to be found not in the dock but in the raion bookkeeper's office. When told that his exploits had become the subject of editorial comment the bold djigit was dashed. Where was that swagger, that arrogance? At the table sat a pitiful, frightened wretch with downcast eyes.

"Don't write about me in the papers" he implored "it can do me a lot of harm."

"And don't you abduct girls?"

* This is a word common to most Turkic languages. Its literal meaning is horseman or cavalier. Here it is used in the sense of "proper man" or even "gentleman".

"I did not lead her off; she flung herself at me. She fell in love with me."

"Have you known her long?"

"No, not long. I saw her once when she was returning from school. At our next meeting we left for the Kara-Uzyak district. But I am not responsible for this; it was she who lured me. She appealed to me for help and begged me to take her away from her mother and brother who maltreated her, dressed her in rags and never gave her enough to eat."

We visited Raukhan's home and talked to her parents and neighbours, amongst whom is Comrade Azimov, secretary of the raion party committee. They assured us with one voice that the girl had nothing to complain of, that she was well treated and had every attention shown her. She lacked nothing; neither food nor school-books nor money. At her school we were told: "Raukhan was well dressed in fact better than any of the girls in her class."

At our next meeting the disheartened bridegroom renounced his chosen one. "If you so desire it, I will not marry her. I no longer love her."

This disgraceful affair provoked no sort of official resentment among the district organizations. The First Secretary of the regional committee of the Communist Party Comrade Utambetev had not even heard of this extraordinary occurrence. The Second Secretary Comrade Dzhuraev claims that pressure of work prevented him from seeing this matter through to the end. Nor did the disappearance of the Komsomol member produce any impression on Comrade Kosybaev, secretary of the raion Komsomol committee. Olympian detachment greeted us even in the secondary school which Raukhan had attended.

The indifference of the corporate bodies and of the public prosecutor to the fate of the girl can be better explained by reference to another scandalous case. Quite recently in the same school one of the masters Ablay Agataev, criminally assaulted a pupil of his, a girl in the 7th form. People such as this 'teacher' are a menace to society and ought to be locked up. But on this occasion too, the Public Prosecutor Espolov remained confident in his judgement and did not prosecute the criminal but left him at liberty. For 3 hours Agataev's offence was debated at a meeting of the raion committee of the Communist Party. He was expelled from the party. Thereafter, without let or hindrance, he travelled on a party ticket to Tashkent and was

readily admitted as a student to the university. The central committee of the Communist Party in Tashkent repeatedly ask for his membership card. The dock cries out for Agataev while he junkets about at liberty, blessing his protector, the Public Prosecutor.

In the Kuibyshevsk raion there are numerous cases of the abduction of girls and not a few instances of a feudal attitude to women. All this is due to the leniency of the raion committee of the Communist Party towards those who violate our high socialist morality and break our Soviet law.

Source.

Sovyetskaya Kara-Kalpakia, December 1953.

T A D Z H I K I S T A N

THE GORNO-BADAKHSHAN AUTONOMOUS OBLAST: CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

Comparatively little information on the Gorno-Badakshan Autonomous Oblast appears in the Tadzhik press. This region, embracing the territories of the Eastern and Western Pamirs, has on the whole eluded the criticisms, both favourable and adverse, of the local press and of visiting Party journalists from the metropolis, prone as these are to expatiate on the shortcomings of industrial Leninabad or on the "white gold" of the Vakhsh valley. This is not so surprising if it is recalled that the sparse population of the high Pamirs, with its multifarious ethnic and linguistic groups, constitutes only a fraction of Tadzhikistan's population of $1\frac{1}{2}$ m, and that the share assigned to the oblast under local budget appropriations in 1953 was 37.5 million rubles, in contrast to the 189.9 million allotted to Leninabad, 83 million to Kulyab oblast and 77 million to the city of Stalinabad. Nevertheless, the oblast ranked sixth on the list of appropriations, - fairly high even when due account is taken of the vast extent of its territory.

Even less is known about the smaller mountain settlements of Murgab, Vanch, Bartang and Ishkashim, ancient settlements now growing in importance, than about the oblast centre of Khorog. Khorog has consistently maintained its fascination for press reporters, not only as the capital of an important border region, situated almost at the end of the Stalinabad and Osh highways, but as a distant outpost overlooking a frontier beyond which lives a kindred people. But restricted and often repetitive as the news on Khorog is, it still serves to show that progress has caught up with this growing town of the Western Pamir. Reporters describe the improved conditions at the oblast Hospital, with its separate wards, new laboratory and X-ray equipment, and praise the good work done by its surgeons, general practitioners and gynaecologists. Money is available for capital construction and running repairs in Khorog, as well as for the improvement of the local water supply. Last spring news came through of the wholesale planting, in Rushan, Vanch and Shugnan as well as in Khorog, of trees raised from seedlings grown in local kolkhozes and in the Pamir Botanical Gardens. In the late summer, reports dealt with the improvement of Khorog's municipal amenities, such as the local park with its open-air chess circles and swimming galas on Lake Komsomol, and with building activities in the town where a cinema near the Gunt River, an imposing regional theatre and houses on the terraced hills were all planned, and where it is claimed, the entire local population is expected to help in the arduous task of construction. In the autumn (perhaps

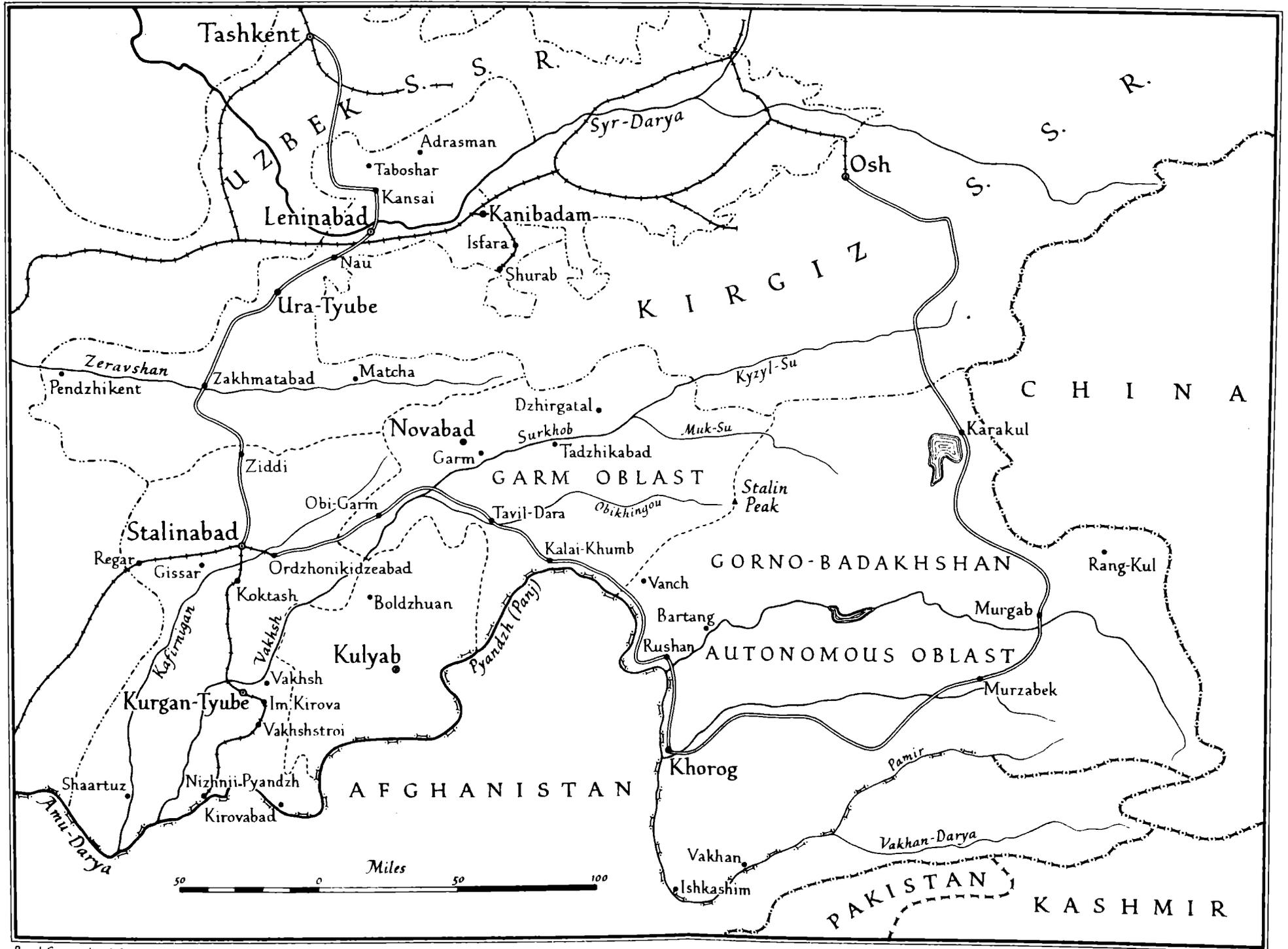
because of the new importance attached in all parts of the Union to the advancement of trade) reports laid stress on the construction of shops for the sale of consumer goods, and it was stated that the weight of consumer goods to be sent to Khorog and its district along the two arterial highways was to be doubled.

Transport and Communications

For obvious reasons, less information is available on the Eastern than on the Western Pamir. These two areas, facing East and West, form a single geographical unit but are very different in character. The Eastern Pamir, a region of post-glacial erosion with wide valleys, glaciers and rocky hillsides, has an extremely severe climate. The Western Pamir, on the other hand, is a land of alluvial erosion, with steep scree-covered slopes, narrow river valleys and a far more temperate climate. Contacts with the scattered population of the Eastern Pamir are much more limited than in the West, - another reason for the scarcity of reliable and regular news from the area. Apart from telegrams (usually official) and a none too frequent exchange of mails, the traditional method of communication there is still by pack-horse or by yak, as in Tibet. Where roads exist, motor-cars of course provide the easiest means of communication. Their use along the motorable highways and tracks of Tadzhikistan is stated to have doubled since 1952. But even with the increased facilities for road transport there are still inhabited valleys in the Pamir (the Yazgulem Valley and others) which are not open above two months in the year. Motor traffic is however maintained all the year round on the rocky passes of the Stalin highway and on the road to Osh. In Tadzhikistan as a whole it has increased remarkably, whereas in 1928 the republic boasted only 17 registered cars, by 1938 the figure had risen to 6,000, and it has increased further since.

Early last year, election bulletins and literature were delivered by air to the remotest kishlaks of the oblast, although telegraph communications with these already existed. In preparation for the local election campaign last January, intensive efforts were made to improve the working of the communications system and to expedite the despatch of election returns, posters and official Party documents but the use of pack coolies was not, incidentally, excluded. Moreover, despite competitions organized among postal and telegraph workers with the aim of improving communications, there were complaints in October of irregular mail deliveries in Kalai Khumb, just outside the oblast border. Postmen were rarely to be seen, letters were delayed and lost their news value ("grew a beard" is the Russian expression), and red tape decreed that mail should be transported by donkey, although cars passed through Tavit-Dara and Kalai-Khumb on their way to Khorog every day.

TADZHIK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



Animal husbandry

More attention is seemingly paid to agriculture in the Pamir than to the traditional occupation of stock-breeding. A possible explanation of this is that the Pamir Botanical Gardens and the Murgab Biological Station are both particularly interested in furthering high-altitude agriculture, sericulture and afforestation, and consider the requirements of stock-breeders only in so far as they are connected with the development of the oblast's fodder resources. These resources, to judge from press reports, are not always used to the best advantage. It was for instance said that summer pastures were being overgrazed by hillmen and valley kolkhozes alike. Years of this treatment had resulted in the grass losing most of its nutritive properties and pastures becoming either so eroded that the topsoil was bared or else overgrown with thorns and noxious weeds. Among the measures proposed for restoring the full grazing value to such pastures was irrigation, - technically quite feasible, since water was abundant and could be brought even from distant places by means of ditches and canals. It had been proved that even desolate and wholly impoverished tracts of grassland could be enriched by irrigation to the extent of producing 10-20 centners of hay per hectare, as opposed to the $1\frac{1}{2}$ centners yielded by non-irrigated pastureland. A maxim now steadily inculcated in Soviet Central Asia and Outer Mongolia is that there can be no radical improvement in stockbreeding unless abundant winter fodder-crops are built up to ensure against the loss of cattle through starvation and exposure.

The productivity of cattle in the Pamir appears to have remained very low until now, and efforts are being made to raise it. Stock-breeders are, for instance, trying to evolve from the Darvaz breed of sheep a Mountain Darvaz strain capable of producing wool of a finer staple and four times as abundant as that yielded by the present Darvaz breed. It has been found that Karakul sheep can safely be driven to the hill pastures in the summer and that to do so improves their weight and increases their autumn wool clip by 20-30 per cent. At the Malenkov kolkhoz in the Tavit-Dara raion bordering on Gorno-Badakhshan it was calculated that if various improvements were introduced the farms could collect 95,000 rubles annually from wool deliveries to the State, instead of the 10,000 earned on its present unproductive flocks. The increased fodder stocks and more productive strains of cattle and sheep needed to turn animal husbandry in the oblast into a prosperous occupation, to provide a marketable surplus of meat, dairy products and wool and to better the financial position of the hill kolkhozes can be obtained only by mechanizing the latter on a much wider scale than hitherto and by distributing the zonal MT and MZh stations more rationally.

If the low productivity of herds in Gorno-Badakhshan is open to criticism, it is impossible to ignore the increase apparently achieved in the numbers of cattle. The number of sheep and goats in the oblast is for instance said to have doubled since 1940, and the numerical increase in the herds in some places has been so spectacular as to invite the question whether it is not at any rate partially accounted for by stricter registration. In the Rushan raion, it is claimed, horned cattle increased thirtyfold in the decade 1940-1950, a figure which can only be explained in terms of wholesale migration to the district of cattle breeders and their herds from other areas.

The southern slopes of the Shakh-Dara and Shugnan ranges are clear of snow in winter, and may be classed as natural winter pasturage. The best pastures, however, are those of the Murgab, Rangul and Zorkul raions, where it is possible to harvest up to 30-40 centners of hay per hectare. The herds of the Murgab, Shugnan and Ishkashim raions winter regularly in the Alai Valley. The fodder reserves accumulated here are, it seems, ample. The same cannot be said of the Eastern Pamir, where kolkhozes are generally unprepared to cope with winter conditions and where at one time fodder had to be brought in on the backs of the very yaks for which it was intended. In the Murgab raion, all kinds of horned cattle are bred, and at Bulunkul there is even a yak-breeding sovkhoz, which is considered to be of primary importance, as the yak can normally carry a load of up to 100 kilograms and is a great stand-by on the higher mountain kolkhozes.

Agriculture

The marked improvement in agricultural developments in the oblast is largely attributed to the work done at the Khorog Botanical Gardens and the Murgab Biological Station, although these appear to be more concerned with increasing the area under fodder crops than with the provision of grain and root crops for human consumption. According to the press, Gorno-Badakhshan has made remarkable strides in high-altitude agriculture, and the total area under cultivation has grown astonishingly. It is claimed that whereas in 1917 not more than 2,000 hectares were cultivated in the whole of the Pamirs, areas of that dimension are now cultivated within the confines of a single raion. In the kolkhozes and mountain valleys of the Shugnan raion, where 3,000 hectares are now under cultivation, high yields of wheat, millet, potatoes and tobacco are obtained, and early-ripening dwarf apple trees, Chinese mulberry and various decorative plants form an addition to the meagre budget and diet of the hill peasant. At the high-altitude kolkhoz of Askari-Surkh in the Rushan raion, market-gardening and grain cultivation are both undertaken, and the wheat yield is said to have reached 24 centners per hectare on occasion,

while the Rosht-Kala raion is noted for its orchards. Kolkhozes singled out by the press for special praise are those named Karl Marx and Stalin (Shugnan raion), Socialism and Budennyi (Rushan raion) and Molotov (Rosht-Kala raion). Another settlement considered to be especially progressive is the Kalinin kolkhoz. Last autumn it harvested 30 centners of grain and 1,000 centners of potatoes per hectare, and by that time it had stored sufficient fodder to last a year and a half and built 19 sheds to house 3,000 cattle. Last spring a kolkhoz in Rosht-Kala raion introduced potatoes into the area for the first time. In that particular year winter conditions persisted in the raion until late in April, but despite continuous rain and snow the kolkhozniks managed to start their ploughing a week ahead of schedule. In Rushan, conditions were more difficult owing to the stony soil, but even here the hardier varieties of potato were successfully tried out, and produced good yields. The more advanced kolkhozi were now said to be producing 35 centners of wheat and 600 centners of potatoes per hectare, and record outputs were achieved in Ishkashim, Shugnan and Vanch. Last October the director of the Pamir Botanical Gardens, A. Gurski, published an article on the main tasks still confronting Pamir kolkhozes. The Vice-President of the Tadzhik Academy of Sciences also dwelt at some length in the press on the problems affecting agriculture and stockbreeding in the republic, and another article discussed the part played by Tadzhik scientists in these matters. The following facts were revealed: barley cultivation began in the Eastern Pamir in 1939, but without success. The Murgab Biological Station then undertook to produce a variety which could withstand the rigours of the climate. This was achieved last autumn, and barley was now grown not only at the experimental station itself but also on the Lenin-Dzholu, Kzyl-Askar and Stalin kolkhozes. The Biological Station also harvested 250 centners per hectare of the "Esterzund" variety of turnip, 180 centners of the Krasnoselsk variety and 165 centners of other varieties. Radishes, carrots and lettuces grown at the station under ultra-violet rays could withstand 12-15 degrees of frost. Scientists from the Tadzhik Academy had ascertained that thousands of hectares in the Eastern Pamir could be used to grow barley, wheat and root-crops for fodder.

92 per cent of Tadzhikistan consists of high, mountainous country of which the Pamir forms a large part; it is extremely uneven country and the diversity of climatic conditions to be found even within the bounds of a single administrative unit creates an obstacle to progress at the high-lying kolkhozes. Thus far the hill people of the Pamir have not managed to get a large marketable surplus from the tilling of their land. In a number of raions wheat yields do not exceed 5-8 centners, linseed 2½-3 centners, and beans 5-6 centners per hectare. This is in striking contrast to

conditions on the more advanced kolkhozes of the Western Pamir, where one variety of wheat produces 30 centners per hectare. It has been established that the Western Pamir offers good prospects for vegetable growing. Potato cultivation in particular would, if intensified, help to remedy the acute shortage in the republic as a whole. In the Shugnan district potato yields of 1,000 centners per hectare have been recorded. Cabbages, tomatoes, carrots and onions can also be grown, and it is hoped eventually to cultivate them at altitudes of 3,000-3,200 metres above sea level.

Education

Statistics published in the press on education in the Gorno-Badakhshan oblast show that in May 1953, 13,000 pupils of various ages and grades entered for the annual school examinations. 371 of these were awarded first-class certificates and 1,439, certificates on completing their seven-year course. 491 of the 493 pupils at the largest school in Khorog passed their annual tests and were moved up to higher grades, and equally good results were reported from the Lenin school in the Barushan kishlak. Several press articles contrasted the present state of education with that prevailing in 1923, when the first school in the Pamir was opened at the Porshnev kishlak. Today, it was said, the school network was comprehensive enough to meet the needs of both the indigenous and the more recently-settled population. Altogether there are now 200 schools in the oblast, some of them, such as the school in the Barushan kishlak, quite large and advanced, with many of their pupils completing a ten-year course of study. Besides the elementary schools there are also a teachers' training institute in Khorog, 130 clubs and chaikhana reading rooms and 106 libraries. Ishkashim has a library of 3,000 books, and new libraries have been opened at Rosht-Kala and Vanch, bringing the number of new ones added recently to the oblast network up to eight. 108 primary, 98 seven-year and 14 secondary schools have been founded since the first schools were opened in the Khorog, Rushan and Shugnan raions, not to mention a teachers' training institute and courses for hospital nurses and veterinary assistants. On the debit side of the account, the press does not omit to record such shortcomings as the low level of teaching in many schools, the backwardness of some of the children, and the failure to enforce universal education. To select some examples: in the schools of the Shugnan raion alone over 600 pupils were said to have been "left behind" last year to complete a further year in the same class. In the Vanch, Ishkashim and Rushan raions hundreds of children were left outside the school network. In the Murgab raion, many of the older teachers lacked adequate qualifications, there was a shortage of books and visual aids at most schools, and at those schools where the teaching was in Kirgiz the

school authorities had failed to introduce the new textbooks embodying grammatical changes in line with contemporary linguistic reforms. Many of these deficiencies were attributed to the red tape and poor guidance of the Tadjik Ministry of Education, whose officials had not visited the schools of Murgab, Ishkashim, Bartang and other remote regions for a very long time. As no less than a quarter of the entire Gorno-Badakhshan budget was assigned to education in 1953, it was hoped that the more glaring faults in the system would eventually be eradicated.

The Press and Political Activities

Two newspapers are published in Khorog, in the Tadjik and Russian languages, and news-sheets or daily papers appear in five raion centres. The extent to which the press is read may be partly gauged from the fact that a single mail delivery brings in to Khorog for distribution and sale 1,000 copies of central, and 2,000 copies of republican newspapers.

The Komsomol played an active part in the local election campaign of early 1953. Over 5,000 komsomol members, a large number in proportion to the total population of the oblast, were politically indoctrinated in 1953, and in 1952, 1,243 young people of both sexes joined the Komsomol organization.

At the fourth Plenary Session of the Oblast Party Committee, speakers pointed out serious defects in the ideological training of key Party workers. This would seem to invalidate the assertion, made in 1953, that illiteracy had been entirely abolished in the Soviet Pamir, since political consciousness is generally assumed to follow in the wake of literacy. The failings endemic in the guidance of local Party organizations and to political work in the kolkhozes are well exemplified in the case of the Murgab raion, which was brought up at the September Party Plenum. It was then alleged that the Murgab raion Party committee (raikom) was making no effort to help members of its primary Party cells to a better understanding of important agricultural policies. Party work at the Kzyl-Askar kolkhoz had been neglected to such an extent that some of its farms were run by unsuitable persons, not to say gao-l-birds, and grave infringements of the byelaws on agricultural artels had resulted. Cattle had been left short of fodder, no sheds had been provided for their shelter, and the herds had sustained serious losses due to exposure and starvation. Similar conditions prevailed at the Stalin, Kirov and Komsomol kolkhozes, where Party work had been allowed to drift and deteriorate. Again, the Murgab raikom was responsible for the yak-breeding sovkhov at Bulunkul, but no Party cells had been formed to supervise the work there - there were indeed only two Communists on the

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entire estate - and throughout the year it was not once visited by a raikom member. Its very existence had apparently been forgotten by the Ministry responsible for sovkhoses. The absence of Party control in the raion had also led to poor work at the Mzh. station; haymaking and the shearing of sheep and yaks were inefficiently done because of the lack of interest shown by the raikom.

Sources.

Central Asian Press

K I R G I Z I A

A KIRGIZ KOLKHOZ

As noticed elsewhere in this issue of Central Asian Review (see the article on "Soviet Source Material on Central Asia"), there is often a marked contrast between descriptions of conditions in Central Asia appearing in all-Union periodicals published in Moscow and reports appearing in the local press. An interesting instance of this is provided by a comparison between a report on Kirgiz collective farms initiated by the Moscow Academy of Sciences and the comments of the Kirgiz press on the same subject.

Under the aegis of the Institute of Ethnography of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, a team of Soviet scientists recently (1951-1953) spent two years studying conditions on the collective farms of northern Kirgizia.

Taking the Voroshilov Kolkhoz as a typical example, S.M. Abramzon, a member of the team, has given his impressions in an article in Sovetskaya Etnographiya (1953 - No. 3), of which the following is a resume.

The Voroshilov kolkhoz is one of the largest in the Pokrovka raion of the Issyk-Kul oblast. Its administrative headquarters is in the village of Darkhan, on the southern shore of Lake Issyk-Kul and some forty kilometres from Przhevalsk, the oblast centre. It employs 2,588 souls, almost entirely Kirgiz, housed in 627 homesteads in Darkhan itself and the neighbouring village of Chichkan.

Organization and activities

The kolkhoz is engaged in both agriculture and livestock breeding, and its workers are organized into 20 teams (Brigady) - 9 agricultural, 10 livestock breeding and 1 building team, responsible for all the constructional work on the kolkhoz; of the agricultural teams, one is housed in the Chichkan-Bashy mountains, with the task of producing food and fodder for the livestock breeding teams.

(a) Agriculture

There are well over 2,000 hectares under cultivation, and of these some 1,500 are under wheat and 760 are sown with perennial grasses. Experiments with these latter have been successful, and the area under perennial grasses is being increased. In addition, following the example of neighbouring Russian communities, the Kirgiz peasants are paying increased attention to fruit and vegetable farming in the village of Darkhan and its immediate vicinity.

Agricultural work has been mechanized to a considerable extent, and eight combined harvesters and three tractor teams are regularly at work. Members of the agricultural teams are allotted tasks according to their age and training. Some do ordinary manual work; others have tasks involving the use of simple agricultural machinery, and some are fully trained as drivers of harvesters and tractors. The 7th (Tractor) team of Dzhetyoguz MTS, for example, is composed entirely of Darkhan peasants.

(b) Livestock breeding

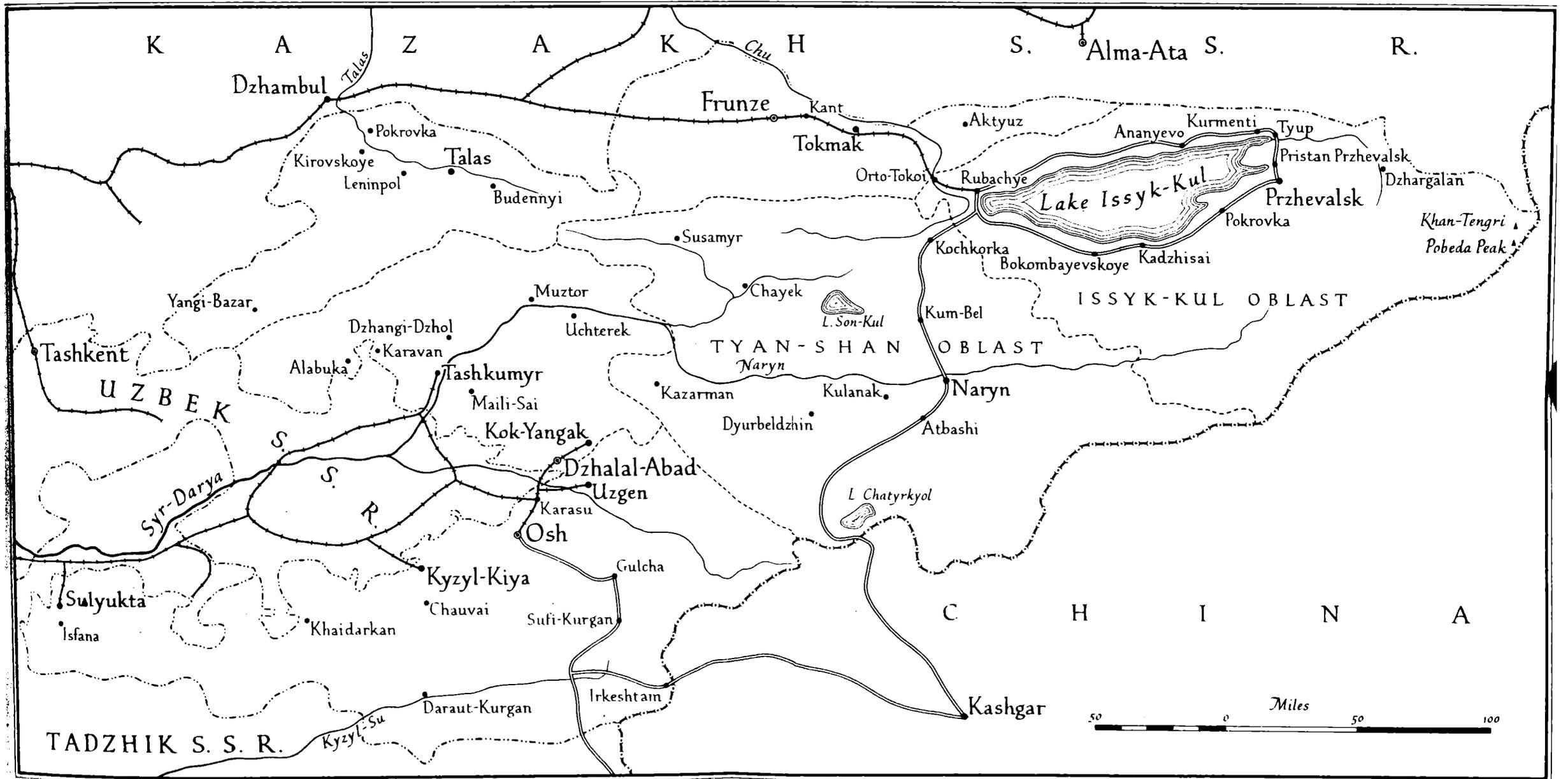
Stockbreeding is concentrated almost exclusively in the mountain grazing lands of the kolkhoz. Barns, stables, store houses for fodder and the like are, however, under construction in the lowland kolkhoz villages, and when these are completed, both an expansion and improvement of stockbreeding is anticipated.

For stockbreeding purposes the possession of a number of grazing areas for use according to the season of the year is of great importance, and in this respect the kolkhoz is well found. Its seasonal grazing grounds are situated in the syrt zone - high-altitude valleys and plateaux, varying from 2,500 metres to 4,000 metres above sea-level - in the mountain region of Chichkan-Bashy and the nearby ravines of the Kashka-Sun, Orto-Bukal and Dzherkockho areas.

The kolkhoz has two horse-breeding studs, three sheep-rearing farms and one pig and poultry farm, and at present has some 2,000 horses, 20,000 sheep and goats and 1,200 head of cattle. Productivity is not regarded as very high, and this is attributed primarily to the low quality of the stock held. But the kolkhoz already has 200 thoroughbred horses, more than one third of the cattle is half-bred, and active measures to improve the stock are in hand.

At present the horses, sheep and goats remain on their upland grazing grounds for the greater part of the year, but cattle and

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the pigs and poultry - rearing of the latter being a new sphere of activity for the Kirgiz peasantry - are kept in and around the villages.

Social conditions and amenities

(a) Darkhan village

Darkhan village is a modern settlement, which consists of four principal and parallel streets, joined by a number of subsidiary roads at right angles to them. The principal streets are planted with avenues of trees, and most of the houses stand in gardens or small orchards. In Kalinin Street, the main thoroughfare of the village, are located the administrative buildings, the club, the secondary school, the wireless centre, a park for agricultural machinery, the electric flour mill and other municipal offices.

Both in the layout of the village and in the style of the houses there is marked evidence of Russian, and, to a lesser degree, of Uzbek influence. There are two types of houses, both of which are popular. The first type consists of a two- or three-roomed house, built of saman brick and with a flat, clay roof, floors for the most part of wood and medium-sized windows. It is normally white-washed inside and out. The second type is also of brick, with a basement, wooden floors throughout, large windows, double-sided sloping roof, and usually with a terrace, similar to the Uzbek aivan, at the back; in some houses steps lead, in the Russian fashion, from this terrace to the garden. These new houses have no kitchen as such, the cooking being done usually in an outhouse or, in summer, in the middle of the courtyard. The gardens are graced plentifully with fruit trees and flowers. Construction of both types is proceeding rapidly.

(b) The typical Kirgiz homestead

In a three-roomed house, one room is normally used more or less as a bed-sitting room, the second as a dining room and bedroom for the senior members of the family, and the third is in the nature of a hall and general utility room.

The conventional furniture of the bed-sitting room consists of a bed, a large table and stools. The floor is covered with a brightly coloured felt carpet (shyrdak), and the walls are decorated with large embroidered hangings (tush-kiyiz). The

second room is less elaborately furnished; it contains a large bed for seniors and a table, usually in a corner, for earthenware, crockery and cooking utensils, and the beshtik, or family cradle, and a wooden coffer complete the furniture. This room also is decorated with tush-kiyiz, but generally of a less ornate nature.

Russian influence finds expression, in many houses, in the presence of window curtains, embroideries and flower boxes; looking-glasses, wireless sets and other modern amenities are gradually finding their way into the Kirgiz home, and the introduction of electric light has radically transformed the life of the Kirgiz peasantry.

(c) Food

Here again, extraneous influence - Russian, Uzbek, Uigur and Dungan - is making itself felt, and Kirgiz diet has become much more varied. Consumption of fruit and vegetables and the use of sugar, honey and other groceries have greatly increased, and many new dishes, mostly of the cooked meat variety, have been added to the Kirgiz menu. National dishes, however, and the national customs of cooking in a cauldron on an open fire and serving the food in earthenware or enamel bowls have been retained. Not without interest is the fact that the women and children are no longer served with the remnants of a meal, but take their place on equal terms with the male members of the family. Not every house owns a bread oven, and bread is baked on a communal basis, one oven serving several families. The leathern utensils formerly in use in Kirgizia have almost completely disappeared except at herdsmen's cottages in the mountains.

(d) Clothing

Increased prosperity and a raising of the standard of living during the late 1930s and early 1940s have led to radical changes in Kirgiz dress. The easy availability of ready-made clothes, the impulse to follow the fashions of neighbouring Russian communities, the example set by students and relations coming from urban centres to visit their native villages are all factors which have contributed to this evolution, and Russian clothes of the urban type are becoming increasingly popular. Very many garments are nevertheless still made in the home, where not a few sewing-machines are now to be found.

(e) Social and economic developments

The Russian revolution, the introduction of collective agriculture and the more direct incidence of Russian influences have all combined with the traditional customs and culture of Kirgizia to bring about profound changes in the social, economic and cultural life of the Kirgiz peasantry.

Thanks to collectivization, the Kirgiz peasant family now enjoys an ensured income, represented mainly by the wages drawn for work on the kolkhoz and supplemented by small sums earned from the sale of surplus produce - fruit, milk, vegetables - of the individual personal plots.

The average income of a Kirgiz family is stated to be not more than 14,000 rubles per annum, and members of families living in the towns often help their kolkhoz relatives by sending parcels of clothing and money. As the entire family, including the women, is employed, a considerable measure of female emancipation and economic independence has resulted. The social status of the woman has risen, and women are taking an increasingly active part both in the work of the kolkhoz and in the social activities of the community.

The disappearance of the sooty fat-burning lamp and home-made soap, and the advent of such amenities as electricity, cooking stoves and manufactured soap have greatly lightened the domestic burden of the women, and the adoption, under Russian influence, of a more varied cuisine and of such refinements as the ironing of clothes and more ornate and elaborate bedding have done much to enhance the material standard of life.

While great insistence is still laid upon the observance of the traditional respect due to elders and parents - those who educate the children "in love of the fatherland and the communist movement, which consolidates the ideological unity of the family" - the younger generation now enjoy much more freedom and liberty, even to the extent of making marriages of their own choice and arrangement.

Large families are the objects of great respect, and while the birth-rate has risen sharply, there has been a marked decrease in infantile mortality. In Darkhan from 1950 to 1952, 254 births and 82 deaths were registered.

A further sign of the enlightenment and emancipation of the women is the gradual disappearance of prejudice against maternity institutions. In 1951, of the 118 births registered in Darkhan,

only eight women entered the maternity centre in Pokrovka for their confinement; but of the 76 births between January and July 1952, 12 took place in the maternity home. This changing attitude has led to the decision to build a Kolkhoz Maternity Centre in Darkhan village itself.

Relations with neighbouring Russian communities are becoming increasingly cordial and intimate and have resulted in a greater appreciation by the Kirgiz of the principles of child welfare and well-being. Not a few Russian war orphans from the Przhivalsk Orphanage have been adopted by Kirgiz families.

The abandonment of their former nomadic existence and the establishment of permanent settlement as the result of agricultural collectivization have led to a genuine cultural revolution in the Kirgiz ayils (auls). Education has made great strides. Literacy is now the rule rather than the exception, and knowledge of the Russian language is becoming increasingly widespread. The area possesses two centres of education - the secondary school at Darkhan and the seven-grade school at Chichkan. The former, built in 1937, is no longer large enough to cope with the demands made upon it and is now obliged to work in two shifts. The masters and their local graduate assistants are stated to be both efficient and zealous. In addition, an evening school for rural youth was started in Darkhan in 1949 and is well attended.

The library has a good selection of both Russian and Kirgiz books, periodicals and newspapers, all of which are in great demand by students. The local club has its own cinema, reading rooms and other attractions, as well as its own wireless installation, whose programmes in Russian, Kirgiz and Kazakh, especially Russian and Kirgiz national music and folk songs, are particularly popular. The club also organizes musical evenings and, in addition to lectures given by teachers and other members of the local intelligentsia, the Voroshilov kolkhoz, as a member of the "Society for the Propagation of Political and Scientific Knowledge", makes arrangements for a series of talks by visiting lecturers.

The "intelligentsia" of the kolkhoz consists of a group composed of the wireless operator, the agronomist, the power-station mechanic, the male nurse, the accountant, the veterinary assistant and a few others. This group exercises a great influence on the educational and cultural activities of the kolkhoz.

Three hundred periodicals and newspapers are subscribed to and books are in widespread demand; and films, concerts and theatrical performances by visiting artistes complete the gamut of the

recreational activities which are contributing to the development of cultural life among the Kirgiz peasantry.

Interest in sports and pastimes is also increasing. In the upland grazing areas shooting and falconry hold pride of place, while volley-ball, chess and some national games such as ordo and toguz-korgol are also very popular.

"The cultural evolution of the kolkhoz ayil is unfolding under the ever-increasing influence of all that is best in Russian culture," and "The formation and development of the Kirgiz Socialist nation is progressing with the brotherly and disinterested help of the great Russian people." With these sentiments the author sums up the impressions he has gathered during his tour of study.

The picture painted in the report is not, however, reflected either in comments appearing in the local Press, which does not seem to share Abramzon's satisfaction at the economic and cultural development, or in the pungent criticisms of the conduct of affairs and the results obtained which have been voiced by some local authorities.

According to Sovyetskaya Kirgizia of 5th August 1953, the situation at a certain kolkhoz in the Dzhahalabad oblast is far from satisfactory: "The cotton crop continues to decline at this kolkhoz. Instead of the earlier average of 19 centners, 17 centners were produced in 1950, 11.4 centners in 1951 and 12.7 centners in 1952. As a result of these poor harvests the work-day (trudodni) payments, and thus the peasants' cash income, have sharply decreased. In stockbreeding conditions are no better. The herd is not being improved, selectivity is non-existent, hay harvesting has been very slow, fodder stocks are inadequate, and next year this kolkhoz will again be obliged to purchase fodder. Cattle are being badly tended, and the targets for milk production and wool have never been reached."

Again, in its issue of 3rd June 1953, the same newspaper severely criticizes certain kolkhozes of the Issyk-Kul oblast for the poor quality of the crops and herds they are producing and for their failure to reach any of the targets, in agriculture or in stockbreeding, fixed for 1952.

The Secretary of the Issyk-Kul Regional Committee of the Communist Party, Primov, in his report submitted to the Central Committee of Kirgizia, places the responsibility for these grave shortcomings on the Kirgiz Ministry of Agriculture and Procurement. Among others, he made the following points :

- (a) Delays in the supplying of fertilizers and spare parts for agricultural machines have led to poor crops and slow harvesting.
- (b) Careless husbandry has left the crops permeated with weeds.
- (c) Inadequate cultivation of perennial grasses has hindered both the improvement of breeds and the rise in productivity.

"The advisability of making the Chairmen of kolkhozes, the Directors of MTS' and the officials in charge of agricultural sections personally responsible...." is voiced by many Soviet authorities.

Inadequate construction of stables, barns and cow-sheds provided another field of criticism. In the kolkhozes of the Kirgiz Republic in 1953, only 70 per cent of the cattle have cow-sheds, and only 63 per cent of the sheep and goats were provided with barns. In this respect, conditions are said to be particularly bad in the oblasts of Issyk-Kul, Talas and Tien-Shan.

At the Plenum of the Frunze Regional Committee of the Communist Party of Kirgizia, held in September 1953, very much the same story was told of wholesale failure to reach any of the targets, either in agriculture - crops, sugar beet, potatoes, vegetables, perennial grasses - or in stock-breeding. This failure was attributed to lack of "agricultural" leadership and to the inefficiency of local authorities.

The inefficiency of the MTS was also emphasized. In spite of an increase in the number of tractors and harvesters available in 1953, many MTS' failed to fulfil their obligations, and their failure is attributed to the lack of trained mechanics and to poor maintenance. During the first six months of 1953 the tractors are said to have been idle for no less than 25 per cent of their scheduled working hours.

Absenteeism, too, is very prevalent, and "the economic and administrative consolidation of the Kirgiz kolkhozes, and in particular the organization of labour and the maintenance of discipline," is a problem which has still to be solved by the authorities of the Kirgiz SSR. Sov'yetskaya Kirgizia reported that, during 1953, 17 per cent of the kolkhozniks in the Frunze oblast did not complete the prescribed number of work-days.

Another striking difference between Abramzon's impressions and statements appearing in the local press is in the matter of education. The latter describe the conditions in the Issyk-Kul

oblast as worse than in any other oblast of Kirgizia. The compulsory education law is not being observed; a large number of children, and particularly those of parents engaged in animal husbandry, did not attend school at all during the year 1953; and the programme for the continued education of working youths is not being carried out.

Sources.

Sovetskaya Etnografya (1953 - No. 3)

Sovetskaya Kirgiziya 1953

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FEUILLETON

NO TEA - ONLY VODKA AND BEER

"Tea please."

"No tea, only vodka and beer" the waitress said irritably.

This exchange took place in the station restaurant at Frunze. The customer asked for the complaint book and three days later received a reply to his complaint. "Your remarks are just," it read, "and we have taken measures to improve the service. The cook Klepov has been reprimanded and fined." Several days went by but there was still no tea to be had in the restaurant; nor is any being served there today. The customers blame the waiter Dankeyev. He shouts, is rude and refuses to hand over the complaint book. The manager too turns a deaf ear to the just complaints.

Source.

Sovetskaya Kirgiziya. December, 1953.

T U R K M E N I S T A N

URBAN DEVELOPMENT

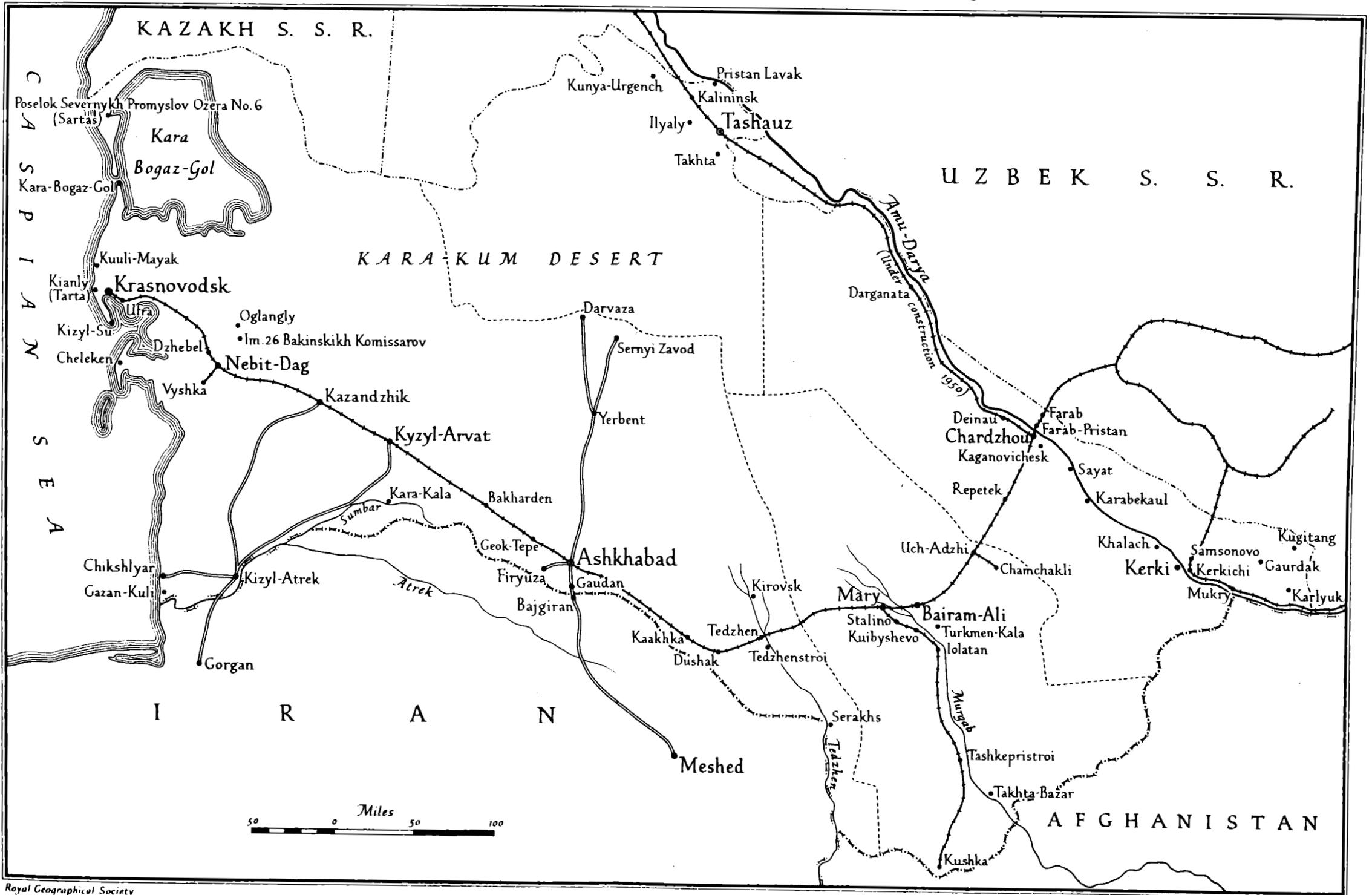
The growth of towns in Turkmenistan in recent years has followed the pattern of the general economic development in the area. Two important factors have been the intensified exploitation of the oil reserves in the western part of the republic and the opening up of new transport routes. The effect of these has been to set afoot the further development of some of the prospecting settlements and to extend the entrepot trade of major ports and junctions. The public services generally associated with modern city life have made their appearance at varying speeds in different places and the local press reflects satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the progress that has been made. There have been problems of labour and material, notable among the latter being the quantity and quality of building bricks. Bad planning and failure to take into account local factors such as the saline content of certain soils are responsible for some of the other difficulties.

The oil cities

The growth of townships in the oil field areas has been considerable both in range and achievement. The task of providing essential public services such as water and gas supplies in towns which have sprung up almost overnight has been partly accomplished. Judging by reports the general picture is one of rapid expansion and of healthier and easier living conditions, though complaints of broken promises, of roads not built, of a shortage of houses, of bad transport and so on, have not been absent.

The increasing output of the Vyshka oil-fields has brought prosperity to Nebit-Dag, a railway junction in the foothills of the Great Balkhan ridge and the local press reflects the general satisfaction with the progress. Large scale projects are in operation to provide the city with gas, hospitals, new restaurants and over 1,500 flats. Ten two-storeyed buildings in the centre of the city are nearly complete. The Forest Department is putting up a large building which will serve as the headquarters for the whole desert region that surrounds this town of white buildings. A new amusement park is being laid out, and an ice factory, a cafeteria and a theatre to seat 900 are in the process of construction. A railway station has recently been completed. The water-supply

TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



problem has been overcome with the finding of water at Dzhebel where eight wells have already been sunk, so that Nebit-Dag no longer relies on Kazandzhik for its water. Workers earn between three and four thousand rubles a month and, with cheap housing, heating and lighting, can afford to spend most of their money on food and clothing, expensive though these may be. In the circumstances even the local paper, Vyshka, is seldom critical of the shortcomings in the public services.

The extension of gas supplies to private houses has helped to make life more comfortable in Vyshka as well as in Nebit-Dag. Vyshka is also getting a new social club and with Dzhebel now enjoys the benefit of the improved water supply available to Nebit-Dag.

Kum-Dag's improved prospects

Pending an increase in the flow from the oil-wells the future of Kum-Dag was in the balance. This increase has now materialized and plans for expansion are being put into effect. The increase in the output of oil went up by 34 per cent in 1952 and in the first three and a half months of 1953 the daily yield was up by a further ten per cent. Its oil-fields are now regarded among the most promising of the oil-bearing areas of Turkmenistan. The name of the town means "Hill of Sand" and it was indeed a stretch of desert land not so long ago. Today it has asphalt streets and pavements, an ice factory, a school for as many as 750 children and other amenities. Work has started on a Diesel power station and, to promote vegetation by regular irrigation, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ kilometers of pipes have been laid.

The major problem in Kum-Dag is the provision of housing for the workers. It was decided last year that only two-storeyed houses should be built and that all living quarters should have gas laid on. For 1953, 8,500 square meters of living space were promised and two million rubles was to be spent to provide gas. But for a town that has grown up in the desert living quarters are so far quite inadequate to meet the needs of the workers. Many are thus obliged to come from Nebit-Dag 42 kilometers away. Even this would be bearable if good transport were available, but it is not and many of the men have to wait for hours in the hope of getting a lift. The result is seen in the low standard of labour discipline in some sectors of the oil-fields and at some derricks.

Cheleken, "City of the Sea"

Cheleken, on the shores of the Caspian Sea, provides an

interesting story. Two years ago there were no signs of any town life in the area and only the settlement of Dogadzhik was to be found on current maps of the region. Last June it was decided that the building of a new town on the sites of the settlements of Azizbekovo, Pervomaiski and Dogadzhik should be accelerated. To meet the needs of a population that was expected to increase threefold, 25,000 square metres of living quarters were to be provided. Two main streets parallel to the seashore were to be intersected by a number of shorter lanes running down to the sea from the sand dunes above. It was referred to in a press handout as "the City of the Sea". The Cheleken peninsula has attracted thousands of Russians, Azerbaidzhanis, Armenians, Georgians, Turkmens, Kazakhs, Uzbeks, Ukrainians, White Russians, Moldavians, Buryats, Esthonians and gypsies, who are all at work levelling the land and laying the foundations of the new town. The remarkable claim is made that at the New Cheleken construction site, workers of no fewer than 34 nationalities are employed.

Building materials, machinery, boring equipment and other materials were reaching the construction site in large quantities as early as last May, but in October it was admitted that so far not a single square foot of road surface had been laid and trucks still had to make their way through deep sand. No power station had been built and most of the town blocks got their electricity from low-powered mobile generators. There was not a single bathhouse on the site and for general use there were only shower baths. The town did not have a single shrub or tree growing.

In the meantime the workers in the industries of the region are reported to be exceeding their annual targets. At an unspecified chemical plant, production by October had exceeded 76 per cent of the annual quota. Dogadzhik had reached its target for the procurement of ozokerite for the whole year as early as the 6th November.

Extensive development has taken place over the entire area known as "Industrial Cheleken." Here a settlement to house several thousand oil workers is in the process of construction. Houses are to have gas, water and electricity. That there is sufficient power is evident from the number of lights blazing along the coast line every night.

The turn-over of the new port of Aladzha, serving Cheleken, has also increased, particularly as the stream of materials for building and other equipment destined for Cheleken arrives in ever larger quantities. To improve the link with Krasnovodsk an express ferry service has been planned and the steamboat built for the purpose was expected in October. This vessel, capable of

carrying 80 passengers, was built at Taganrog on the Sea of Azov. It was built for speed, and, as if to stress that the development of Cheleken was under the control of Moscow, it was to proceed to Moscow for inspection and registration before it went into service.

Improved port facilities at Krasnovodsk

With the cutting of the Volga-Don Canal, Krasnovodsk has become a port of even greater importance than before with vessels from Odessa and Kherson, from the Baltic and the White Sea, all arriving with cargoes of grain and timber, of building materials, machinery and industrial equipment. The port facilities are being extended rapidly to meet the demands of increased traffic and dockers are being called on to set up new records in the handling of cargoes and turn-about of ships. On 20th August, for example, three steamers were dealt with in record time. They were m.v. Mikoyan, bringing timber from Astrakhan, the barge Buguruslan bringing motor cars from Baku, and m.v. Thirty Years of Vlksm which was not only unloaded six hours ahead of schedule but loaded again with a cargo of cotton in record time the same day. In October s.s. Amu-Darya with grain from Makhach-Kala and s.s. Azizbekov with machinery and factory equipment were also dealt with at great speed, the dockers in the case of the latter vessel trebling the norm. This enabled the ship to make an extra trip across the Caspian in November. Against these records it has to be said that s.s. Kolyma which arrived at Krasnovodsk with machinery and machine parts from Danube and Don ports on 21st June was still in the port on 28th July.

The productivity of labour at the port has risen by about 15 per cent, charges have been reduced and the handling of ships has been accelerated. This is due not only to the greater efforts of a larger force of dock labour but also to technical improvements in the port. An unusual addition to the facilities of the port has been a floating dock, said to be of original design "on the lines of a tanker". This will be used to help ships in distress out at sea even when damaged below the water-line, as it reproduces almost completely the conditions which obtain in dockyards. The vessel is afloat, but was not completely equipped when last mentioned.

Faulty liaison with the railway system

Lack of proper co-ordination between the port authorities and the Ashkhabad Railway is responsible for a good deal of delay in handling traffic. In September during a period of 13 days, 145 waggons of mixed freight were short delivered at Krasnovodsk port station. For this both the port and the railway authorities were blamed. Waggonloads would reach Krasnovodsk Port Station beyond the handling capacity of the docks. This resulted in the work at the port becoming disorganized; steamers would be waiting to be unloaded while waggons accumulated on the wharf. Handling charges were increased greatly by the necessity of putting cargoes into warehouses, and in the early part of 1953 the handling charge for a ton of freight had risen by 1.44 rubles. Cases of negligence are also reported, such as the delivery to the railway in August 1953 of 300 tons of general cargo which in 1952 had been booked for shipment by steamship companies from relatively nearby ports. Another glaring case was the forwarding to a scrap metal dump of four brand new winches, an electric motor and 14 gas cylinders.

As a result of training courses for dockers and sailors some improvement in the co-ordination of work has in recent months been brought about. This may explain a press comment of 4th November, which, in spite of the shortcomings just described, praised the co-ordination of work achieved by steamship and railway staffs. For the second year running, courses lasting seven months have been held for candidates for higher posts as captains of the smaller sea-going vessels plying along the south-eastern shores of the Caspian Sea. Among other assignments trainees are expected to serve on the motor boats of the fishing fleets and on Chelekenneft steamers.

Developments in the city

Krasnovodsk has grown in other directions and is now the capital of an oblast. New enterprises include the Building Materials Kombinat, the Oil Trust's hospital and the Palace of Culture. Foundations have also been laid for new blocks of flats. Of the older undertakings, the Stalin workshops recently celebrated their tenth anniversary. Production here has been increased sevenfold during the decade, and the buildings surrounding the plant house a school, a kindergarten and a hospital. The local ship-repair wharves, on the other hand, seem to be behind schedule in both output and efficiency. In the locomotive sheds a ten-ton bridge crane and electrically driven locomotive jacks have been installed which can hoist locomotives in from five to ten minutes. The feeding of coal to the boiler-room at the workshops has been

mechanized, a steam hammer has been installed and steps have been taken to erect a pneumatic hammer.

Roads and water supplies

All the main arteries of traffic in the city have been asphalted. It is claimed that there is an ample supply of water for domestic and industrial purposes, but the suggestion that water had to be "brought" may imply that there is as yet no system of pipes for supplying individual users and that these have to rely on mobile water tanks.

Palace of Culture scandal

Progress in the provision of new amenities does not seem to be uniform. A recent newspaper article carried the heading: "Why is the Palace of Culture still an empty shell?" This building on the shores of the Caspian, was started seven years ago and has been completed at a cost of over 11 m. rubles. But today it is still not in use. In the evenings the windows are unlit and the rooms and halls are almost empty. Now and again a film or a play might be produced, but many of the rooms are unfurnished and in the foyer the chandeliers have been brought down and many of the windows smashed.

Why, asks the paper, is a building specifically designed and built for cultural purposes and provided with 94 rooms, halls and studies, a library and store-rooms for scenery and decorations all completed, left unused? The answer is that the building cannot as yet be officially opened and so it is administered by a skeleton staff of one person, who combines all duties connected with the palace from director to janitor of the building. A commission reporting on the building recently showed that there were 25 infringements of fire regulations and that exactly 100 major defects had to be rectified before the director could recruit a staff of entertainers. Moreover, the revolving stage specified in the contract has not been provided, space for seats in the central hall has not been properly calculated and ventilation has been neglected in a manner that makes the use of the building in summer impossible. The ceiling is still unpainted, and plaster has been falling on to the floor.

Chardzhou's increased traffic

Chardzhou, an important junction of the land and water highways of Turkmenistan, the Ashkhabad railway and the Amu-Darya, has now the added task of serving as a base for trans-shipment of freight to the Main Turkmen Canal. Despite delays or the possible suspension of work on this canal, the project has benefited Chardzhou. In the last two years no less than 40 m. rubles have been allocated to major development schemes. The docks have been largely mechanized. In May the shipyards overhauled a number of vessels, including s.s. Frunze, s.s. Mikoyan, m.v. Byelinski, m.v. Turgenev and a dredger. The "Dorokhov" process has expedited the work of removing rust from hulls and reduced the number of manual workers involved from 20 to 5. Three 150 h.p. dredgers were assembled at the Republican Excavator Assembly Works and the total figure for the year was expected to reach 12. Trials were also made for major repairs to D.6 motors.

Improved rail facilities planned include a new railway and goods station and an overbridge to facilitate traffic across the lines. The waggon repair sheds recently overhauled 65 waggons in 20 days, - a record. Better road services are promised also as 40,000 metres of pavement and 70,000 metres of roads are to be asphalted.

The town has been promised a new furniture works, a silk-weaving Kombinat, a milk factory and a new power station at the water works. Schools for hydro-technicians and for river pilots and mechanics are to be opened.

In the midst of so much activity there is still news of delays in the carrying out of building plans. The building trade is handicapped by a serious shortage of labour. Work on a kolkhoznik club and headquarters has been started and given up no less than six times.

Other cities

Kazandzhik came into existence when the building of the Main Turkmen Canal was started. The foundations of a new power station have been laid and there is also news of a new dispensary clinic for workers in the southern part of the Canal Zone. The workers of the locomotive sheds have been reaching 170 per cent of their production index.

The expansion of Tashauz is reflected in the addition of ten new municipal election wards in 1953. New houses have been built round the railway station for irrigation workers, technicians engaged on the Main Turkmen Canal, forestry and soil experts, and others. The

town council are however accused of not taking adequate anti-malarial precautions. The city Mary (Merv) has been much criticized. The river has been allowed to get polluted, the local market has been badly run, and the kolkhoz market paving neglected. Roads in some of the kolkhozes of the raion were often flooded and the roads leading to the Stalin and Iolotan raions are in a bad state.

Tedzhen has made good progress. Roads and pavements have been covered with bitumen. New water mains have been laid and the services of the power station, the local hotel and the municipal baths have all been improved. On 3rd June a new power station was opened at the local M.T. station.

In Kyzyl-Arvat there is news of the asphaltting of 2,000 sq.m. of pavements. But the local parks and other recreational amenities are sadly neglected. There is not a single bench in the park, no lighting at night, no watering of footpaths and no restrictions on cycles and motor cycles. A stadium by the park completed several years ago has not yet been equipped and the railway park with no fencing around it has had all its statues smashed and its dance floors rendered unfit for use.

Gasan-Kuli, a small port on the Caspian, has long been known for its carpets; it has also a fishing kolkhoz and is a sanctuary for rare birds. The soil of the raion is poor and it lacks fresh water supplies. But the city has a highly literate population from which many figures prominent in the world of letters, art and politics have emerged.

No mention has been made of the new town of Takhia-Tash which until April 1953 figured prominently in the press.

Reports of progress made at a number of stations on the new Chardzou-Kungrad branch of the Ashkhabad railway have appeared in the press. But at times building is slow and at Siding 419, where buildings are inadequate, no tickets are sold and to get a passage from the siding one has to proceed to the next station more than 10 kilometers away.

Building problems

In conclusion it has to be noted that although building on a large scale is going on in all the cities of the republic, certain problems arise almost everywhere which affect quality and slow down the rate of work. On the supply side the output of bricks of

good quality has not been enough to meet the demand, and the building-material trusts are strongly criticized. In the first eight months of 1953 deliveries from the kilns were short by 33 m. bricks. The industry lacks a stable labour force and time is wasted in training hands each year for what is seasonal work. Even managerial staff are liable to change frequently and at an Ashkhabad Works 19 directors have been replaced in the course of nine months.

The quality of the bricks produced is poor. Processes have not been standardized. The drying of green bricks takes 45 to 56 hours instead of 30, and a high proportion of the bricks produced is unusable. A record for inefficiency was attained by the Kaakhka kilns which were set an annual target of 2.75 m. bricks but produced only 300,000 in the first eight months of 1953. Not a single brick supplied by them was up to standard in shape or size. All the work was done by manual labour while machinery was rusting in the open, and the costs of the bricks were double the estimated figures. No laboratory tests were applied and no sorting was done; but all bricks were supposed to be of the best quality. The story of mechanical equipment not being used is repeated in reports from a number of kilns in Chardzhou oblast.

Not a few buildings were deteriorating prematurely because of the quality of the bricks used. This is often due to bricks being made of clay with a high saline content, though in some cases the erection of houses on sites where the soil is saline has also been responsible for decay.

Poor labour discipline and low quality of work must take their share of the blame for the slow and expensive execution of building programmes. Trade unions have been strongly criticized for not seeing that workers are well trained and carry out their work properly. It is not at all unusual to find that the allocation of funds for a scheme for a particular year is not taken up in full during the year. Thus at Mary, of 560,000 rubles allocated for a hospital building, only 240,000 rubles were spent and the rest had to be carried forward. At Leninsk, in Tashauz oblast, of the 380,000 rubles sanctioned for a project, only 165,000 could be used in the current year.

At the Supreme Council in Moscow it was recently stated that the poor use of mechanical equipment and the variable labour force at construction sites were responsible for the failure to carry out building plans and to use the funds allocated year by year. This applies with particular force to Turkmenistan.

Sources. Turkmenskaya Iskra, 1953

K A Z A K H S T A N

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Recently Mr. Khrushchev, Secretary General of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, stated in a report presented to the Central Committee of the Party that Kazakhstan had at the end of 1953 only 17 m. sheep and goats as against a figure of 19 m. for the year 1928. The statement is highly significant not only because of its source, but also because it suggests that, despite efforts that have been made in recent years to improve the situation, and despite the high percentage statistics that have been published using the 1940 position as the basis of comparison, the republic has not yet overcome the setback experienced in the years before 1940. The comparison with 1928 becomes even more unfavourable when it is realized that the economy of the republic has been expanding in almost every other direction and that its rural life depends mainly on livestock. A further fact that must cause serious thought is the low ratio of wool deliveries for 1953 as compared with the targets set for the producers, the figure quoted by Mr. Khrushchev being from 60 to 70 per cent.

Among the units of the Soviet Union, Kazakhstan is the biggest breeder of horses, the second biggest producer of sheep and the third in its population of cattle and horses. The Great Soviet Encyclopaedia compares figures for 1950 with those for 1940 and finds a 300 per cent increase in the number of sheep and goats, a 75 per cent rise in the number of cattle and a six per cent rise in the number of horses. In the sovkhoses the number of sheep and goats rose by 63 per cent and that of horses by 43 per cent over the same decade.

The republic has some 1,300 veterinary and zootechnical stations where about 5,000 veterinary surgeons and their assistants serve the needs of its livestock breeding farms.

Targets for this year

Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 10th October 1953 gives the target figures for livestock which the planners have set for 1954 for the whole republic and for the kolkhozes as follows :-

	<u>Whole republic</u>	<u>Kolkhozes</u>	
Cattle	5,000,000	2,800,000	(including 880,000 cows)
Sheep and Goats	28,850,000	20,200,000	
Pigs	590,000	300,000	

Kolkhozes adjacent to the towns of Alma-Ata, Karaganda, Chimkent, Ust-Kamenogorsk and Zyryanovsk are to have a percentage of cows to all cattle of at least 60, other collective farms are set a figure of 40 to 50 per cent. Meat production is to reach 360,000 tons for this year and 420,000 tons for 1955; milk production 680,000 tons and 830,000 tons respectively; and wool output 45,000 and 57,000 tons respectively.

Fodder procurement

In practice, the kolkhozes have been negligent in the matter of building stables, barns and shelters and of laying in stocks of fodder for this winter. Consequently many collective farms have already had to buy, in the middle of the winter of 1953, quantities of fodder from distant areas and to pay considerable sums for its transport. The early onset of winter made things additionally difficult for individual kolkhozes as well as for whole raions.

Not one oblast of the republic complied with the programme for the procurement of winter fodder. In 80 collective farms of Akmolinsk oblast for instance, only 60 per cent of the forage required has been laid in. The kolkhozes of the Urlutyunsk, Galkino, Lozovsk and Mikhailovsk raions in Pavlodar oblast have been even less well provided. Things are no better in numerous kolkhozes in the Aktyubinsk and South-Kazakhstan oblasts where large quantities of hay were not collected. Some 800,000 hectares of mown hay which had not been stacked in time were abandoned in fields thickly covered with snow in the Aktyubinsk, Kustanai and West-Kazakhstan oblasts. Less than half the needed hay was procured in Semipalatinsk oblast, and it was the same story in late 1953 in many kolkhozes of the Alma-Ata, South-Kazakhstan, East-Kazakhstan, Taldy-Kurgan, Pavlodar, North-Kazakhstan and other oblasts. There are also complaints of inadequate help from the M.T. and the M.Zh. stations.

Many a kolkhoz fails to pay enough attention to the procurement of straw. In Kustanai oblast for instance, less than half the available straw was stacked in 1953, while slightly more was laid in in West-Kazakhstan, Aktyubinsk, Alma-Ata and other oblasts. In the south of the republic many kolkhozes could have made up their

KAZAKH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



deficit in hay by storing in silos sugar-beet and other vegetable leaves, but the value of these types of fodder is not fully appreciated. The programme of storage in silos for the whole republic was only carried out to the extent of 50 per cent. In spite of the fact that large numbers of cattle would spend the winter in grazing areas, a large part of their fodder had not been received as late as last November. In Aktyubinsk oblast only 21.2 per cent of the required hay had reached the grazing lands; in Akmolinsk oblast, 34.4 per cent and in West-Kazakhstan, 23.3 per cent.

Stables, barns and wells

By a directive of 25th August, the Ministry of Agriculture and Procurement instructed kolkhozes to complete the building of all stables, barns and wells in the grazing areas by 15th October. In these areas veterinary services, shops and medical help should have been available as well, but none of the schemes materialized in time.

The great majority of the animals are still in the open and very little has been done for watering. Thousands of cubic metres of timber are piled up at Uralsk, Kazakhstan, Alexandrov-Gai, Dzhanlybek and other railway stations, and a further 17,000 cubic metres are stored by the regional cooperative union; yet the building of stables, barns and shelters for kolkhoz livestock is behind schedule. In Dzhangalin raion the kolkhozes took only 20 cubic metres of the 1,072 put at their disposal, leaving all the rest in the cooperative store. Other raions tell a similar story.

Numerous pledges, directives and other verbal expressions of a desire to rectify matters have achieved very little. The Party, the Soviet authorities and the republican agricultural authorities have made little practical contribution to the organization of work. Kazakhstanskaya Pravda blames all three for the backward state of animal husbandry in Kazakhstan and says that only deliberate neglect can explain the very low percentage of cows in the herds of the kolkhozes - a mere 24.3 per cent of the total. "Animal husbandry continues to be the most backward branch of the Kazakh rural economy," says the paper in its issue of 10th October. "During the last few years, as a result of large scale epizootics, many kolkhozes not only failed to increase the number of their cattle, but actually saw it decline."

Decreases in livestock

During 1952 the numbers of livestock on Kazakh collectives fell by 10,8 per cent. Many kolkhozes, instead of increasing their herds and flocks by breeding, still resort to purchasing from individual owners. They thus waste most of the credits given to them to buy thoroughbred stud animals and to build stables and barns and improve their fodder position. Each year they lose numbers of livestock, especially cows and ewes, to the detriment of breeding programmes.

Buying cattle from peasant owners has reduced the stocks of such owners by 350,000 animals (of which 188,000 were cows) as compared with the 1940 figure; the corresponding fall in holdings of sheep was 903,000 animals. The number of peasant homesteads without a cow rose by 90,000, again as compared with 1940, and on 1st January 1953, such homesteads were 15,3 per cent of the total of peasant homesteads in the republic. The livestock position is particularly bad in the Guryev, Dzhambul and South-Kazakhstan oblasts, where 73 to 81 per cent of the peasant families have no cows, and in the Alma-Ata, East-Kazakhstan, Pavlodar and North-Kazakhstan regions, where 90 per cent of the peasant families are without sheep or goats.

The breeding position

(Cattle)

A livestock census took place in Kazakhstan during the first ten days of October 1953, when 10,000 selected officials were to register the cattle available at kolkhozes, sovkhoses and other state and cooperative farms. The census of animals owned by individual peasants, workers and others was to have been carried out by a special staff and after their enumeration, a control count was to take place over a sample of at least ten per cent of the homesteads involving the actual inspection of the animals. No results have so far been noticed in the Soviet press.

Auliye-Ata breed of cattle

As a result of a long and careful process of crossing between various types of thoroughbred stud bulls - Dutch, Frisians and others - and local cows, an improved type of large cattle called the Auliye-Ata breed has been produced in Kazakhstan. The

Auliye-Ata breed is widespread in the South-Kazakhstan and Dzhabul (formerly Auliye-Ata) oblasts, having adapted itself well to the climatic conditions prevailing in the south, and is highly productive. The main breeding and distribution centre for the animal is the state farm for pure bred cattle at Tyulkubas established in 1938. Between 1948 and 1953 the number of cattle of the breed multiplied and rose to scores of thousands throughout the republic. Thirteen subsidiary farms under the control of the main breeding centre are situated in the Tyulkubas and Dzhuvelin raions and have 7,673 head of cattle. The Auliye-Ata are now bred in 15 raions of South-Kazakhstan and Dzhabul oblasts where they represent 37.4 per cent of the cattle population. The species have much in common with the Dutch cattle of the Saratov oblast (the Engels station of pure blood cattle). The Auliye-Ata are also bred on 11 kolkhoz and four sovkhos cattle farms where they number 12,500 animals. But even so breeding of this valuable animal could be carried out more widely in the republic. Of the 12 raions of the South-Kazakhstan oblast chosen for breeding, only four - Tyulkubas, Sairam, Chimkent and Georgievsk have taken it up to any extent.

Besides the Auliye-Ata, two other new breeds of cattle evolved in Kazakhstan merit mention. They are the Kazakh Whitehead and the Ala-Tau.

The programme for 1953 envisaged a 31.8 per cent increase in the number of cattle in the kolkhozes of the republic. In fact, as Kazakhstanskaya Pravda pointed out on 2nd September, the number of animals has fallen in recent years as a result of the fall in the rate of reproduction of herds and of the "unproductive disposal of animals". While 80 calves were reared for every 100 cows in 1948, the figure for 1950 had fallen to 50 and things have not improved since then. Inadequate care and feeding and the wrong methods of milking have made this branch of animal husbandry very unproductive in Kazakhstan.

Many instances are quoted in the press. In the Balkhash raion of Alma-Ata oblast, only two of 12 cattle-breeding kolkhozes - The Stalin and Zhdanov - reached their target. In several kolkhozes the number of animals actually fell in 1953. Several of the sovkhos and M.T. stations were behind schedule in procuring hay and other fodder. In fact the expansion of livestock herds was largely dependent on the M.T. and the M.Zh. stations giving their wholehearted co-operation, and this was not always forthcoming. Most of the animals in kolkhozes of the Balkhash raion spend the winter in the open or under primitive shelters.

In the Bulayev raion, of 560 head of cattle only 180 are cows (including 30 heifers). The ratio of cows is still lower in the Vtoraya Pyatiletka, Stakhanov and Budennyi kolkhozes, in each of which only from 20 to 30 calves were obtained in 1953. In the raion 286 cows and hundreds of heifers were sent to slaughter-houses instead of oxen and at the Gigant collective farm alone, 15 cows and 10 heifers were sent for slaughter. The number of cows at the Strana Sovyetov, Karl Marx and other kolkhozes is from one third to one fourth of the set minimum. At the Strana Sovyetov livestock farm, cows and young cattle are fed with straw. At the Novyi Put kolkhoz they get only hay, six kilogrammes daily for each animal, or a fifth of the normal ration.

Milk production

On 10th October, Kazakhstanskaya Pravda published the directive of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan to those engaged in livestock farming. This set the following norms for the milking of cattle for the next two or three years : (a) in the suburban kolkhozes, 1,500 to 1,800 litres per cow per season; (b) in the livestock breeding areas, 600 to 700 litres per cow per season; (c) in other areas, 1,100 to 1,200 litres per cow per season.

In the Lenin kolhoz of the Alma-Ata raion records for 16 cows were maintained and the results, recorded in a local publication, are worth noting. On an average each cow yielded 1,228 kilogrammes of milk in the summer of 1950. Next year the same cows were given 15 to 20 kilogrammes of green fodder and three to four kilogrammes of concentrates daily, in addition to grazing, and yielded on an average 2,157 kilogrammes of milk, with 4.05 per cent fat content. Some cows produced up to 2,846 kilogrammes of milk with 4.25 per cent fat content.

But for the whole of Kazakhstan the output of milk per cow for 1953 was below the 1940 level. It was 257 litres in Guryev oblast; 456 in South-Kazakhstan; 514 in Karaganda; 354 in Kzyl-Orda and 613 in Alma-Ata. Lack of care, accommodation and food explain the low figures. To provide better shelters for cattle in the next two years it is hoped to complete stables for 1,500,000 animals.

Sheep

As with cattle, the sheep rearing situation is not satisfactory.

The sheep yielded less wool in 1952 than in 1940; 1.9 kilogrammes as against 2.4 kilogrammes per animal. Blame for this is mostly to be put on shearers for untimely and careless shearing. On the other hand, Astrakhan sheep are being raised by a number of specialized sovkhoses and kolkhozes; and some new breeds of sheep have been evolved, including the thin-fleeced Kazakh and the Kazakh Arkharo-merino sheep.

The output of first-grade Astrakhan skins increased by 9.9 per cent in 1952 as compared with 1951 in sovkhoses and by 9.1 per cent in kolkhozes. Generally the sovkhoses produce better quality skins and in the majority of the collective farms in the Kzyl-Orda oblast, only 16.7 per cent of the skins were of the first grade.

Desert into pasture land

In the sands of the Betpak-Dala desert the Kazakh section of the All-Union Agricultural Academy has created an experimental animal husbandry station. Scientists and zootechnicians are slowly pushing into the wilderness and turning it into rich pasture land. During recent years the staff of the station have explored and provided for the watering of seven routes along which half a million sheep are driven every year from South-Kazakhstan and Dzhambul oblasts to the summer grazing lands of Sary-Arki in the southern part of the Karaganda oblast. Later on they are taken south again. At the station the rearing of thin-fleeced sheep is undertaken. On an average four kilogrammes of wool are obtained from each sheep every year, but in the case of thin-fleeced sheep the figure rises to up to six kilogrammes.

Research work is also done at some kolkhozes which have been created near the station. A new settlement has appeared near the Ulan-Bel station, at which laboratories, an electric power and wireless stations are in operation. Lorries, scrapers, wind-driven generators and pumps will in time help to turn the Betpak-Dala desert into a pasture land for millions of sheep.

Mechanized shearing

Mechanized shearing is being widely adopted. Where a peasant working by hand could shear from 20 to 25 sheep a day, with electric apparatus he can now do from 50 to 60, and in some exceptional cases up to 90. Moreover the even and short shearing

increases the weight of the fleece by 120 to 180 grammes. In the Molotov kolkhoz, where about 30,000 sheep were sheared mechanically, an added 50 centners of wool were obtained.

At the Chalkudin M.Zh.S. of the Alma-Ata oblast 15 electric shearing units are available which are used to shear 88,200 sheep - an average of 6,000 sheep per machine. With six shearers at each machine, each shearing on an average 50 sheep a day, a whole flock of sheep can be sheared in ten days. The M.T. stations of the Alma-Ata oblast were given 65 additional electric shearing machines during 1953.

Coordination problems

As with all innovations, there are difficulties in seeing that mechanical equipment is properly distributed and properly maintained. The local press mentions kolkhozes where manual shearing goes on despite the provision of shearing equipment. Sheep are being sheared in the sand and in the open air, thus filling the fleece with dust and sand. Kazakhstanskaya Pravda reports that at the Lebyazhaya M.Zh.S. not one of the five electric shearing machines was repaired in time for the season. The electric-machine units at Lozovski M.Zh.S. are not used at all; and the Kaganovich, Pamyati Zhdanova, Put Sotsialisma and other kolkhozes shear sheep manually while the machines lie idle in the workshops of the M.T.S. At Aralsk M.Zh.S., in Kzyl-Orda oblast, ten sets of electric shears are lying on the wet earthen floor of a barn filled with spare parts of agricultural machinery. The machines are covered with last year's dirt and have not been greased. Of 160 shearing machines in the whole oblast, only 51 were ready for use last spring, and, though managers of M.T. and M.Zh. stations may plead the lack of spare parts, the excuse is a lame one as such spares are often found in large numbers at local stores.

The distribution of shearing machines is very uneven. The Nizhne-Talas M.Zh.S. has 24 electric shearing units to serve the needs of three kolkhozes with 35,000 sheep, so that each unit serves about 1,500 sheep. The Alakul and Dzheimbat M.T.S. serving a much greater number of animals, have only one or two machines. The mechanization of shearing generally is being carried out at an unsatisfactory pace throughout the republic, the programme for 1952 having been carried out only to the extent of 81 per cent. Things are particularly bad in the kolkhozes of the Aktyubinsk, West-Kazakhstan and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts.

The shearing situation as a whole is not very satisfactory either.

At the Pamfilov kolkhoz where 70 peasants were detailed for manual shearing, it was found that shears were only available for 12 of them, leaving the others idle. Criticisms point to a particularly unsatisfactory shearing situation in the kolkhozes of Guryev, West Kazakhstan, East-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav and Kustanai oblasts.

There is also the problem of the procurement of wool for industrial undertakings and here too there are instances of bad timing. About 60 per cent of the wool obtained is stated to be held up at the kolkhozes instead of being delivered to state stores. In the eyes of the press the blame for delays here, as well as the shortcomings of the collective farms, must be laid at the doors of the Ministry of Agriculture and Procurement and of their officials.

Plans for coming years

According to the directive issued by the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, published in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda on 10th October, the shearing norms for the next few years will be 3.5 kilogrammes of wool per sheep per shearing for fine-fleece sheep and 2.0 kilogrammes for mutton sheep. The normal weight per head has been fixed at 50 to 55 kilogrammes. The construction of barns to accommodate 10 m. sheep by the end of 1955 is also being planned.

Horses

In the current Five-Year period the number of horses is due to be raised by 10 to 12 per cent, and in the kolkhozes the increase is to be between 14 and 16 per cent, according to the decision of the 19th Congress of the Communist Party of the USSR. A considerable improvement in the breeds of horses is expected also by 1955.

Among the breeds used to improve Kazakh horses, draught-horses play an important part and various breeds of heavy draught animals have been chosen for rearing in 193 kolkhozes of the republic. In accordance with directives from the Council of Ministers of the USSR, Kazakh mares are being crossed with heavy-draught stallions. The breeding of heavy-draught horses alongside that of trotters is being recommended in rural areas.

The Institute of Animal Husbandry of the Kazakh branch of the All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences has proved that Soviet

heavy-draught horses and percherons adapt themselves well to climatic conditions in Kazakhstan. Half-breeds obtained by crossing Kazakh mares with heavy-draught stallions and reared under improved open-air conditions, are nine to twelve centimetres taller than local Kazakh horses and their bodies are seven to ten centimetres longer. They are also 40 to 50 per cent stronger.

The Kustanai horse

A new breed of horses, the Kustanai, has been raised by crossing Kazakh mares with Astrakhan stallions, and further crossing with Don, Streletz and Orlov-Rostopchin stallions. The mixed breeds thus obtained have been further crossed with thoroughbred stud animals. The resulting breed, the Kustanai, has been officially recognized as a new Soviet breed since 1951.

The Kustanai stud farm was started in 1898 with 300 Kazakh mares and 30 Kazakh stallions, all purchased at Turgai. Local mares have been crossed with Astrakhan and Don stallions since 1908. The farm, known at first as the Kustanai State Stables, was reorganized as the Kustanai Stud Farm in 1921.

The Maikul Stud Farm, started as a branch of the Kustanai Farm, was greatly expanded in 1930. Here a new method of breeding, the "cultural" herd (kulturno-tabunnyi) method, is being followed. This involves rations of hay and oats to supplement grazing in winter, the ration being from 20 to 25 centners of hay and from three to seven centners of grain for each animal per year. Animals graze in herds, grouped with their own sex and age group all the year. When pasture conditions are poor, horses get an extra three to four kilogrammes of grain daily. In winter when the weather is very severe the horses are sheltered in primitive barns. The best colts start their training at a year and a half; they are tested on the race track at two to two and a half years, and the final selection is made at three years, when the best mares and horses are entered on the pure-breed register of the farm, while the rest are sold.

Early experience has shown that horses left to graze without extra rations could not develop into big, powerful animals owing to the lack of calcium and phosphorus in pasture grass. The "cultural herd" method helps to produce a big type of animal, which in the long run is cheaper to breed than horses reared at the stables.

The Kustanai horses are strong, healthy and good workers, adapting themselves well to local climatic conditions. As already mentioned

the breed was finally evolved in the stud farms and kolkhozes of the oblast in 1951, the process being as follows:- (a) the improvement of the Kustanai horse as such under the conditions of improved open air (kulturno-tabunnyi) and the open air stables (tabunno-sarainy); (b) the crossing of selected Kazakh mares with Astrakhan stallions and the securing of mixed breeds with Don stallions; (c) crossing of Astrakhan-Kazakh and Don-Kazakh mares with half-bred charges, the Streletski and Orlov-Rastopchin stallions; (d) the crossing of the mixed breeds so obtained with thoroughbred stallions; (e) the interbreeding of half breeds of the required blood.

Camels

Camels are important in the animal husbandry of South-West Kazakhstan. In the five years before the last war their number increased by 319.8 per cent and the republic then had 60 per cent of all the camels in the USSR. There was a fall in numbers during the war, but by 1950 the pre-war figure had been overtaken. Specialized camel breeding state farms and collective farms have helped to develop camel rearing considerably in Kazakhstan.

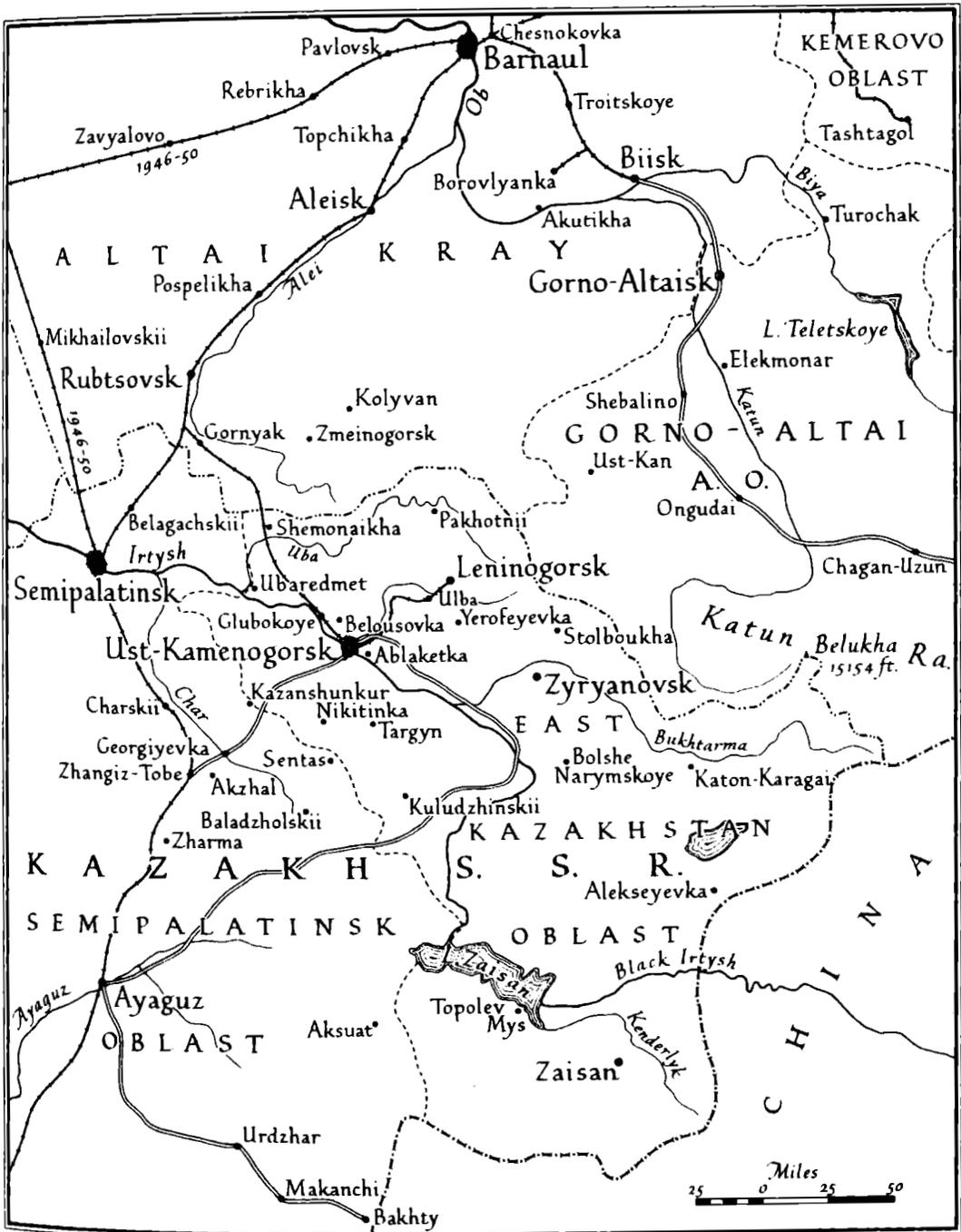
Two large breeding farms rear Bactrian, two-humped camels. The Urdinski farm raises the Kazakh breed; the Shaulderski farm raises both the Kazakh and Mongolian breeds. The value of the Bactrian camel is obvious when one considers its all-round serviceability. Besides drawing loads it yields wool, milk, meat and fat, something no other domestic animal can equal. A great many camels are used on kolkhozes and sovkhozes as pack animals to carry various commodities, to deliver foodstuffs and even to help in herding cattle and sheep. Their adaptability to grazing on desert grass enhances their value in a region which has 40 m. hectares of desert and semi-desert. As the summer grazing period in the south lasts from March to the end of November, the herds can start the winter well fattened.

But in spite of the post war efforts to rebuild herds, the rate of growth is very slow. The camels take 14 months to bear their young and suckle them for 18 months. Thus normally a camel gives birth to a calf every other year only. A step forward has been achieved at Camel Farm No. 125 where three young camels are born every four years instead of only two. The annual increase in the camel herd at this farm has reached 33 per cent. The success of the farm is ascribed to favourable grazing conditions and the attention paid to the feeding of

milch camels.

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ALTAI REGION

NEW RAILWAYS IN KAZAKHSTAN

The first main railway line to be built in the Kazakh S.S.R. was the Turkestan-Siberian trunk line - the Turksib, from Semipalatinsk to Lugovaya, 1442 kilometres in length. The line, which came into operation in 1930, ran through the eastern and south-eastern regions of Kazakhstan and made possible the wide and rapid development of production there. It also provided new interregional communications, principally with Western Siberia, which supplied Southern Kazakhstan and Central Asia with grain, wood and coal, and imported Central Asian cotton.

The so-called Trans-Kazakhstan Trunk Line is of particular economic importance among recently constructed Kazakh railways. This line, running from Petropavlovsk through Karaganda (1931) to Balkhash (1935), has a total length of 1205 kilometres, not counting the later branch-lines from Zharyk to Dzhezkazgan and Baikonur, and Dzhezkazgan to Dzhedzy (approximately 640 kilometres). The laying of the Moıntıy - Chu line (438 kilometres) was finished in 1950, and made possible the continuation of the Trans-Kazakhstan line southwards to connect with the Turksib. This done, the Trans-Kazakhstan Trunk line bisected the Kazakh S.S.R. in a southerly direction, with a length of over 1500 kilometres on the Petropavlovsk - Akmolinsk - Karaganda - Chu line. The Trunk-line connected the regions of Western Siberia, Northern, Central and Southern Kazakhstan, and also Central Asia, and assured the development of the Kazakhstan coal and non-ferrous and ferrous metallurgical industries. It provided the shortest outlet for Karaganda coal, North Kazakh wheat and Siberian timber to the Central Asian and Southern Kazakh centres of production, and opened a new route for the delivery of Central Asian and South Kazakh cotton to Central and Northern Kazakhstan and to Western Siberia. In addition, the Trans-Kazakhstan line created favourable conditions for extending cultivation in vast territories of the Republic, and shortened the distance by railway from the capital of the Republic, Alma-Ata, to the chief production centres - Karaganda, Balkhash and Dzhezkazgan - by more than 2000 kilometres.

Since the War, besides the Moıntıy - Chu line, construction has also been continued on the Akmolinsk - Pavlodar line (part of the South Siberian Trunk Line). This will have a great influence on the development of the Ekibastuz coal basin and the Boshchekul copper deposits. Besides this, the Karaganda - Akmolinsk - Kartaly railway is being double-tracked and electrified.

The present article aims at giving some account of the building of the Mointy - Chu and Akmolinsk - Pavlodar lines which have only recently been put into full operation, although their completion was originally planned for 1950.

1. THE MOINTY-CHU SECTION OF THE TURKSIB RAILWAY.

On 25th October, 1953, the correspondent of an Alma-Ata paper, writing from the newly opened station of Chiganak on the Mointy-Chu line, stated that the new Trans-Kazakhstan line had at last come into being. The line runs from Petropavlovsk in the north to Chu in the south, and the newest section meant an extension of the railways of the republic by 438 kilometres.

Reports received as early as 1946 indicate that the construction of the line had already started and stressed its importance to Kazakhstan's national economy in linking Karaganda and the Central Kazakh steppe country with the south and reducing the railway journey to Alma-Ata by 2,000 kilometres. The task was then expected to be completed by 1950.

Again, in November, 1947, there was mention in the Zheleznodorozhny Transport of the significance of the new line in linking the rich agricultural south with the northern coalfields. The paper stressed the significance of the project as an all-Union undertaking which affected the people as a whole. In that year 26,000 kolkhoz peasants were employed to lay 50,000 cubic metres of soil daily on the track bed, and in 1947 it was hoped to complete 70 kilometres of track from Chu and an equal length from Mointy.

Progress seems to have continued at a vigorous rate in 1948, to judge from press reports, especially as the summer saw kolkhoz gangs arriving in large numbers from nine oblasts of the republic. By 13th June, 3187 drafted labourers had already arrived and more were expected. From Aktyubinsk alone, 1,000 men were trekking south. In the south, others were travelling by rail, sailing down the Ili river in barges and then crossing lake Balkhash.

Progress in 1947 and 1948

From the reports on progress in 1948 it appears that in the summer of 1947, 150 kilometres of embankment had been completed and 68 kilometres of rails laid. In 1948 the target was the completion of a further 300 kilometres of embankment, an additional 105 kilometres of track and the opening of traffic for ballast trains over 173 kilometres. A total of 5,000 kolkhoz and 5,500 permanent railway

workers were to take part in the work.

It was expected that the biggest difficulties would be encountered at the time near Lake Balkhash where the line was to cross the Khan-Tau ridge. It was also expected at the time that the fishing village of Myn-Aral would be the key station of the central section; later reports indicate that Chiganak, where the completion of the entire scheme was announced last October, has become the headquarters of this important section.

Speed-up in work in 1953.

Last year there were a number of progress reports on the project, which suggest that a big speed-up had been achieved. No doubt the call from the Central Committee of the Communist Party for greater efficiency and increased output were largely responsible for the targets for January and February being more than achieved. At this time it was reported that the new settlement on Lake Balkhash for railway staff from the Chiganak Division was growing fast and larger houses were coming up rapidly. Chiganak station was already getting its finishing touches and the erection of equipment and the Diesel locomotive sheds was going ahead.

By May, the whole aspect of the Betpak-Dala desert tract near Lake Balkhash was changing. Around the key stations, like Sary-Shagan, Myn-Aral and Chiganak, well laid-out new settlements had appeared. Along the entire length of the track were to be found solid brick houses for the linemen. Permanent houses, which could stand up to the extremes of heat and cold and ensure the comfort of the tenants, were replacing the few prefabricated shacks. It was also stated at the time that the main work on the line had been completed and that provisional traffic had already started to flow to link Karaganda with the Turksib. But the permanent way had still to be strengthened with a second layer of ballast and service buildings and houses for railway staff completed.

In August it was apparent from reports that some passenger traffic had started, but facilities for the convenience of passengers were badly organized at Mointy, the terminus of the new section. The station had a water tower, but no pipes were laid on and to get water on a hot day passengers had to leave the station for the settlement. Stops at the station therefore had to be long enough for passengers to leave the building.

Opening Reports and Celebrations

The formal opening of the line was naturally marked by many detailed write-ups in the press. A commission of engineers and Central government inspectors, which had to inspect and approve the line prior to sanctioning its opening for permanent use, was full of praise for the quality of the work done. The press likewise was enthusiastic over the selection of a stretch of desert, formerly marked by only two fishing villages, as a potential site for further development. Along the desert belt trains were now passing through Sary-Shagan, Chiganak, Myn-Aral, Khan-Tau, Kiyakhty and other stations whose Diesel engine sheds and other service buildings were all provided with electricity and water. An indication of the scale of development can be found in the fact that at Sary-Shagan a school had been provided for the children of railwaymen with room for 440 pupils.

It was emphasized repeatedly in the reports issued at the time that the Mointy-Chu line was a national achievement (narodnaya stroika) and that, alongside the technical staff engaged on the project, kolkhozniki from 14 oblasts had helped in the moving of about 5 m. cubic metres of earth. (This statement clashes with the claim that there was all the mechanical equipment needed for the task and that all the back-breaking tasks were done by machinery.) Rails and sleepers were put down with the help of the Platov track-laying apparatus and Bizyaev machinery was used to transport ballast.

The rocky terrain called for much blasting and it was claimed that in one operation to shift 100,000 cubic metres of rock as much as $\frac{1}{2}$ m. kilogrammes of explosives was used. It was also claimed that "industrial" methods of construction were used wherever possible, as for instance in the erection of reinforced concrete blocks by cranes and the provision of prefabricated sections of buildings. The total amount of excavation and removal work was estimated at nine million cubic metres, while 22,500 square metres of housing were erected.

It is quite clear that during 1952-53 the construction of bridges, locomotive sheds and other buildings was greatly accelerated by the use of mechanical devices which made it possible to complete the line by the 36th Anniversary of the Revolution. Thus a three-span bridge had been put up in two and a half days using large blocks handled by cranes. Previously this would have taken two months to finish. Again, to cross the Sary-Bulak ravine, an embankment one third of a kilometre long and 18 metres high was thrown up in four months with the assistance of mechanical excavators and ten-ton Diesel trucks. The feverish tempo of activity in the closing stages of the construction had the added stimulus of competition with the builders of the Akmolinsk-Pavlodar line, also nearing completion.

at the time.

Ceremony at Chiganak

The formal opening took place at Chiganak, midway along the line, where party and government officials from Alma-Ata, Karaganda, Taldy-Kurgan, Dzhambul, Semipalatinsk and other oblast headquarters had arrived in a number of trains. Speeches were made by A. Shaiyakhmetov, then Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, and by Kucherenko, General Director (Grade II) of Track and Railway Construction. The latter said that his Commission had found the new division in excellent condition and that the buildings were very well constructed and a joy to the eye.

A ribbon was cut and a goods train drawn by a Diesel locomotive came from the direction of Myn-Aral with Karaganda coal from the Zhdanov and Gorki mines. At the same time a train approached from the south with general freight, including machinery and petrol containers from Alma-Ata for the M.T. stations north of Chiganak.

Even before these trains formally inaugurated the line hundreds of trains had already passed along the track, mostly from the north. The distance from Karaganda to Alma-Ata has been considerably reduced and Tashkent, Ashkhabad and the southern part of the Turksib line now get coal from Karaganda. A regular service of passenger trains is expected to start between Sverdlovsk, Alma-Ata and Tashkent, which would greatly improve railway communications between the Urals and Central Asia.

Problems of adaptation and training

A note of complaint is to be found in the general chorus of praise heard at the opening of the line. Some of the railway staff had not learnt how to mix the Karaganda coal they were receiving with Kuzbas coal in order to get the best results. Consequently, locomotive drivers from the Dzhambul sheds were not stoking their engines properly and trains were being slowed down. In that division there were days when timetables were kept only to the extent of eight to ten per cent.

Last November there was more emphasis on the political and party implications of the project. Its successful completion

over a period of seven years, it was again stressed, was due to the wholehearted efforts of the whole Union and of its industries and to the leadership of the Communist Party. Cranes and concrete mixers had come from the Ukraine, excavators from Voronezh, Omsk, Kostroma and Stalingrad. Dumping wagons (samosvaly) were from Moscow, Minsk and the Urals, and the impressive Diesel locomotives specially designed to operate in the Betpak-Dala desert, were built at the Kharkov locomotive workshops.

The last press report about the working of the line is dated 6th December and refers to the training of Chu Station drivers in the handling of Diesel locomotives. These drivers were drawn from the local steam locomotive brigades and 100 had already been trained, and new groups were being formed for courses.

It is too early to write of the influence of the new line on the economic life of the republic or of Central Asia as a whole. A glance at the map, as already stated, shows the great possibilities opened up. The release of technical staff engaged on this and other railway projects completed in 1953 will also make possible a start on the overhauling of the entire Kazakh railway network which it has been decided to undertake shortly.

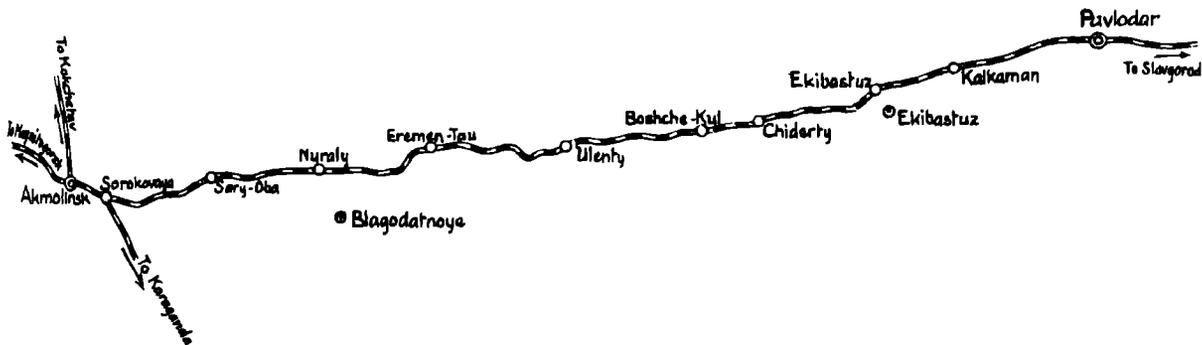
II. THE PAVLODAR - AKMOLINSK DIVISION OF THE SOUTH SIBERIAN RAILWAY

As late as June 1948 very little news of this project had appeared in the papers. Reports stated that construction to the south-west of the Irtysh was proceeding smoothly and that trains with ballast could get as far as Kalmakan. Work on the Irtysh bridge was in full swing and some of its spans were being prepared for placing in position. Eighty kilometres of track had been laid and two stations, three sidings and several water towers completed. Construction gangs on the project undertook to complete the line only as far as the Ekibastuz coalfield by 7th November 1948. They were set the extra task of completing the embankment to a distance of 14.8 kilometres by the winter.

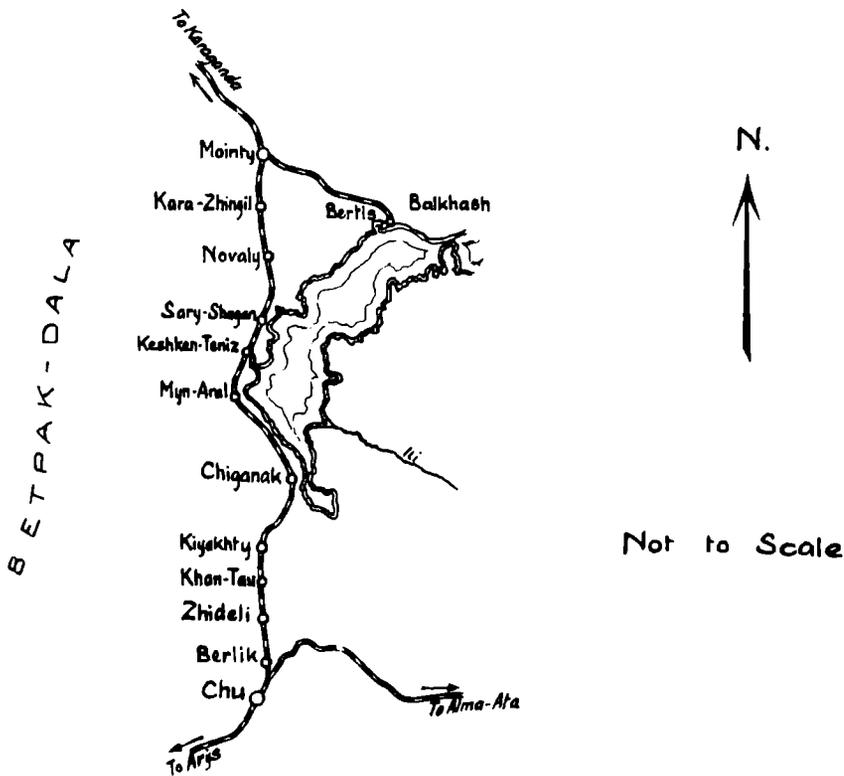
At the time, there were delays in providing ballast for the track as excavators were not fully employed, or were kept idle while only one bulldozer out of the four available was in action. Essential building materials were also short.

The neglect of welfare services for workers on the task calls for some notice. At the time the management were mainly concerned with speeding up work on the embankment and track. Little was done even at stations including Eremen-Tau, to provide service buildings or houses. At siding No.10 in the west, where the new division joined the Karaganda

Akmolinsk - Pavlodar



Mointy - Chu



railway, things were no better; only temporary shacks had been erected. Though most of the work was done in the summer, a good deal of hardship resulted from this state of affairs.

Feverish activity in 1953

The rate of building in 1953 was in striking contrast with that of 1948. The permanent kollektiv of technicians of the Stalinsko-Magnitogorsk Trunk line had decided to complete the project by the 36th Anniversary of the October Revolution; and a big speeding up of the work followed. Last June references were made to a number of more-or-less completed stations - Sary-Oba, Nuraly, Boschekul, Chuderty and Kalkaman among others - which were filling in the empty spaces on the maps of the region and would soon figure as place-names in school maps. In the first half of 1953, 20,000 square metres of new housing was scheduled for completion, as much as had been built in all the years since the project was started. A second ballasting of the track had to be carried out and there were repairs to be done where subsidence of soil had occurred. By the winter 150,000 cubic metres of ballast had to be deposited and gravel, sand and stone were being brought in by train from the Kurzhunkul and Kalkaman quarries every day. These quarries were also supplying the Kulunda-Barnaul section. There was a widespread water shortage down the line and work on dams and reservoirs had been started.

In October the kollektiv again promised to complete this section of the South Siberian line from Abakan to Akmolinsk and to have this great stretch of track opened to traffic. But there was still much to be done. By November the station buildings at Sary-Oba, Eremen-Tau, Ekibastuz, Kalkaman and Pavlodar had been completed and decorated with murals showing Kazakh national motifs.

Press comment on opening

On 11th December wide publicity was given by the press to the announcement that the central stretch of the South Siberian line was about to be opened, although its snowdrift defences and works of minor importance had not been completed. Already, it was stated, hundreds of trains had been driven over the division and the first mixed passenger and goods train had left Akmolinsk on 7th December and reached Pavlodar the next day.

On 20th December, the official opening day, many newspaper articles stressed the economic importance of the new link which connected Akmolinsk with Barnaul and Stalinsk in the East and with the Urals, and brought the two northern oblasts of Kazakhstan closer together. It was also another stage in the completion of the great line which was to take some of the load causing congestion on the Trans-Siberian line.

Kazakhstan would benefit by the linking up of production centres in the oblasts of Akmolinsk and Pavlodar. These included Ekibastus, with its coal, Boschekul, with its copper, Eremen-Tau, Kalkaman and Erkenshilik. Agriculture would be stimulated in the smaller centres by the more ample and cheap supply of oil and machinery for M.T. stations. It was said that in the first year of provisional use hundreds of freight trains had already arrived to serve Ekibastuz and take its coal to places as far off as the Urals.

Facts and figures have appeared in the papers to show the extent of the work done by the builders of the line. In all, 546 kilometres of main station and feeder lines have been laid, 200 major construction jobs carried out and hundreds of houses built. All types of excavating machinery have been used ranging from light grader-elevators and scrapers to excavators; and powerful cranes and the mechanical Flatov rail and sleeper layer have also been employed.

In crossing the Eremen-Tau ridge alone $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. cubic metres of rock had to be blown up and removed. Excavation targets were often exceeded. Difficult tasks were handled with machines to the maximum extent, the whole project being regarded as an exercise in improved methods of railroad construction.

Mention should be made of work done to assure water supplies to new stations and settlements. There were few known steady sources of water, either underground or surface, and dams and other reservoirs had to be built to store water from which mains could be laid as required. Among the dams are those across the Maidan, Ulenta and Shiderta rivers.

Development of Eremen-Tau

The growth of Eremen-Tau has aroused much enthusiasm. On 17th March 1948 the site showed no signs whatever of urban development, and the railway builders lived in tents or temporary shacks. The blasting of the ridge to prepare the site for the settlement is now being compared with the blasting of the Khan-Tau range near Lake Balkhash. As much as 67,000 cubic metres of rocky soil would be blasted with one charge. Eremen-Tau is now one of the main stations of the section. It is only a

labour settlement and not a town as yet, but it is said to have good houses, six schools, evening classes for young workmen and other educational facilities. It has even a Palace of Culture. All the development has been done by the kollektiv of the Stalinsko-Magnitogorsk Trunk line, an organization which has in the last 15 years built 2,000 kilometres of railways in Kazakhstan.

Thanks to the great drive of the past two years, the central link of the Yuzhsib (South Siberian) line is now in operation. The line has been in temporary use since 16th February 1952 when the last set of sleepers and rails was fixed in place to enable traffic to run through from Akmolinsk to Pavlodar. The effort made to get the line finished is illustrated by the figures for one construction gang. In 1949 it completed its annual task ahead of time on 25th September. In 1952 it carried out the two-year construction programme in one year. In 1953 its annual task was carried out in 68 days, the average output per excavator having been raised lately from 1,690 to 1,740 cubic metres per day.

At present there is nothing but praise for the permanent cadres and for the temporary gangs of manual labourers employed during the past six years. The line is too new to say how far it is changing the economic pattern of the republic, but the press already refers to the coal of Kuzbas, the ores of the Urals, the oil of Povolozhe, the timber of Siberia, the mineral wealth of the Altai region and the grain of Kazakhstan as being carried along the route to reach distant consumers more easily and freely and at a reduced cost.

Sources:

Central Asian Press

THE NEW DIRECTOR

A woman of severe and forbidding aspect arrived one day at the Bilikul sovkhos in the Dzhambul oblast. The next morning she appeared at the Sovkhos Ministry's Agricultural School and introduced herself as Raisa Vladimirovna Palatkina, the new director.

"Call the steward", she rapped out, and the steward duly appeared.

"Have the school car parked outside the door of my temporary quarters; I may need transport at any time".

"Certainly. I'll see to it."

"And have a supply of the best quality dung sent along too. I simply must have fuel."

It was a week later that the newly-appointed director paid her second visit to the school.

"Call the steward" her voice rang out.

The steward appeared.

"Now then, my good man, off we go to see the house where the former director lived. Is it fit to live in?"

"Most certainly. It's a new house, only built last year. It has an entrance hall, kitchen, storeroom and cow-shed".

"And which way does the verandah face?"

"I beg your pardon. Where does what face?"

"The verandah, I said".

"Why, there isn't one. The former director managed without".

"May I remind you that I am the new director". Raisa Vladimirovna's voice grew shriller. "I can't accommodate myself to the tastes of your old-so-and-so. The house must be rebuilt."

"But Raisa Vladimirovna", pleaded the steward, "How can we pull down a brand-new house? It's only been up for eight months".

"You heard me."

"But where can I get bricks and mortar, timber, stones and slates, except on a report that the house is dilapidated. Who will make out such a report?"

"Are you under the orders of a report or under mine, the director?" The question was put in a voice of steel.

In fear and trembling the steward set to work demolishing and rebuilding the house. The director saw to it that materials earmarked for the repair of the school were made available.

Appetite comes with eating and her newly acquired authority was very much to Raisa Vladimirovna's taste. Her call for the steward became a daily occurrence.

"When will she attend to the business of the school? Everything is behind" grumbled the staff.

But the school worried Raisa Vladimirovna not at all. "Steward", she announced in a tone which had become more peremptory than ever, "I am going out to recruit students, and you will come too."

The recruiting tour turned into a visit to the kolkhoz to buy wheat - a whole ton of it - and then 800 kilos more. "Steward, tell the chauffeur to take my young sister to the next village to meet her boy-friend. Steward, my mama must go for a rest cure. Make the necessary arrangements and take her there in the car."

And off went the director's mama to the rest-home in the school car, duly provided with documents showing her to be on official duty!

The overworked car soon needed an overhaul and the director was forced to exchange her seat in it for the one in her office.

The school heaved a sigh of relief; at last the director had got down to work.

But work meant administrative fireworks. Reprimands, dismissals and removals followed in rapid succession. The inspector, the secretary, the cleaners, the librarian, the chauffeur - even the steward himself - all were quickly dispersed by the redoubtable Raisa Vladimirovna.

This done she drew a deep breath and turned again to her household problems.

"Call the steward" she shouted out of habit.

"The steward has been dismissed"

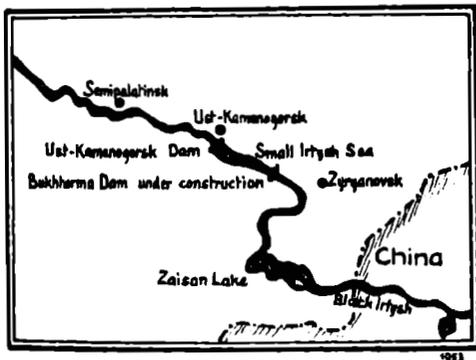
"Ah yes, so he has. But he hasn't built my chicken-coop. What will happen to my chickens?"

The teachers and students wrung their hands. What was going to happen to the school?

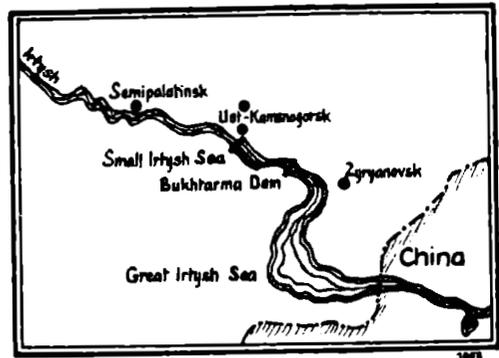
From Kazakhstanskaya Pravda. December, 1953.

THE BUKHTARMA DAM PROJECT

In the article on "Harnessing the Irtysh river" in No. 3 of Central Asian Review, reference was made to the projected Bukhtarma dam. The accompanying maps show the location of the dam, and also Lake Zaisan as it will appear when transformed into the "Great Irtysh Sea"



1. Present state of Irtysh River and Lake Zaisan.



2. As the Irtysh and Lake Zaisan will appear on completion of the Bukhtarma project.

It has been calculated that the Irtysh with all its tributaries has an annual electric potential of 6 m. kilowatts. The Bukhtarma project, like the Ust-Kamenogorsk, is thus part of a plan to utilize some of this power.

According to "Vokrug Sveta", the site of the dam is a narrow mountain gorge near the confluence of the Bukhtarma with the Irtysh some 80 kilometres up-stream from Ust-Kamenogorsk. An under-water rock cleared of thick alluvial deposits - a mixture of pebbles and sand - is to serve as a foundation. During construction the river will be separated by temporary dykes and the concrete dam built in two stages. When completed it will rise to a height of 90 metres and beyond it will stretch the so-called Great Irtysh Sea. This is expected to be considerably larger than the Tsimlyanskoe Sea of the Volga-Don Canal Project and, although no precise figures are yet available, it is estimated that it will be about

500 kilometres long and from 30 to 40 kilometres wide. The water level will be 10 metres higher than that of the old Lake Zaisan.

When completed the Bukhtarma dam should create a water reservoir extending from the dam to the estuary of the Black Irtysh. This, it is claimed, will make it possible to regulate the entire course of the Irtysh, eliminate shoals and rapids and ensure the wanted depth all along the river.

Sources:

Morze. No. 11, 1953, pp. 16 - 17.

Vokrug Sveta. No. 10, October 1953, pp. 15 - 16.

Kazakhstan. Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Moscow 1950.



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
Kazakhstan

The area covered in this Review embraces the five S.S.R. of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan. According to Soviet classification "Central Asia" (Srednyaya Aziya) comprises only the first four of these, Kazakhstan being regarded as a separate area.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with
St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group

PRICE · SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. II, No. 2

1954

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Lt. Colonel G. E. Wheeler, 66B King's Road, London, S.W.3. and Mr. D. J. Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

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+ The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW is published quarterly by the Central
+ Asian Research Centre in association with the Soviet Affairs
+ Study Group of St. Antony's College, Oxford. It aims at
+ presenting a coherent and objective picture of current political,
+ social and material developments in the five Soviet Socialist
+ Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and
+ Kazakhstan as they are reflected in Soviet publications.
+

+ The selection of material is designed to represent positive
+ achievements and shortcomings in the same proportion and with
+ the same degree of emphasis as they are represented in the
+ Soviet press and other Soviet publications. Explanations and
+ background material are added where these seem to be necessary.
+

+ The Review is normally divided into six sections, one for
+ each republic and one containing articles of a more general
+ scope. Each of the five sections dealing with the republics
+ contains material arranged under one or more of the following
+ headings: Agriculture, Industry, Communications, Public Works
+ and Services, and Political and Cultural Affairs. Subjects are
+ only treated when a sufficient amount of relevant material is
+ available.
+

+ The maps of the five republics and the Fergana Valley have
+ been specially drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre by
+ the Royal Geographical Society whose assistance is gratefully
+ acknowledged. These maps have been to some extent based on
+ those contained in Shabad's Geography of the USSR, but additional
+ details and some alterations have been incorporated.
+

+ The spelling of place-names corresponds in general with
+ the system followed in Phillips Record Atlas (1952 Edition),
+ namely, an approximate transliteration from the original Russian
+ used in Soviet maps.
+

+ The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post
+ free. The price of single copies is Seven Shillings and
+ Sixpence.
+

+ Distributing Agents:
+

+ Messrs. Luzac & Co. Ltd.,
+ 46, Great Russell Street,
+ London, W.C.1.
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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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G E O G R A P H I C A L A N D P E R S O N A L
N A M E S I N C E N T R A L A S I A

Among the problems confronting the student of current affairs in Central Asia are those raised by the etymology and orthography of geographical and personal names. The first of these problems is largely academic, although not without interest; but the second one is of practical importance and one moreover whose solution presents grave difficulties.

Etymology

As in most countries, place-names in Central Asia consist partly of words belonging to indigenous languages, and therefore readily understood by the people, and partly of foreign words introduced as a result of successive conquests and settlements. In Central Asia native words belong either to the Turkic languages at present spoken in Central Asia or to Tadjik (an Iranian language) in the part of Tadjikistan inhabited by Tadjik-speaking Tadjiks. Foreign words are of Arabic, Persian, and to a much smaller extent, Russian, Chinese and Mongolian origin. To the Turkic population of Central Asia Turkic place-names are as intelligible as the meaning of the name Newmarket is intelligible to the English. The same holds good for the intelligibility of purely Persian names to the Tadjiks. Many of the Turkic geographical names are highly graphic and descriptive, such as the island of Barsa-Kelmes in the Aral Sea, which means literally "if he arrives he will not return", suggesting that it was once barren or perhaps a leper settlement. The number of Central Asian place-names which have no meaning, or defy derivation, is exceedingly small, examples being the ancient towns of Bukhara and Urgench. Arabic and Persian place-names are particularly common in the four southern republics, but much less so in Kazakhstan.

Hybrid place-names composed of Arabic and Persian, Russian and Persian, or Arabic and Turkic words are common. Examples are Dzhalalabad, Stalinabad and Mirzachul.

A certain number of places have been renamed, for reasons which are not always apparent. Well-known Russian or other Soviet personalities have been introduced into the names of such places as Leninabad, Frunze and Kirovabad, but the only important place whose name has been replaced by that of an indigenous notable is the former Aulie-Ata which is now called Dzhambul after the Kazakh poet. Otherwise, all new names appear to be of Russian or Soviet origin, and

some of them such as Ordzhonikidzeabad (a Georgian name combined with a Persian word) must be extremely difficult for the local people to pronounce. It is perhaps surprising that some Russian pre-revolutionary place-names with a strong religious significance such as Petropavlovsk have escaped replacement.

Place-names of purely Mongolian origin are a rarity, one of the very few being Zaisan. The following Mongolian words are, however, found in combination with words from other languages:- Dava - pass, gol - river, nur - lake, ula (or ul)- mountain, ulan - red. Place-names of Chinese origin are even more uncommon, the only important one being Tien Shan.

The etymology of personal names presents several interesting features. All over the Muslim world children born into families professing Islam are traditionally given a Muslim, i.e. Arabic, name at birth. Outside the USSR this is probable still de rigueur, although in Turkey and Persia, pre-Islamic names are sometimes adopted later. How far the tradition is still followed in Central Asia cannot be said with precision, but Muslim first and family names are still extremely common in the republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan, and to a smaller extent in Kirgizia and Kazakhstan. Until recently, as elsewhere in the Muslim East, family names were a rarity in Central Asia, those used being usually russianized forms of Muslim, or less often of Turkic names. Family names are now insisted upon all over the Soviet Union, and in Central Asia they almost invariably have a russianized form, e.g. Usmankhodzhaev. Except in Kazakhstan and Kirgizia, Muslim family names of Arabic origin are more common than those of Turkic origin, the latter being russianized in the same way as Muslim names, e.g. Turgumbaev. It is remarkable that, generally speaking, family names of unmistakably Muslim origin are far more common in Central Asia than in Turkey, where they are now virtually non-existent. In Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan patronymics are sometimes found and, in the first two, are often formed with the Persian word zade, meaning "son of". But among professing Muslims the use of a single Muslim first name is more usual; in fact, the possession of one first name or initial rather than two is a fairly sure way of telling whether the owner is a professing Muslim of Central Asia, or is a Soviet citizen of Muslim origin who has become russianized or prefers to appear so. It should be remembered that many Tatars who have been russianized for many generations still have easily discernible Muslim names, for example, Hakimov, or the late composer whose name is usually spelt Rachmaninoff.

The orthography of Central Asian names

The establishment of a satisfactory and consistent system of spelling Central Asian names is complicated by a number of circumstances. The

comprehensive and systematic cartography of Central Asia may be said to date from the Russian conquest in the last half of the nineteenth century. At that time the distinction between phonetic transcription and transliteration was not so finely drawn as it is today, at any rate by the Russian cartographers, who adopted a mixture of these two systems. Western cartographers, who presumably derived most of their information from Russian maps, transliterated many, if not most, of the Turkic place-names from the Russian spelling; but they usually preferred to spell familiar Arabic and Persian names as they were spelt in contemporary maps of adjacent countries such as Persia and Afghanistan. But even here there were many inconsistencies: pre-revolutionary Russian cartographers invariably spelt as Askhabad the Arabic-Persian hybrid 'Ishqabad, and this spelling was followed by French and British cartographers until recently. On the other hand, Russian cartographers sometimes, but not always, preferred to represent the long Persian 'a'-sound by 'o' as in Obigarm (hot water), whereas Western cartographers preferred Ab-i-garm. The variations in the British, French and German systems of transcribing Arabic, Persian and Turkic names are of course a well-known phenomenon and need not be enlarged upon here.

Since the Revolution, and particularly since the adoption of modified forms of the Cyrillic alphabet for the Turkic languages of Central Asia and for Tadzhik, the matter has become still more complicated. Soviet cartographers still follow a kind of compromise between phonetic transcription and transliteration, but they have changed the spelling of many place-names ostensibly to conform more closely to the native pronunciation. They even attempt to represent the phonetic variations in the pronunciation of etymologically identical words in the different Republics. Not only, however, have they not worked out any system of transliteration into ordinary Cyrillic of the special letters used in the various languages, but they are inclined to use several different spellings of the same word within one republic or linguistic area. For example, the Turkic word kyzyl (red), as it was spelt by pre-revolutionary cartographers, is now spelt and pronounced differently in the Uzbek, Kirgiz, Kazakh, Karakalpak and Turkmen languages. Soviet cartographers spell this word in various ways, but they have no means of representing the back 'k' used in Uzbek, Kazakh and Karakalpak, and for some reason they ignore the initial 'g' used in Turkmen. In one Soviet map of Kirgizia this word is variously spelt kzyl, kizyl, and kyzyl. The same inconsistency is observable in the spelling of Tadzhik names. In the Cyrillic Tadzhik orthography, the letter 'o' is always used to represent the long Persian 'a'-sound; thus, Stalinabad is written in Tadzhik Stalinobod. But Soviet cartographers use this letter quite indiscriminately; they ignore it in Stalinabad and in other place-names ending in the Persian abad, but they use khodzhi, imon and bolo for the Arabic words hajji (pilgrim), imam (prayer-leader), and for the Persian bala (upper). Such inconsistency and lack of system clearly

renders the work of transliteration very difficult for Western cartographers.

It must be admitted, however, that the problem confronting Soviet cartographers is a very hard one. The devising of a system of transliteration into normal Cyrillic of the many additional symbols used to represent special sounds in the Central Asia languages would present almost insuperable difficulties. The establishment of a broad principle of phonetic transcription would also be far from easy. It would, for instance, be awkward and confusing to have such common suffixes as the Persian abad spelt in different ways according to the way it was pronounced in different localities. The removal of inconsistency in spelling in any one area is no doubt under consideration, but it would involve a great deal of re-printing.

It has so far not been possible to establish whether atlases and geography books used in schools where Central Asian languages are the medium of education adopt the all-Union system of spelling of geographical names or whether they are spelt according to the orthography and phonetics of the language concerned. With the emphasis laid by the Soviet authorities on the elaboration of native languages and on their use in education, it would be extraordinary if the people were not encouraged to develop distinctive systems of toponymy. In native language publications other than atlases and geography books the native spellings of place-names are always followed, and these often differ markedly from the all-Union spellings. Thus, the native spelling of towns appearing on all-Union maps as Akmolinsk, Talass, Ashkhabad and Kizyl-Arvat is Akmole, Talas, Ashgabad and Gyzyarbat. The reason for these discrepancies is by no means clear.

In the circumstances briefly outlined above it is obviously difficult to devise a practical and consistent system of spelling modern Central Asian names. The system so far followed in Central Asian Review is broadly speaking that worked out by the Permanent Committee for Geographical Names for the USSR as a whole. In two respects, however, it has been found expedient to deviate from it. The P.C.G.N. uses 'y' to represent both the Russian letters я and ы. The frequency with which these letters occur in Central Asian names makes it necessary to distinguish between them by using 'i' for я and 'y' for ы.

The use of the soft sign 'b' in Central Asia names is relatively infrequent and its representation as (') in material which deals with Islamic history is liable to result in confusion because of the still common use of (') for the Arabic letters ain and hamza. It has therefore been found advisable to omit the soft sign from transliteration. Where, however, the soft sign in a Russian place-name is followed by 'e' the latter is written as 'ye', e.g. Guryev.

Although the principle of systematic transliteration from Russian is adhered to as far as possible, some relaxation of the principle is

occasionally necessary. The exact transliteration from the Russian spelling of certain Turkic place-names would be misleading. Thus the more familiar spelling of Yolatan and Yomud are preferable to the more accurate Iolatan and Iomud. Similarly, very common Islamic names occurring in historical material are spelt in one of the accepted English ways; e.g. Muhammad rather than Mokhamed.

For the practical purpose of research into current developments in Central Asia transliteration from Soviet spellings is less liable to cause confusion than the use of any system which involves individual taste, and which thus frequently results in a combination of several systems. The system of symbol-by-symbol transliteration advocated by the Permanent Committee for Geographical Names is probably the best in the circumstances, but it is bound to result in the perpetuation of Soviet inconsistencies and mistakes. The adoption of the P.C.G.N. system is by no means universal among Western writers on Central Asia, some of whom prefer to use systems of transliteration or phonetic transcription which are quite unrelated to pre-revolutionary or Soviet systems of spelling. It is noteworthy, however, that what they seem to regard as phonetic transcription of place-names relates to Western Turkish or Persian pronunciation rather than to the pronunciation used by the native population of Central Asia.

This preference for older and more familiar spellings of Muslim names should not be ignored. There is, indeed, a strong case for preserving traditional spellings in works in English dealing with the pre-revolutionary history of Central Asia. There is a wealth of English writing on this subject as well as on Islamic history in general, and the sudden introduction of such bizarre spellings as TadzhiK for Tajik would be irksome, not to say confusing. But in publications like the Central Asian Review, which deal principally with current developments, the advantage of being able to relate transliterated place-names to the original spelling adopted on Soviet maps seems to outweigh other considerations.

SAVINGS AND SPENDING HABITS - NEW LIGHT ON LIVING STANDARDS

Personal savings and the savings bank network play an important part in the economy of the USSR. In the words of Professor Rovinskii author of Finansovaya Sistema SSSR, "The purpose of the State Working Savings Banks of the USSR is to provide the population with safe custody for their savings and to enable them to proceed with financial operations; to contribute to the accumulation of savings and to the utilization of these in the interests of the development of the national economy." The savings banks work closely with the State Bank and are to a certain extent financed by the State budget; fifty per cent of the net profits of the savings banks go to the State budget, while the remainder is kept as a reserve fund. Once this reserve fund has reached five per cent of the total net deposits held at the savings banks, all the remaining net profit goes to the State budget. As an integral part of the economy of the USSR, the savings banks are subject to strict planning and the total amount of deposits to be obtained by each branch is fixed in advance for every year. But there are complaints, for instance in Finansy i Kredit No. 3 of 1953, that these quotas are frequently not achieved in practice.

There appear to be three types of deposit at savings banks: the current account paying three per cent interest, the deposit account paying five per cent interest on money held for not less than six months, and the "lottery" deposit. An advertisement which appeared recently in Kommunist Tadzhikistana explains the advantages of the lottery deposit:

"Sure, profitable, convenient! Put your money in the savings bank! Savings banks accept lottery deposits. Payment on lottery deposits is made in the form of money won in the lottery draw held twice yearly. At each draw, out of every thousand books, twenty-five win a prize. Of these, one prize is worth 200 per cent, two are worth 100 per cent and twenty-two - 50 per cent of the average amount of the deposit held in a lottery savings book for six months. Bring your deposits to the savings banks!"

The advantages of the savings banks are open to every citizen, whether he is of age or not. The amount of the deposit and the time for which it is made are limitless, though the first deposit must not be less than five rubles. Savings banks fully refund the deposits entrusted to them at the first demand, and in the meantime they provide their client with a number of services such as the transfer of sums to other savings banks, the issuing of letters of credit, payment of municipal services (rents, electricity, gas, telephone, etc.), the purchase of State bonds, and other banking operations. This income obtained from a savings bank account is free of tax and death duties for the heirs of the deceased client.

Expansion in the savings bank network

Throughout Central Asia the savings bank network is expanding, the number of depositors is rising, and new branches are being opened. In January of this year it was stated that Kazakhstan had in all 1615 savings bank branches. New branches were recently opened at Temir-Tau at the workers settlement near the No. 47 coal mine and in other areas where the population was on the increase. From Kirgizia, too, come reports of new branches opened during 1953, and in Uzbekistan a savings bank opened at a kolkhoz in the Kashka-Darya oblast last December was claimed to be the thirtieth new branch to be opened during 1953 - a fair indication of the rate of expansion. During 1954 it is further planned to open twenty-seven new branches in Uzbekistan.

Kazakhstan has now 703,000 depositors, of whom 142,000 joined during the course of 1953. A report in June of last year claimed that compared with the figure for 1949, the number of depositors had increased fivefold, and that, in the mining district of Karaganda alone there were by then 42,675 depositors. In Kirgizia, the increase in the number of depositors in the post-war years has been over 77,000, and the first ten months of 1953 saw over 8,000 new savings banks accounts in the Frunze oblast alone, while in the Tien Shan oblast the number of accounts has grown by 150 per cent. There are also reports of increases from both Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan, while the most striking figures come from Uzbekistan, where, during the course of 1953, 38,000 new accounts were opened in the city of Tashkent alone.

Deposit and interest payments

Correspondingly, amounts on deposit also increased greatly during 1953. In Kazakhstan there were fresh deposits totalling 217 m. rubles during the year, and on 1st January 1954 the total deposited represented a fivefold increase over that of 1940. The share of the mining districts in the savings movement is reflected in the total figure for deposits in Karaganda, which came to 55 m. rubles. The Kurdai raion showed that the rural areas were doing well too, the increased total being 1,203,000 rubles, while the Aktyubinsk oblast, raised its savings total by 11 m. rubles. It is significant that the average balance per depositor for the whole of Kazakhstan rose from 880 rubles in January 1949 to 1,070 rubles at present.

The savings drive in Uzbekistan led to a big increase in the total deposits which on 1st May 1953 stood at 18.8 per cent above the figure for 1951 and represented a threefold rise since 1940. The increases had varied in different areas. In Fergana, Andizhan and Samarkand oblasts the rise in 28 months was just under 50 per cent; in Bukhara and Namangan it was just over 50 per cent.

There are fewer figures from Kirgizia, but it is known that, in ten months during 1953, the total amount of money on deposit in Frunze oblast had doubled. In the Tien Shan oblast it had increased by 50 per cent in six months. In the Kalinin raion of Frunze oblast the actual increase was two million rubles. In Tadzhikistan, deposits in the first five months of 1953 rose to a figure of 24 m. rubles above that of 1952, Kulyab oblast being responsible for four million rubles. Stalinabad had a rise of eight million rubles, not a remarkable figure for the capital of the republic. The town and raion of Kurgan-Tyube registered an increase of 1.5 m. In Turkenistan a marked growth was recorded in the second quarter of 1953. By 1st June the total was 2.25 m. rubles more than the corresponding figure for 1952.

Apart from dealing with the various kinds of savings accounts, savings banks carry out many transactions in State bonds and State lottery bonds. Holders of the lottery bonds, besides receiving three per cent interest, stand the chance of winning large sums in the yearly lottery draws. In Kazakhstan, demands for bonds have been especially brisk: in 1952 sales amounted to 12.8 m. rubles while in 1953 they rose to 21.8m. rubles. In January 1953 the Kazakh press stated that during the past year 180 m. rubles had been paid out in lottery winnings, which represented an increase of 71 m. rubles over the total paid out in 1951. In 1952, 18 m. rubles was paid out as interest on bonds. In the Aktyubinsk oblast alone, State bond holders had received over 12 m. rubles in lottery winnings, while over the same period holders of savings accounts in the same oblast received 740,000 rubles in interest and lottery winnings.

In Turkmenistan, during the period of the fourth Five-Year Plan, (1946-50), holders of State bonds, received $116\frac{1}{2}$ m. rubles in lottery winnings. It appears that the amount of money paid out in winnings is still rising, for in only the first five months of 1953, bond holders received over 25 m. rubles. The figures for Kirgizia are less startling: over the last two years only seven million rubles in all have been paid out in interest and lottery winnings. In Uzbekistan, it is claimed, that since the war, 5600 m. rubles worth of State bonds have been sold. Lottery winnings for 1952 alone reached a total of 184 m. rubles, and for the past three years - 408 m. rubles. These remarkable figures are an indication of the popularity of the lottery system; though the winnings and interest paid on the various bonds and savings accounts may not always be encashed - which may in part account for the increase in the amounts invested - yet they tend to show that much more ready money is in circulation.

Earnings in industry

The press of Central Asia maintains that, since 1951, the average wages of workers have risen every year and, since rent and basic needs are not high, there is more money either to spend on supplementary commodities when these are available, or to put in savings banks, as the public is so often urged to do.

An article published in April 1954 in Kirgizia ascribes increased costs in industry to the provision of increased wages for the workers. A one per cent rise in wage rates would mean millions of rubles to be found. Some concerns in Kirgizia, including the Frunze Cloth and Cotton Spinning Mills and the Dzhalsalabad Motor Repair Workshops, did not exceed the estimated amounts for their wage bills for the last quarter of 1953. But the Frunze Hemp and Jute Mills in the same quarter had exceeded estimates by one million rubles through unjustified overtime work.

Workers often receive allowances and additions over and above basic wages. For instance in 1953 these extras totalled 58 m. rubles in the Karaganda mines, 20 m. rubles in Rudni Altai and 8 m. rubles in the Kazakhstanneft oil fields.

In Tadzhikistan, at the Stalinabad Textile Kombinat, about 80 per cent of the workers had earnings which ranged up to 700 rubles a month, ten per cent ranged from 700 to 1,500 rubles and the remaining ten per cent received over the latter figure. Overtime payments at progressively increasing rates totalled 3 m. rubles.

Earnings in agriculture

More impressive than the rise in industrial earnings is the rise in earnings in agriculture. In particular, among the kolkhozniks of the cotton belt and other industrial crop-growing areas, where mechanization has been applied on a large scale, the growing prosperity is remarkable. An increasing number of kolkhozes are in the "millionaire" class, i.e. have incomes of over a million rubles, and in some raions all kolkhozes are "millionaires". Increases, in earnings, however, vary according to such factors as soil conditions, help received from MTS, the efficiency of the kolkhoz chairman and so on. For example, it is interesting to note that the cost prices at some rigidly controlled sovkhos estates are higher than delivery prices from kolkhozes. Again, an example of how even under similar soil and climatic conditions, different estates reach different levels of productivity is provided by comparing the Karl Marx with the Krupskaya kolkhoz, both in the Stalin raion of Frunze oblast; the outputs of milk, meat and wool per hundred hectares at the first named estate were respectively 2.1, 3.6 and 1.6 times as great as the outputs of the other;

in 1952 the Karl Marx earned 256 rubles per hectare, while the Krupskaya earned a mere 70 rubles. These differences can be ascribed to the backwardness of the Krupskaya kolkhoz and the inadequate scale on which it has been enlarged and its economy overhauled.

A few specific instances will show how average daily payments to kolkhozniks have risen in recent years. In Uzbekistan, the Dzhertzinskii kolkhoz of the Begovat raion was rather backward; in 1952 its kolkhozniks earned only seven rubles and $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilos of wheat per day. This rose to nine rubles and three kilos last year, and there have been further rapid improvements since. The Stalin "millionaire" kolkhoz in the Karshi raion in 1952 paid its hands 11.45 rubles and four kilos of grain per day; last year it earned in all 8.2 m. rubles. The Bolshevik kolkhoz in the same raion was another "millionaire" collective farm, earning over eight million rubles last year, while its kolkhozniks earned the high wages of nineteen rubles a day plus three kilos of grain as well as other necessities not easy to obtain in the shops.

The earnings of kolkhozes could be still further improved, it is claimed, if certain malpractices were eradicated. One of these is the failure to pay in the sums due to the "indivisible fund" held in the State bank account of the kolkhoz. This is a levy of 15 to 20 per cent on the gross earnings of the kolkhoz which is intended for use in improving the farm. Bad accounting, slackness in collecting receipts, and a propensity for cash sales are responsible for a good deal of leakage from farm accounts. Besides which the money is often not spent according to regulations. As a result many kolkhozes find themselves in debt to the State bank; in one raion of East Kazakhstan, only 183,000 rubles out of receipts totalling 736,000 rubles were paid into the bank.

Some individual kolkhoz members have shown excellent earnings and mention might be made of two chaban or herdsman families of the Krasnoe Znamya kolkhoz in Kazakhstan. One chaban received three tons of grain and 3,000 rubles at the start of the season and was later given eleven sheep. By the end of 1953 his family had earned 21,200 rubles. The second family earned 16,000 rubles.

Supply of consumer goods

In some of the newer towns there is a big development of the shop net-work. Temir-Tau and Ekibastuz are cases in point. The former city has 117 trading centres with a turnover in 1953 of 100 m. rubles. The sixth successive fall in consumer goods price levels led to a big spurt in sales in Ekibastuz. Shops in the mining city registered 700,000 more sales in April 1953 than in March. The demand for motor-cycles, cycles, radios and other articles led to the opening of five new and well-stocked stores.

Distribution, however, does not seem to be evenly adjusted everywhere to meet the needs of consumers. Even in a capital city like Frunze, where turnovers are stated to be above target figures, only the larger emporiums in the heart of the city are working satisfactorily. The smaller shops and stalls in the suburban areas are much behind their targets, and the distribution of goods over the whole trading network is unsatisfactory, being carried out in an unintelligent and mechanical manner so that stocks for which no demand exists are piling up in many branches.

In Uzbekistan last July it was stated that the trading network had not taken goods to the value of 100 m. rubles from the Ministry of Trade supply bases; as a result many essentials could not be supplied to the public. The Ministry's stocks included unsold or unsaleable goods worth over 1 milliard rubles. The reason for this was probably that much material was sent to Bukhara, Khorezm, Surkhan Darya and other raions without reference to local needs.

In 1952, the Namangan oblastpotrebsoyuz (i.e. oblast consumers' co-operative) of Uzbekistan failed to deliver 43 m. rubles worth of consumer goods required by its rural network, although its supply bases had ~~surpluses~~ to the extent of 84 m. rubles. One problem in the selection and ordering of goods is that much had to be done orally as over 300 salesmen are semi-literate.

The situation of surpluses amid scarcity is evident elsewhere. Supply bases in the Kashka-Darya oblast were overstocked with vegetable oils; in the Dekhan-Abad raipotrebsoyuz (i.e. raion consumers co-operative) these could only be bought in limited quantities. Tashkent has plenty of costly and showy furniture in shops where children's cots, bookshelves and plain kitchen tables are unobtainable. Amateur photographers in Samarkand have to go to Tashkent to buy developing chemicals. In the oktyabr raion of Tashkent, local cafes and restaurants cannot serve national specialities: pilau cannot be made without carrots and carrots are not available. In the whole of this raion, there are only six communal eating-rooms, providing a mere 6,000 meals a day. In some places of the Andizhan oblast, there is often an acute shortage of salt, paraffin, soap and matches.

In Kazakhstan, trading concerns held surplus stocks worth over 500 m. rubles which could have been disposed of by better distribution. To some parts of the Kustanai oblast no deliveries at all were made between November 1952 and May 1953. Yet cases are recorded where felt boots (valenki) were sent from Uralsk to Semipalatinsk, while similar boots manufactured in Semipalatinsk were sent for distribution to Uralsk. In Karaganda, of 600 catalogue items, **only 320** are available in the shops.

Reports from Kirgizia bear out the general tale of lack of coordination in the distribution of supplies. The case of the Textiltorg which brought into the town of Tashkumyr during winter a supply of light materials and dresses suitable for summer wear might be mentioned. This town, an important mining centre, reported a shortage of fish in winter and a surplus in summer. In the Panfilov raion not a single shop comes up to the standard set by the regulations: storage is faulty, sugar being stored next to oil, and teal alongside of tobacco and cigarettes. Not infrequently from other districts of Kirgizia come reports of shortages of salt, flour, sugar and other necessities.

Complaints are also heard from many other districts of very poor quality goods: rubber-soled shoes for women, which cost 81 to 93 rubles and shed their heels and even their soles after a few days are said to have been sold by the Tashkent Gorpromkombinat (i.e. Town Trading Kombinat). Children's shoes are a difficult item and stocks of shoes pile up quickly, as people will not buy shoddy or out-of-season wear.

People in out-of-the-way spots often have very little alternative to banking their money. Movable store wagons are the markets at which people of small railway stations do their buying, and often these sell out all their supplies of the more attractive lines at the first station they visit and have nothing to offer at the end of their journey. In one case, at Ush-Tobe, commodities in great demand were sold to friends of the staff even before the wagon left its base. In some of the more distant stations paraffin is not to be had for six months at a time. The chabans, who live in the remote highlands, are badly provided for and find themselves cut off from all sources of supply for long periods when they leave for their pasture lands. They are often unable to spend even a fraction of their earnings on essentials like tea and sugar.

Savings and prosperity

The Central Asian press steadfastly maintains that the expansion of the savings bank network is an index of growing prosperity; it is emphatic that the real wages of the people of five republics, their realnaya zarabotnaya plata, and especially the income of kolkhozniks, have risen. It is claimed that the savings movement, besides being an important factor in the national economy, is of real benefit to the population. For instance, in the Talass raion, where the number of holders of savings bank accounts has gone up sevenfold in ten years, workers, with the money they have saved, have been able to go in for cars, radios and other expensive acquisitions. One depositor even saved enough to buy a house for himself, while others bought carpets, furniture and

other luxuries.

Although reports come in from many parts of Central Asia and Kazakhstan of the opening of new shops, eating-houses and other places at which the workers can spend their money - yet it is significant that despite these new facilities for spending their savings, the workers seem to have kept their bank deposits at a high level and even increased them. And yet, these savings cannot be altogether explained as part of an austerity regime; at the Third Session of the Soviet of the Alma-Ata oblast it was claimed that in the first six months of 1953 there was something like a spending spree. Sales were higher than in the same period of 1952. The rise was over 100 per cent for motor-cycles and cycles, 64.6 per cent for confectionery, 53 per cent for cereals, over 100 per cent for sugar and fine-grade flour, 30 per cent for cotton fabrics, 29.7 per cent for macaroni and 23.2 per cent for fish products.

Again in Tashkent the central Glavunivermag recorded sales exceeding 290 m. rubles in 1952, surpassing its sales target. Sales in April 1953 were ten times the value of those for March, and the week before Christmas saw sales of over eight million rubles -- pointers perhaps to seasonal holiday buying. During 1952 this big store sold 17,000 watches, 6,000 radios, 1,300 gramophones, 1,500 motor-cycles and cycles, about 1,000 cameras, carpets worth over four million rubles, and woollen and silk fabrics worth fifty million rubles.

Though it appears that in some places the trading network is satisfying the demands of its customers, the majority of reports show that in many parts proper shopping facilities are still lacking, faulty distribution prevents people from obtaining the things they need, and even when goods are available, their quality only too often leave much to be desired. The success of the savings movement, in spite of the claimed improvement in the supply of commodities which might be expected to absorb the generally increased earnings, can be attributed to the desire on the part of the population to resist buying shoddy articles and to put aside their money until consumer goods are available in greater quantity and better quality.

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THE PUBLISHING, PRINTING AND DISTRIBUTION OF BOOKS

The remarkable increase in book production in Central Asia and Kazakhstan affords a striking indication of the increase in literacy. Although there is a large non-native element in the population and although the proportion of books in Russian to those in the native languages cannot be established with precision, it seems likely that the latter constitute the great majority. However, a very large part of the books published in the native languages seem to be translations from Russian or other Soviet originals, including political and technical works, and masterpieces of Russian literature.

Publishing, printing and production

At no previous time has the publishing and circulation of books in the Central Asian republics been carried out on so large a scale as at present.

In Tadzhikistan, it was planned in January 1953 to bring out sixty-five books on social, economic and so-called "mass-political" subjects, as well as the third volume of Aini's memoirs, a reprint of his novel "The Slaves", a new novel by Ulug Zade and a number of poetical works by Tursun Zade, Dekhoti and others. A new almanac, "Literary Tadzhikistan" has made its appearance after being delayed for two years in publication.

The conditions under which books are produced, however, appear still to be far from satisfactory. For instance, the machinery of the Stalinabad Polygraphic Press Kombinat, where most of the printing resources of the republic are concentrated, is inadequate; the printing workshops are too small and type has deteriorated through over-long use without renovation; the staff of the lithographic section still use stone, to which they are accustomed, instead of zinc. The low level of discipline among workers is said to be affecting both the quality and the quantity of output, and indeed the general standard of book production is such that whole pages of a handbook on the all-Union Constitution can only be read with difficulty, while whole sections of a school textbook on literature are missing from another Tadzhik publication.

In Turkmenistan, 2,462,000 copies of books and magazines were issued in 1952, and in September 1953 it was proposed to increase this to over four million copies. Here again, defects in production are evident, and last-minute corrections often have to be made in books already awaiting distribution. For instance, after an apparently thorough proof-reading,

twenty-nine printing errors were discovered in Azhaev's novel "Far from Moscow".

Kazakh printing presses turned out twelve million copies of books, pamphlets and school texts in 1952, and in 1953 the output of the Kazakh State Publishing House alone was to have reached six million copies. It was stated in March of that year that 193 books with a total impression of almost four million would soon be published. These would include certain Russian classics, - a new six volume edition of Gogol, four volumes of Pushkin, Tolstoi's "Anna Karenina" and Turgenev's "Fathers and Sons", as well as books by Soviet authors such as Alexei Tolstoi's "Peter the First", Fadeev's "The Young Guard" and Nikolaeva's "Harvest", and some forty works by native Kazakh authors of repute including the novels "Karaganda", "Panfilovtsi" and "Dzhambul". According to a recent statement, in 1954 in Kazakhstan 404 books will be issued with a total impression of 5,400,000. Political works will predominate, but the new stress on agriculture is reflected in the fact that this year 141 more works on agriculture and natural science figure on the publishers' lists than in 1953. They comprise not only standard works by Professor Williams and by Dokuchaev, but also pamphlets embodying "the experience of progressive collective farm chairmen". The Kazakh State Literature Publishing House (Kazgoslitizdat) will put out 187 books with an impression $3\frac{1}{3}$ m. among them Gorki's "Foma Gordeev" and selected works of Chekhov.

In Uzbekistan progress in publishing seems to have been encouraging. While in 1950 the republic as a whole brought out 2,700 books with an impression of $4\frac{1}{2}$ m., in 1952 three of the Uzbek publishing houses together issued 656 works with an impression of twelve million. The target of 276 works set for the republic in 1953 was in fact exceeded by 130, the total of 406 including all thirty-five volumes of Lenin's collected works. But there were complaints of serious delays in publication. Stories by Pushkin, Gorki, Korolenko and Saltykov-Shchedrin and critical essays by Dobrolyubov were all held up, and although the proofs of the "History of Uzbek Literature in the Soviet period", a useful textbook for schools, should have reached the printing stage by October 1953, by that date only one chapter was in fact ready and the last two were still in draft form. Some careless errors are allowed to slip through by Tashkent publishing houses, for instance one of them put on the market large quantities of school exercise-books with defective multiplication tables printed on the back cover. Once the mistake was realized it proved impossible to withdraw the books as they had already gone into circulation.

Translations of political and non-political literature

No survey of publishing in Central Asia would be complete without the mention of translations. These are generally done in "double

harness", i.e. using a native to provide a literal rendering of the original text and an established Russian journalist or author to polish the crude verbatim version into readable Russian. A similar technique is conversely applied in translating from Russian into the native languages, and a special term, perevod s podstrochnika, has even been coined for the practice.

Translations of literature on party-political and economic subjects from Russian into the various native languages are often done in Moscow, e.g., at the Marx-Engels-Lenin-Stalin Institute, and are there carefully cross-checked. In Tadzhikistan, the first volume of Lenin's collected works in the vernacular did not appear until early in 1953, which seems surprising considering that by then the Tadzhik translation of Stalin's works had already reached the thirteenth volume. Tadzhik versions of individual works by Marx, Lenin and Stalin are appearing in popular editions. The translation into Turkmen of the second volume of Lenin's complete works had been severely criticized; the proofs are said to be full of errors even after repeated checking. All thirty-five volumes of Lenin have appeared in Uzbekistan and the publication of the final one incidentally coincided with the appearance of the thirteenth volume of Stalin's works in Uzbek. In Kazakhstan, where Lenin was first translated in 1923, the first volume of a new complete edition of his works came out in 1948, and the nineteenth volume has just been issued. At the beginning of 1953, popular Kazakh editions were brought out of Stalin's speech to the Nineteenth Party Congress and of his last work, "Economic Problems of Socialism".

Much attention is given to the revising of the texts of political works so as to conform with prevailing ideological trends. A press report published in June 1953 described the meticulous care with which Volume I of the "History of the Kazakh people" was being prepared for the press. By then the final draft was ready for printing, and had in principle been approved by the Presidium of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences; But even at this late stage the Presidium thought it prudent to reprove the compilers of the work for failing to lay sufficient stress on the logical character of the historical process, the long-standing connections between Russia and Kazakhstan and the reasons for their later close association. As a result, various last-minute alterations must be made in the text before the History can go into mass production.

It appears from a republican conference of translators held in Kirgizia that few really first-class translators have so far been trained in the republic. The conference recommended that manuscripts of all translations should, in future, be discussed by the Kirgiz Writers' Union and that more articles on the theory and practice of the art should appear in the press. As a sequel to this meeting, in October 1953, an open competition for the best translations of pre-revolutionary and Soviet works was organized in Frunze.

The outstanding translator of Uzbekistan is undoubtedly the erudite orthodox Marxist writer Gafur Gulyam who has rendered into his native tongue poets of such differing style and calibre as Pushkin, Lermontov, Shevchenko, Nekrasov, Fet and Mayakovski, besides translating, probably from their Russian versions, "Othello", "The Marriage of Figaro", plays by Lope de Vega and Molière, and Shota Rustaveli's Georgian epic. However, not even Gulyam is immune from criticism: he has been accused of using "arabisms" and words conveying obsolete notions alien to Soviet thought, of excessive lyricism, and of failure to write good children's poetry. Among other Uzbek authors who have tried their hand at translation are Uigun, whose version of Tolstoi's "Hadzhi Murad" is considered a model of style and accuracy, and Kakhar, who has familiarized Uzbek readers with Gogol, Chekhov's stories and with the first volume of Tolstoi's "War and Peace".

The translation of school texts into language deficient in scientific vocabulary is a task even more exacting than the translation of political pamphlets and literary works, since it requires a specialized knowledge of the subject matter. One cause for complaint in Tadzhik schools is that the chemistry textbooks for use in certain grades are full of mistakes that would never have occurred had the translators possessed even the rudiments of chemistry or indeed of the natural sciences in general. Scientific terms of Arabic derivation, used where Tadzhik neologisms would have served, combine with numerous printing errors to perplex the pupil.

Children's books

Children's books are now being produced in Central Asia in fair quantity and variety both in the vernacular, and in translations from Russian and other foreign languages. In Kazakhstan, for instance, 136 have been issued over the last three years, including 36 stories by native authors; 72 more are to be published in Kazakh and Uigur by 1954. By June of last year Kazakh and Uigur children could read in their own languages such European and American favourites as "Uncle Tom's Cabin", "Treasure Island", "Robinson Crusoe", Hans Andersen's fairy stories and tales of adventure by Jack London. Locally produced children's literature has however been criticized for being "divorced from life", as is shown in the authors' predilection for animal rather than human heroes. Moreover, translations from Russian, even when done by rising young native writers, tend to be slipshod and incompetent; and books are often poorly produced and illustrated, with flimsy pages and smudgy print. Reports from Turkmenistan tell a similar tale. On one occasion two little girls there are said to have quarrelled about whether a certain drawing in their picture-book represented a horse or a cow; the animal was in fact a reindeer.

The only recent account of children's literature from Kirgizia tells of ill-organized distribution and of complaints from parents about the impossibility of finding anything for a child of kindergarten age. In Tadzhikistan 78 books for children with a total impression of 666,000 were produced in the first three years of the current Five-Year Plan, and 50 more are to be added this year. Popular among the works so far published are A. Tolstoi's "The Kitten", Turgenev's "A sportsman's Sketches" and Mirsaid Mirshakar's "I tell the Truth". The name of Mirshakar, whose reputation extends beyond the Tadzhik borders, was first mentioned in connection with children's literature at the Thirteenth Plenary Session of the Board of the Union of Soviet Writers held in 1950. Three years later the Moscow Children's Publishing House (Detgiz) published a book of his verse entitled "We came from the Pamirs" and containing the Stalin prize-winning poem "The Golden Kishlak". The principal themes of his poetry, - creative toil and man as the conqueror and transformer of nature, fully satisfy the requirements of "Socialist" art.

School textbooks

Some idea of the scale of textbook production in Central Asia may be derived from published figures for Kazakhstan, where 135 texts in Russian, Kazakh and Uigur with a total impression of 3 m. were brought out in the first half of 1953. Over 150,000 textbooks were exported to Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan for the use of children of the Kazakh minorities there. Another press report stated that in 1953 8½ m. textbooks would be distributed to schools, libraries and bookshops of the republic. In spite of these statistics, however, frequent complaints about the textbook position appear in the press.

For example, in Tadzhikistan whole chapters on phonetics, etymology and syntax in the Russian grammars used in non-Russian schools have had to be rewritten. A Tadzhik school anthology of literature is criticized for embodying excerpts from native writers like Unsuri and Farukhi whose writings are "impregnated with Sufist mysticism". In Kirgizia the new rules for spelling laid down in June 1953 have added to the difficulties; it seems that they are still not universally observed, and an ABC for the lowest grades, for instance, still contains errors after running through twelve editions. Anthologies for junior grades contain verses impossible for young children to understand. Another criticism reported in the press is that Kirgiz children with their imperfect command of Russian ought not, as they are at present, to be expected to work from readers identical with those used for Russian children. Writers of Kirgiz textbooks are advised to expatiate on the themes of Soviet patriotism, of friendship with Russia and of proletarian internationalism, (as distinct from cosmopolitanism).

The re-organization of primary schools into seven-year schools, the extension of the higher grades and the expansion of the education network generally have caused shortages of textbooks in Tadzhikistan. The demand could not be met in 1953 and the Tadzhikistan Ministry of Education had to inform schools in Garm and Kurgan-Tyube that certain textbooks for senior grades could not be supplied since they had not even been printed. Textbooks on literature for the seventh grade were not delivered until late in October; there were no logarithmic tables as these for some reason could not be produced locally. There was a shortage of books on astronomy, on Russian and other foreign languages as well as of glossaries of scientific terms and Russian-Tadzhik and Tadzhik-Russian dictionaries for school use. In 1952 only 30 textbooks were published locally, and to judge from partial statistics this was not greatly improved upon in the following year, although 86 books should now be published annually in order to keep pace with the increase in schools.

Distribution and sales

The Soviet authorities claim that the number of books in the public libraries of Central Asia has risen from a mere 139,000 in 1913 to nine million in 1953. Altogether 7,600 libraries were open to the public last year. The largest of the Kazakh libraries, the Pushkin Library in Alma-Ata, has 1,365,000 volumes in 61 languages of the Soviet Union and in 25 european languages on its shelves, including 221,000 volumes on the history, ethnography and economy of the republic. There are besides (or were in September 1953) 930 republican libraries administered in accordance with a fixed annual budget; 348 kolkhoz libraries and 268 libraries run by trades unions. At raion level these might contain anything from 5,000 to 10,000 volumes, at village level, an average of 1,860 volumes. The kolkhoz libraries are considered inadequate for the needs of the republic, particularly as a single one often has to serve three or four kolkhoz estates scattered over a wide area. Another obvious deficiency is in school libraries, for 4,000 Kazakh schools have no books whatsoever, 1,300 have less than 50, and 970 have between 50 and 100 only.

The Chernyshevski State Public Library in Frunze, which celebrated its fifteenth anniversary last November, has built up its stocks from a mere 15,000 volumes to the present 1½ m. copies of books, newspapers and periodicals. The number of its subscribers has risen from 2,420 in 1940 to 9,000 in 1953, and its card-index lists 25,000 items in Kirgiz on topics of regional interest. Since the law requires that copies of all books and magazines published in the Union shall be deposited on its shelves, the prospects for its expansion are unlimited. Kirgizia has altogether 1,206 libraries stocked with what is known as "mass" literature. Here the main task of the personnel is to assist

the local Party organizations in publicizing current political decisions, such as those adopted by the Central Committee of the Communist Party at its plenum last September. Not all such libraries are permanently open. Some indeed are closed for long periods in the year, and the attendance at others, the Tien Shan oblast library for example, is extremely poor. On the other hand the more active of these institutions, such as the Frunze oblast library, interpret the injunction to "bring culture to the people" in the most literal sense, taking books, posters and commemorative stands in honour of outstanding political or literary events (for instance the sixtieth anniversary of Mayakovski's birth) out into the fields in vehicles specially equipped for the purpose. Not long ago kolkhoz workers in the Kaganovich, Stalin, Panfilov and Kalinin raions were, rather surprisingly given lectures and an exhibition on Chernyshevski's life and work, while the chabans on the high pastures of Susamyr heard illustrated talks on agriculture and Party history; the library is even intrepid enough to treat so apparently abstruse a subject as the application to agriculture of atomic energy.

Uzbekistan is fortunate in possessing the Navoi Tashkent Library. This is even better equipped than the Pushkin Library in Alma-Ata, though its staff have been mildly criticized for failing to encourage the public to read the classics of Marxism-Leninism, and for issuing books in a "soulless" manner. Uzbekistan as a whole has 5,000 libraries, 946 on kolkhoz estates. Some of them have grown at a remarkable rate: the Pushkin Library in Samarkand began in 1911 with a modest collection of 800 volumes; by 1937 it had accumulated 82,000 and it is now one of the largest libraries in the republic.

In Tadzhikistan a new building for the Stalinabad Public Library has just been completed. Rural libraries are much less well served than their urban counterparts, largely because their staffs are left more or less to their own devices and tend in consequence to grow slack; they fail to organize circles for reading aloud and discussing popular works, or to see that reading matter penetrates to the remoter villages. The amalgamation of the collective farms has also reduced the number of rural libraries and the size of the reading public, because available stocks of books are now concentrated in the administrative centres of the enlarged kolkhozes instead of being scattered over the various farms as heretofore. Thus many regular subscribers now find their local library too far from home to trouble to use it.

Reports from Turkmenistan show that early in 1953 efforts were still being made to stock libraries in the Main Turkmen Canal zone with technical literature. Takhia-Tash was to receive 40,000 books, Kazandzhik 12,000, Sultan Uiz-Dag on the right bank of the Amu-Darya, 8,000 and a library in the Chapaev district, 10,000. Since April 1953, however, there has been no mention of the progress made in building

up these libraries.

Bookshops

Accounts reviewing the growth in Central Asia of a network of independent bookshops and of distributing agencies attached to schools, consumer cooperatives and so on are in the main favourable. In Tadzhikistan new bookshops in Regar and Ordzhonikidzeabad and several new stalls in Stalinabad and Leninabad were opened last year; and a chain of shops is to be opened in Koktash, Shakhrinau, Mikoyanabad, Shaartuz, Kuibyshevsk and Kirovabad. $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. more books were sold in the republic in the first quarter of 1953 than in the corresponding period of 1952. Reports from Turkmenistan disclose a less satisfactory state of affairs. The oil-producing town of Kum-Dag is expanding fast but it still does not possess a single bookshop, and as its solitary bookstall cannot supply textbooks or modern fiction the oilmen are obliged to go to the neighbouring town of Nebit-Dag for any reading matter more serious than "Krokodil" and "Ogonyek". To remedy the shortage of qualified shop-managers and sales and advertising personnel in the republic, it has been suggested that six to twelve month training courses staffed by teachers from other republican capitals should be instituted in Ashkhabad, financed by specially allocated funds; accommodation should be provided for students coming from outside the town, as Ashkhabad has suffered from over-crowding ever since the earthquake.

Uzbekistan, which is culturally in advance of the other Central Asian republics, plans to open bookshops in all its raion centres during the period 1954-55 and to double its sales next year in comparison with 1953. However, the poor selection and shortage of new books in the rural areas give grounds for dissatisfaction: in the Kamashin raion of the Kashka-Darya oblast, for example, no books published later than 1950 can be found. Again, although the Knigotorg warehouse in this oblast is well stocked, sales in the kishlaks are dwindling because few new books get beyond the raion distributors. This is the fault of the managers of village cooperatives and trading organizations, who display a philistine persistence in regarding books only as so much merchandise which do not bring in substantial profits. As a result they do not trouble to display them on their counters or to promote their sale, except insofar as they must do so in order to fulfil the targets set under the State plan. In the Kuvin raion managers of cooperatives do not even attempt to sell more than about a third of the literature they receive; the rest of the stock they merely stow under the counter, writing off as valueless whatever remains unsold at the end of the year, even though that may include works by Tolstoi, Uspenski and Korolenko. Much the same thing has happened in Sokh and Kuvasai. In spite of all this the Uzbek Main Book Distribution Agency

(Uglavknigtorg) reported in January that the total value of its sales was six million rubles. Quite a substantial proportion of the sales is accounted for by itinerant peddlers of the old knigonosha type, who go out into the countryside just as in pre-revolutionary days, with their stocks of cheap literature for the peasants. Last year the republic's forty-five knigonoshi disposed of books to the value of a quarter of a million rubles.

Sales of books in Kazakhstan are encouraging. It was claimed in April 1953 that the number of bookselling agencies in the republic had by then risen from 49 shops in 1949 to 190 shops and 116 stalls. In 1952, nine times as many books were sold as in 1940, sales in the villages and auls accounting for over a third of the total value of trade which was 83 m. rubles. According to unconfirmed plans for 1953, 59 new bookshops were to be opened in the course of the year in the various raion centres. So far however not a single bookshop or stall exists along the whole of the new Mointy-Chu railway line, and no books in Kazakh are obtainable in the fishing villages along Lake Balkhash. Even industrial towns are sometimes ill-served: Leninogorsk, Karaganda and the Novaya Tikhonovka settlement have all complained of a dearth of children's books. Moreover, in Kazakhstan as elsewhere, the reading public is at times subject to the vagaries of an erratic distribution system: books on cotton and rice cultivation end up in North Kazakhstan, where neither crop is grown; Russian-populated districts receive books in Kazakh, industrial literature is misdirected to agricultural regions and vice versa; and Semipalatinsk, devoid of coalmines, once was provided with technical treatises on the use of pit-props. At times the distributing agencies display a misplaced zeal, as when, heartened by an order of Timiryazev's works on plant biology from two readers in Dzhezkazgan, the Kazakhknizhtorg enthusiastically dispatched 114 additional copies to its local bookshop; at other times, they seem inexplicably lax, as in their failure to supply the industrial centres of Chimkent, Ust-Kamenogorsk, Balkhash and Temir-Tau with manuals on coal, metallurgy, hydro-electricity and copper-smelting.

A very real problem is where to accommodate the stocks rapidly accumulating in the base warehouses, and how to prevent their deterioration in poor climatic conditions. Kazakhknizhtorg alone has some ten million rubles' worth of surplus stock, and its warehouses are shockingly overcrowded. Bookshop premises are also often far from ideal. In rural areas of the Kustanai oblast they are said to be disgraceful; in the Turgai raion the bookstore is an old shed with a leaky roof, and in the Peskov raion its dimensions are eight metres by ten and it is situated on the extreme outskirts of the village. In some cases rural cooperatives deliberately refrain from buying books because they have nowhere to house them.

In Kirgizia, a surprise inspection carried out by a group of press correspondents and social workers on the Frunze Knigotorg revealed many of the same difficulties and failings. In contrast to the model bookshop at Tokmak, where the high cultural level of the salesmen has done much to promote sales by progressive and even aggressive means, the No. 1. Bookshop of Frunze presents a lamentable picture. Its stock is jumbled together in the most haphazard way, the premises are ill-lit, the shelves, in contravention of State regulations, reach up to the ceiling; few books on social and economic subjects are kept, the supply of technical literature and children's books is insufficient to meet local needs and not a single set of Karl Marx's works is to be seen.

Failings in the book trade, are ascribed by the manager of the republic's book supply base to the lack of cooperation on the part of the managers of the consumers co-operatives. However, it seems that the co-operative stores are themselves overstocked and it is obvious that improvements and particularly better advertising are needed throughout the whole book-selling network.

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U Z B E K I S T A N

IRRIGATION AND SETTLEMENT IN THE FERGANA VALLEY

Land reclamation has been, and is being carried out on a large scale in Uzbekistan where the irrigation system already comprises about forty per cent of the irrigated surface of the whole Soviet Union. In 1955 alone, 650 m. rubles will be allowed to irrigation works in the republic, and it is intended that during the period 1952-58 the area under cultivation should be increased by 600,000 hectares; of these 142,000 will be in the Fergana Valley.

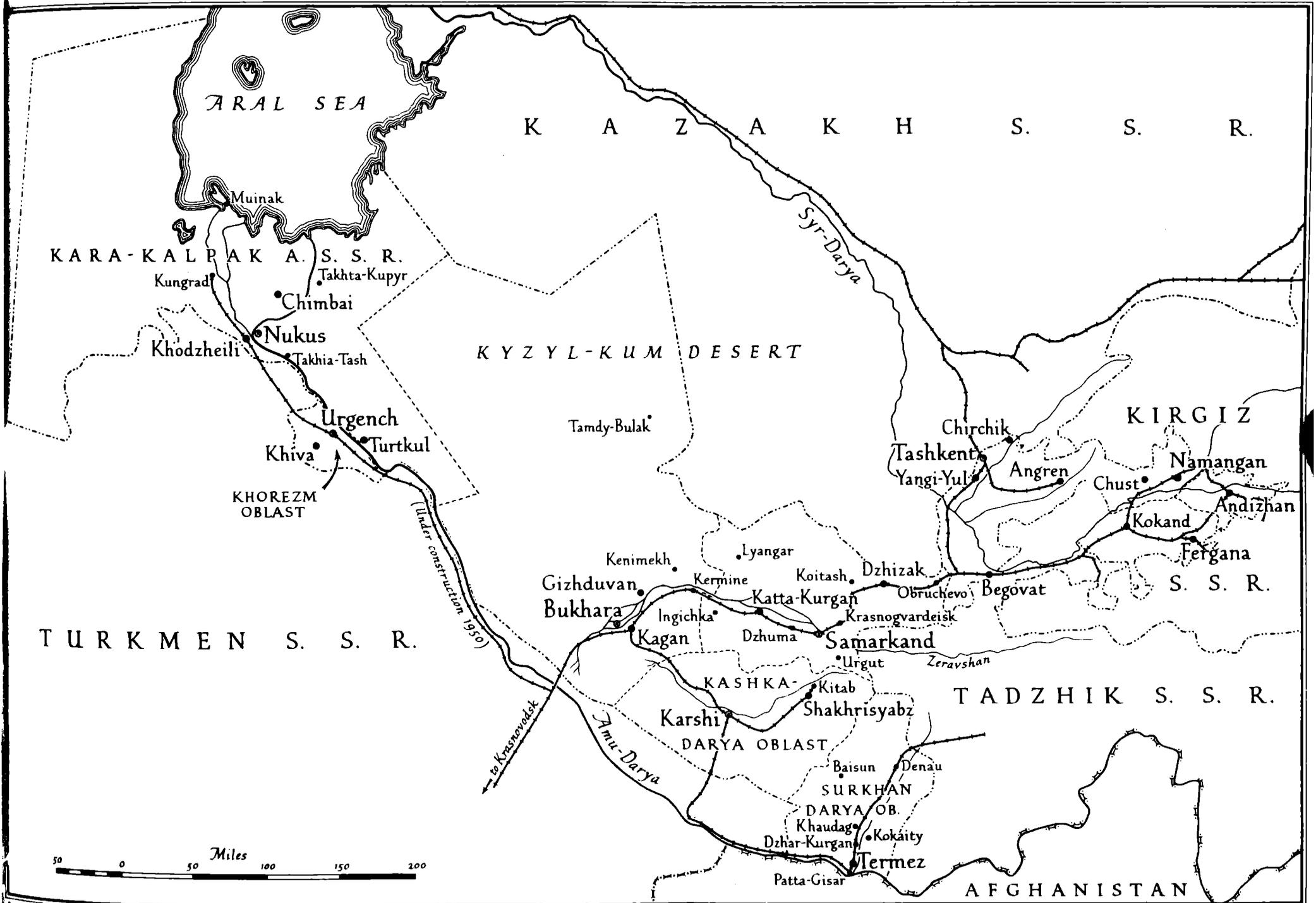
In addition to expanding the irrigation system, it is planned to re-organize the existing irrigation network in line with the amalgamation of the kolkhozes. This work entails a complete re-planning of the existing fields, local irrigation canals and irrigation installations, since under the new system, permanent local canals will be replaced by temporary ones which will be filled from permanent main feeder canals. According to the report of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan at its Ninth Congress, the improved irrigation technique will result in a ten to fifteen per cent rise in efficiency, and it is planned by 1955 to have completed the irrigation of at least half the kolkhozes of the republic.

Planning is one thing, achievement another, for between 1950-53 only 440,000 of the proposed 1,150,000 hectares were converted to the new irrigation system, a state of affairs that brought censure of the Uzbek Ministry of Waterways, Cotton-growing and Agriculture from the regional press. The Ministry was accused of failure to make the best use of mechanized equipment and man-power, and of bad organization among the kolkhozes. The 1953 quota was barely half achieved and Pravda Vostoka of 31st December 1953 criticized the planning organization for "formalism", lack of foresight, and for failing to take full advantage of technical progress.

The Fergana Valley

The Fergana Valley, the largest in Central Asia, (300 km. from east to west 150 km. from north to south) is one of the most important cotton and silk-producing areas of the Soviet Union; it is noted also for rice and fruit growing. Oil, mining, engineering, chemicals and textiles are among its industries. With its fertile soil, warm climate, and many mountain rivers it is aptly named "the pearl of Central Asia". One third of the population of Uzbekistan live within its confines. The irrigation system is dependent on the Syr-Darya and its headwaters, the

UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



Naryn and Kara-Darya, all of which flow roughly east-west in the eastern and northern parts of the Valley. The irrigation system, and progress in reconstruction and settlement are gone into in some detail below. The responsibility for irrigation work lies with the Ferganavodstroi Trust, of the Ministry of Waterways of the Uzbek SSR.

The Great Fergana Canal

The Great Fergana Canal, on which is based the irrigation system of the Fergana Valley as a whole, is fed by the Naryn and Kara-Darya rivers and runs the length of the Valley from north-east to south-west. It was constructed in 1939 by mass manual labour and in 1940 was extended by 60 km to enter the Tadzhik SSR. It is now 330 km long, 25-30 metres wide, 4 metres deep, and irrigates some 670,000 hectares. A large number of hydro-electrical installations, and over one thousand locks, sluices and other waterworks are in operation along its banks; it is crossed by eighty bridges, of which six carry railways. Under the provisions of the current Five-Year Plan the canal is being widened and its machinery modernized; the director of the Ferganavodstroi, Gladei has stated that, through the canal, the Naryn alone will ultimately supply enough water to irrigate the whole of Central Fergana. Reconstruction work in 1953 resulted in an increased circulation of water in comparison with 1952.

The North Fergana and Akhunbabaev Canals and the Syr-Darya

The North Fergana Canal, which passes to the north of the site of the ancient capital of Fergana, Aksu, destroyed by earthquake in 1620, was built in 1940 and now irrigates some 60,000 hectares in the Namangan area. The Akhunbabaev Canal, running west from the village of Dzhamatai (Trans-Darya raion) drains the marshlands on the south bank of the Syr-Darya and, when reconstructed, is expected to make available 17,000 hectares for cultivation. That part of the Syr-Darya basin to include Dzhamatai, Dankul, Kara-Kalpak (or Fergana Desert), and Mamekhan, as far east as Naiman, is irrigated by a system based on the river itself; rice and cotton fields are in cultivation on both banks and are spreading southwards towards the Yaz-Yavan steppe (Central Fergana). Reservoirs are to be built, and artesian wells sunk, in the Fergana Desert, and by 1955-56 it is expected that a further 102,000 hectares will be reclaimed there.

The South Fergana Canal

The south and south-eastern parts of the Valley (i.e. Fergana town, the Margelan and Andizhan districts) are irrigated by the South Fergana Canal and by the Margelan and Shakhimardan rivers, and cultivation is

spreading northwards into the Yaz-Yavan steppe. Settlers first entered the steppe in 1948 and about 1,000 hectares (the Gigant kolkhoz) are now under rice, cotton and alfalfa. There is road communication between the Gigant and Dzhamatai and the Gulbakh sovkhos further north.

West and north-west Fergana

To the west of the Fergana Valley into Tadzhikistan lie the desert areas of Kairak-Kum in which it is intended to create an artificial lake by building a dam at Kairak-Kum itself. This project together with a hydro-electric station at the Leninabad Gorge in Tadzhikistan will be carried out jointly by the Uzbek, Tadzhik and Kazakh Governments, to their mutual benefit. No figures by which the amount of land thus reclaimed, can be judged, are at present available. North of Namangan on the Kassar river at Urta-Tokai a reservoir of 100 m. cubic metres capacity has been constructed with a considerable resultant increase in the productivity of the Tyurya-Kurgan district.

Mechanization and construction

Although it would appear that a fair amount of progress has been made, the Ferganavodstroï Trust was publicly criticized during 1953 for its failure to make adequate plans for the most effective use of mechanized equipment and skilled labour. Commenting on the large consignments of irrigation machinery delivered to the Sredazgidrostroï during the summer, Pravda Vostoka of 31st December 1953 complained that often only ten out of seventeen available excavators at the Akhunbabai MES (Machine Excavator Station) were in use. Furthermore the machinery provided was not always suited to the particular job in hand and there was a perpetual shortage of spare parts. To remedy the situation Soviet technicians have recommended the formation of a bureau to deal with problems arising from the use of machinery for excavation in the differing localities of Uzbekistan, but there is as yet no indication of how well, if at all, this bureau is functioning. Again, during 1953 research work at the Sredazgidrovodkhopok Institute was often behind schedule, thus delaying field operations, while Party and Government organizations in the Fergana, Andizhan and Namangan oblasts had in various ways failed to cooperate fully with the Ferganavodstroï Trust. For example, the allocation of sites for new settlements was often delayed with the result that the housing construction and municipal services were held up. Although ample man-power is available in these three oblasts, agricultural development is still behind schedule, despite the formation of a consultative bureau by the Uzbek Academy of Sciences which is devoting considerable study to all the scientific aspects of the problem.

Settlement in Central Fergana

The new irrigation network, it is claimed, will completely transform the deserts and swamps of Central Fergana. Cotton fields are already advancing into the area from both north and south. In 1952, Dzhama-tai was created the administrative centre of the new Trans-Darya raion and Yaz-Yavan is the centre of the new raion in the south of the area.

Peasant families in large numbers are now settling in the newly irrigated areas of Central Fergana. They are granted long-term subsidies by the Government of the Uzbek SSR and under the present scheme it is expected that 134 new kolkhozes will be established, bringing some 600,000 hectares under cultivation. According to the resolution passed by the Central Committee of the Uzbek Communist Party and published in Komsomolskaya Pravda of 12th February 1954, 40,000 peasant families will be moved within Uzbekistan during the period 1954-58; many of these, it can be assumed, will be settled in Central Fergana. The Ferganavodstroi has already established construction offices at Andizhan, Margelan, Yaz-Yavan and Dzhama-tai, and factories for the production of furniture, building materials, agricultural machinery and so forth are to be built. At Yaz-Yavan, where the first settlers arrived six years ago, an MES has been established where new equipment is continuously received. During the summer of 1953, lorries, engines, building materials and pre-fabricated houses were delivered to the Ferganavodstroi, and many new settlements for the irrigation workers are to be built.

There have been complaints, however, in Pravda Vostoka about the slowness in the assimilation of the new lands. This is put down to the lack of proper organization of labour reserves and to the need for firmer discipline in the kolkhozes; machinery is not fully used or is found not suitable for the work; there is a shortage of artificial fertilizers.

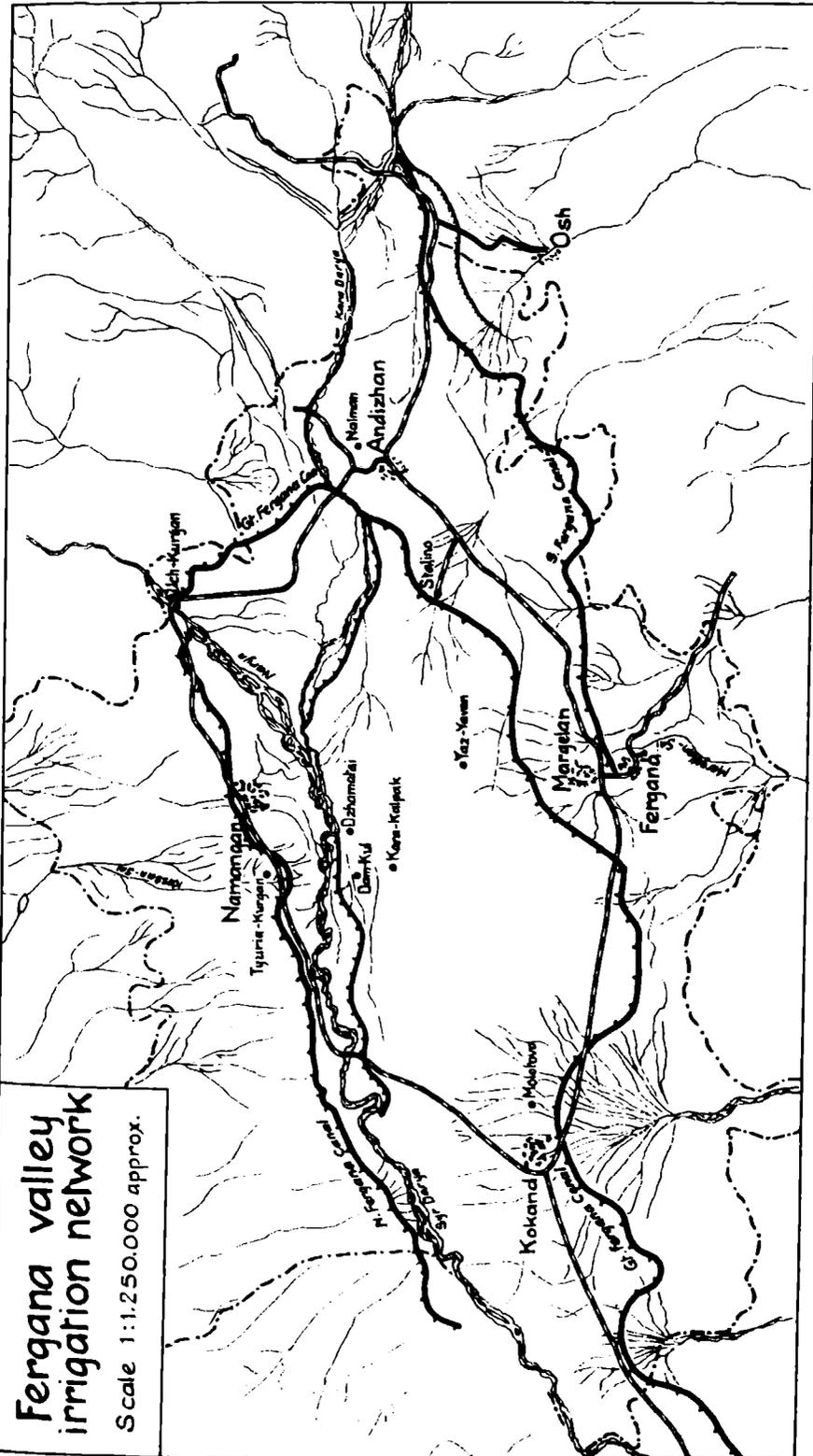
To help solve problems arising from the assimilation of the new lands, the Stalin kolkhoz is to be transformed into a model collective farm for this particular area. Planners, scientists and experts in the various fields of agriculture are to come to study local conditions. Although progress has so far been slow, these scientists from the Uzbek Academy of Sciences plan to use the foremost irrigation and soil amelioration methods; the cotton crop is expected to average thirty to forty centners per hectare. The experience gained at the Stalin kolkhoz will be brought to the assistance of all the new kolkhozes of Central Fergana and it is hoped that cotton and alfalfa fields will soon cover the whole area.

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Fergana valley irrigation network

Scale 1:1,250,000 approx.



BROADCAST SERVICES

Systematic broadcasting in the USSR began in 1924, three years after England and America and a year later than Germany. The first radio station in Central Asia was built by Russian technicians in Tashkent in 1921, since when broadcast coverage has been extended with varying completeness over all the republics of Central Asia. Progress has been particularly rapid in the years of the post-war Five-Year Plans, but complete coverage is still far from realization.

The present system uses both re-broadcast and re-diffusion techniques. In the former, programmes are received either by land-line or radio from a main station and then re-radiated for reception on normal radio receivers. In re-diffusion, however, the programmes are received as before, but are distributed to the subscribers by wire, requiring only a loudspeaker or headphones for reception. Both these functions are performed by oblast and raion radio uzels (radio exchanges), some of which also originate their own programmes. In kolkhozes radio translyatsionniye tochi (relay units) further amplify and distribute the programmes to the homes of individual kolkhozniks.

In Uzbekistan much has been done in recent years to extend broadcast coverage. Since 1940 the service area has been quadrupled and the station capacity increased elevenfold. Three quarters of the agricultural artels of the republic are now served.

Figures quoted for 1952 show that the number of re-diffusion receiving sets i.e. loudspeakers and headphones was increased by 27,365 and the number of radio receivers by 5,011. A number of stations distributing programmes to whole groups of kolkhozes have been set up. Branch offices editing local programmes have been established in all oblast centres. A considerable fillip has been given to the extension of broadcast coverage by a fifty per cent reduction of licence fees from 1st April 1953.

Potentialities and realitites

Despite the obvious advance made in recent years in extending broadcast services in the republic, Uzbekistan still lags behind the other republics of the Soviet Union in the number of its distributing stations.

In order that the re-diffusion network may spread to all the inhabited areas and kolkhozes of the republic in the next few years, it is estimated that some 300,000 relay units must be installed, and at least the same number of receiving stations provided. A three-

fold increase in the landline network is also required.

The immediate tasks were stated by Comrade B. Komarov, chief of the directorate of the radio relay network, and Comrade K. Berger, chief engineer of the network, in a newspaper article several month ago. These tasks are the establishment of relay units in all kolkhozes which have their own electric power-stations; the repair of all those relay units which, owing to some technical fault, have been left unused; the proper employment and distribution of available technicians; and finally, the full utilization of existing installations which would permit the serving of subscribers within a radius of 20-25 km. of each, and would result in the addition of 100,000 new listeners to the network.

These practical suggestions are in sharp contrast to the actual plans for 1954, which have received a good deal of critical comment in the local press. It is pointed out that these plans have not been co-ordinated with the existing and projected electrification of the republic, and that the consequent selection of unsuitable equipment results in an unnecessary expenditure of kolkhoz funds. Proper co-ordination of plans would result in a reduction of 35-40 per cent in capital expenditure. The papers further point out that in the projected plans for the reconstruction and enlargement of kolkhozes and settlements no provision is made for appropriate buildings to house technical equipment, studios, control room, workshop and so on. This has frequently resulted in relay units being set up in circumstances where their efficiency is considerably impaired.

Production of radio receivers

Although the 1953 target for the extension of broadcast coverage had been doubled, the production of radio receivers has not, judging from press reports, kept pace with this development. The 1954 target for the production of receivers for the whole of the Soviet Union is 2,861,000. It is felt, however, that as only a small fraction of this number is likely to reach Uzbekistan, it is imperative to manufacture both radio and re-diffusion receivers in the republic. Apart from assisting the extension of coverage, this would also reduce expenses. The Kinap Works and the Tashkent Radio Factory have both been put forward as suitable for mass production since they have the necessary equipment and resources.

At present, the Rodina, a portable battery set, is being produced in the republic. This sells readily, especially to people living in rural districts, but the batteries for it are hard to get. In the words of one paper, "a splendid set is thus turned into a mere show piece". In the Pap raion, for instance, there are 200 sets of the Rodina 47 type, but for the whole year only 15 sets of batteries were received. Similarly it is difficult to get valves for the Rodina 52, a larger and improved version of the Rodina 47. In Bukhara and Kagan, no re-

diffusion receivers are available either in the Consumers' Cooperative stores or in any other trading organization, although several thousand sets are required in the Bukhara oblast alone.

On 16th June 1953 the Council of Ministers of the Uzbek SSR passed a resolution for the production of 50,000 re-diffusion receivers and 400,000 insulators. On 9th November, Gosplan announced that these items had been included in their production plan, but a month later the responsible authority stated that the plan could not be put into effect. No reasons for this were given.

Regional achievements and failings

Achievements in different oblasts vary considerably, good results in some being offset by failures in others, while within the oblasts different kolkhozes exhibit widely varying degrees of coverage. The oblast of Bukhara is mentioned as being the best served; it exceeded the target for the installation of relay units by 128.5 per cent in 1952 and by 212.7 per cent in the first half of 1953; the target for the extension of coverage to kolkhozes was exceeded threefold. For all this it was awarded the Ministry of Communications' Red Banner and has so far retained this for nine months. In Denau also the results were good. In 1953 in the town of Denau and the kolkhozes of the raion, 280 re-diffusion receivers were installed. At present the Stalin kolkhoz is being wired, and on completion 150 homes will be connected to the system. The plan for the extension of services was also exceeded in the Kashka-Darya and Tashkent oblasts.

The ten-month plan for the extension of coverage, however, has only been fulfilled by 61 per cent in Khorezm, by 64 per cent in Surkhan-Darya, by 92 per cent in Kara-Kalpakia, and by 95 per cent in Samarkand. Even in Tashkent, reports of mismanagement and shortcomings are not uncommon; Comrades Sidorenko and Martinov in a recent letter to the editor of Pravda Vostoka gave some indication of conditions in what is considered to be one of the more satisfactory areas.

"Some time ago", they write, "we applied to the re-diffusion networks headquarters to have a house, No. 5 Brussels St, wired. A week went by, and after a reminder we received a reply to the effect that there were only two radio technicians to the whole of Tashkent and we should have to wait our turn. At length, a month after sending in the request, a technician came and made an estimate. We paid the subscription for January, but January has come and gone and February too, but still we have not been linked up".

In Tashkent as well as in other oblasts there seems to be a shortage

of essential spares with the result that over 5,000 sets are out of action.

The extension of broadcast services to kolkhozes has also been unsatisfactory. The ten-month plan has only been fulfilled to the extent of 85.5 per cent in the republic as a whole and, in the individual oblasts of Surkhan-Darya and Khorezm, to the extent of 25.5 and 37.5 respectively. But if in most kolkhozes the scheme lags behind schedule, there are some where results are good. In the Stalin kolkhoz of the Tashlak raion of the Fergana oblast, 800 homes of kolkhozniks were linked up with the network. In the Bukhara oblast, the following kolkhozes are now effectively served:- The Stalin kolkhoz of the Shafrikan raion, the Molotov kolkhoz of the Gizhduvan raion, the Kyzyl-Oktyabr kolkhoz of the Kerminin raion, the Leningrad kolkhoz of the Namangan raion, and others. Even so, the network covers only one sixth of the kolkhozes of the republic. At present there is the possibility of extending the network to the whole of the Gulistan, Verkhne-Volinsk and Ordzhonikidze raions.

Considerable attention is being devoted to the serving of remote kolkhozes and kishlaks which have no power-stations of their own. In this respect much has been done in kolkhozes of Kara-Kalpakia, Khorezm and other oblasts by establishing kolkhoz relay-units of the Kru-2 type feeding 50-60 subscribers' sets. These installations are powered by wind-driven generators type VE-2 which will work with wind speeds as low as three metres per second. Judging from reports this system works quite admirably.

An article in Pravda Vostoka on 26th February of this year stated that a number of new combined radio and cinema units have been supplied to the Fergana, Andizhan and Namangan oblasts and also to Kara-Kalpakia. Others would soon be sent to the other oblasts of the republic. These units, which are said to be portable and easy to operate, are already possessed by many rural clubs of the republic.

Importance of radio in everyday life

Radio is one of the main vehicles of Marxist-Leninist propaganda, of political information and exegesis, and of the popularization of new and progressive working methods, and achievements of Socialist culture. In the article on radio broadcasting in Sovetskaya Entsiklopediya published in 1941 it is stated that from the first days of the October Revolution radio has been used to further the interests of the proletarian dictatorship, and that moreover it has proved to be a highly effective method for the indoctrination of millions of workers with the teachings of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin.

The proportion of the programmes devoted to politics and propaganda in local broadcasts cannot be gauged, but it is certain that Party policies and resolutions of regional interest are given considerable prominence. Thus in Uzbekistan, radio is an important auxiliary of the drive to increase cotton cultivation: broadcasts are devoted to the efforts and achievements of the best cotton growers and to their selfless struggle for still higher production. Other talks are on economic policies, the degree of fulfilment of Five-Year Plans, and the achievements of leading undertakings.

Dissatisfaction with the programme material is rife, it being claimed that the quality falls below that required by the growing political and cultural needs of the listeners. It is felt that there should be more time devoted to concerts, especially on Sundays, that the repertoire be widened, and that there be fewer repeated programmes. Letters to the editor of Pravda Vostoka are full of similar complaints and also of criticisms of the technical quality of the broadcasts. It appears that programmes are frequently marred by a continuous noise which compels listeners to switch off. On Sundays a break in transmission occurs from 12 to 12,45 for no apparent reason; for this the officials of the network are blamed.

Conclusions

It appears that considerable efforts are being made to extend broadcast services to all communities of the republic. Re-diffusion is clearly preferred to radio broadcasting, though considerable use is made of the latter, particularly for isolated communities. The efficiency of the system is severely reduced by the lack of technicians and technical spares, and this fact is constantly reiterated in the press. There appear to be faults in the official direction of the broadcasting services, and a lack of co-ordination with other associated industrial operations.

Sources

1. Central Asian Press.
2. Radio (monthly periodical), 1953-54.
3. Soviet encyclopaedia, 1941.

listener:-

Firstly, by normal radio transmission, generally from a local transmitter. The programme material is either received by radio or landline from some central source or is produced locally.

Secondly, by reception on a community radio receiver and subsequent distribution to individual homes by wire where it may be heard either on a loudspeaker or headphones. There is some indication that a loudspeaker system may be installed in community centres to serve a large audience, but this seems less common than home listening.

Thirdly, the distribution of programmes by extensive networks of landlines, the signals sometimes being further amplified before being further distributed to homes in the communities served by the network.

It is evident that the system of distribution by wire is preferred. This offers the two advantages over radio broadcasting that the programmes received can be centrally controlled and that the cost of individual installations is far smaller. The principal languages used in broadcasting in Uzbekistan are presumably Russian and Uzbek. No details are available of broadcasts in any other languages.

T A D Z H I K I S T A N

COMMUNICATIONS AND BROADCASTING

Up-to-date press information on communications and broadcasting in Tadjikistan is not very abundant and it is therefore difficult to draw a comprehensive picture of the current situation. While positive achievements are recognized there has been a good deal of criticism of all services, with the exception of civil aviation. The railways are the main target of the critics, complaints being directed against bad administration, wastage, and dilatory handling of freight by railway officials. Meanwhile the importance of the roads is increasing, largely because much of the machinery used on current irrigation projects, (excavators, etc.), moves under its own power. Progress in the post, telephone and telegraph systems is slow and is restricted by the perennial shortage of experienced operators; while broadcasting although technically improved and much more widespread has been the subject of adverse comment, directed particularly against irresponsible officials and the poor quality of musical programmes.

Railways

Although since 1952 there has been a marked increase in railway traffic both on the narrow-gauge system centred on Stalinabad, and the section of the main Ashkhabad line between Pridonovo and Melnikovo, progress has been hampered by inefficient workers and bad administration at stations and goods yards. On the credit side, the 1953 quota on the Stalinabad narrow-gauge system was fulfilled a few days ahead of time and labour productivity during the year rose by 5 per cent instead of the estimated 1.2 per cent. A notable reduction of 4 per cent in costs was achieved; net profit being 500,000 rubles over estimate, while the amount of fertilizer, liquid fuel and cotton conveyed, exceeded the plan by 111 per cent 116 per cent and 108 per cent respectively. By the end of 1955 it is planned that the volume of freight carried will be increased by 48 per cent; and the turn-round time for wagons reduced by 19 per cent. During 1953 the performance of trains as regards weight, speed and gradient improved by 20 - 30 per cent and 683 trains were hauled in the first half of the year constituting 8250 tons over and above the planned total.

Closer examination of day-to-day running of the railways however reveals a less rosy picture even though certain criticisms are perhaps exaggerated. Since September 1953 the Stalinabad narrow-gauge system has been paid particular attention as it is the chief means for transporting seed, fuel, fertilizer and chemicals to the Vakhsh Valley cotton

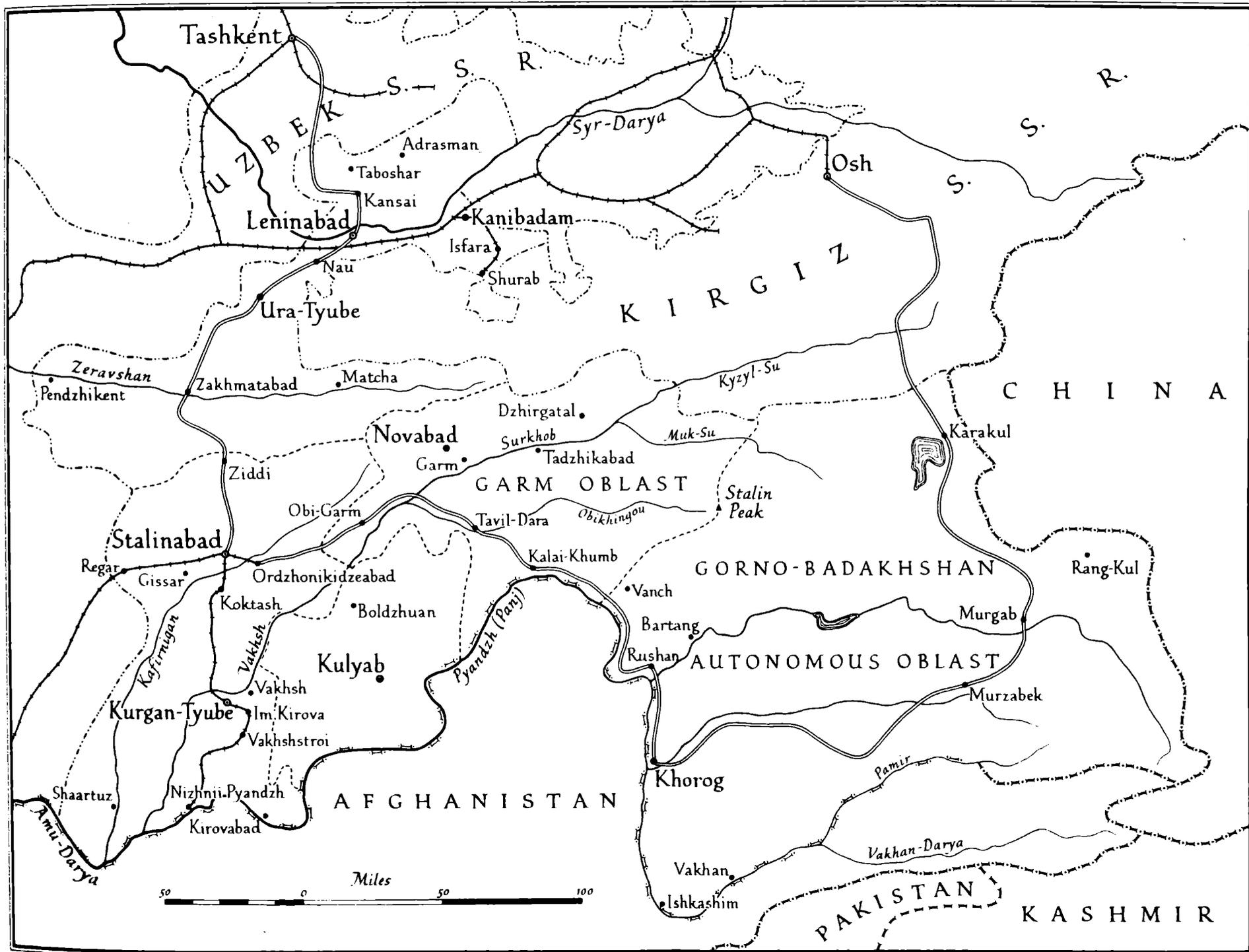
fields, and of raw cotton to the ginneries of Kurgan-Tyube and Uyaly. Although there have been improvements in the technical abilities of engine drivers, inefficiency, bad station administration, and delay in collecting materials from goods yards are not uncommon. In order to maintain running schedules there have been many cases of dumping of fertilizer over the edge of railway embankments instead of proper off-loading and storage in goods yards. The fertilizer is then left to deteriorate and often becomes useless. A typical instance occurred at Khanaka Station where some 300 tons of fertilizer urgently needed by the kolkhozes at Gissar were neglected; when interviewed the stationmaster shrugged his shoulders and replied that there was no point in delivering the fertilizer as there were no covered sheds at the kolkhozes anyhow. Similar occurrences are reported in other districts. Another difficulty is that at Khanaka as well as at Regar, Pahktaabad and Cheptura, there are no surfaced approaches to the stations so that the fertilizer has to be carried to the kolkhoz trucks by hand. Local comment at Regar is to the effect that the decaying fertilizer dumps are of such ancient origin that no one knows when they first came into being or whether or not they are the results of a seismic upheaval.

To prevent the loss of raw cotton in transit flat cars are supposed to be equipped with iron side-pieces, but delivery delays from the Kirov workshops have meant that this important modification was rarely carried out. The goods yard at Stalinabad itself is in a state of chaos and it has been admitted that large scale and urgent improvements are necessary to deal with the increasing flow of freight. Despite enormous fines imposed on customers who fail to take delivery by a specified time, sidings are so badly blocked that locomotive drivers find it difficult to manoeuvre. The Stalin kolkhoz was criticised for failing to collect seventy wagon loads of timber in December 1953, even though there was a fleet of forty cars and trucks at its disposal. Parts for pre-fabricated houses and agricultural machinery lie rusting in the open at the Glavselkhoz siding. It is freely admitted that not only must "bureaucratic formalism" be overcome, but that **shock brigades** are necessary to restore order; however, of the thirty-four union and republican trusts to whom the sidings belong, only eleven have agreed to work twenty-four hour shifts. Practically all handling of freight at Stalinabad is carried on manually; a state of affairs which does not seem to cause local Party organisations much worry.

Conditions on the broad-gauge Ashkhabad line are better, but again officials complain of the failure of customers to take delivery on time. Thus at Melnikovo a consignment of timber, coal, hydro-turbine parts and building materials, together with 3000 tons of superphosphates delivered on 9th October was still awaiting collection at the end of the year, while ninety tons of mixed freight lie unclaimed at the Isfara goods yard.

Obviously the shortage of both skilled and unskilled labour has

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contributed largely to this state of affairs; recently ninety-eight young stokers and assistant engine drivers from Railway School No. 1. at Stalinabad were found to be below standard as they had been unable for various reasons to complete the full curriculum. Considering this shortage it is interesting to see from time to time advertisements in the local press for workers to leave Tadjikistan and take employment in the Urals or in Siberia. Concessions on the scale of non-recoverable grants of 300-600 rubles for a one-year contract or double for 2-year contracts, are given, and the men are allowed 240 kgs of luggage plus 80 kgs for each member of the family. Normal working conditions and living accomodation are guaranteed.

Finally, for the long suffering fare-paying passenger, hotel accomodation is extremely difficult, and recently, in Stalinabad, Kanibadam, Pakhtaabad and Ura-Tyube, was restricted to passengers on official duty, thus leaving those unfortunates who had travelled long distances on private business completely stranded. Even when obtainable, hotel accomodation is primitive in the extreme and food unappetizing and expensive.

Roads

Although available press reports on the actual condition of roads radiating from Stalinabad, or running into Eastern Tadjikistan, and of the Osh highway to Khorog, are scanty, the fact that motor-coach services are in operation on these and less important routes indicates that the surfaces must be in a reasonable state of repair. Stalinabad is now linked by motor-coach with Dzhihlikul, Voroshilovabad, and Shaartuz in the south, and with Komsomolabad, Novabad, Garm and Obi-Garm in the east. There are through services from Leninabad to Stalinabad, and to Asht in the north-east of the Leninabad oblast. During the two and a half years prior to November 1953 the number of coaches in service increased by 21 per cent enabling in addition the maintenance of regular services from Stalinabad to Koktash and Ordzhonikidzeabad in the east, and Gissar and Shakhrinau in the west. There has been some criticism of bad maintenance of buses and of irregular and inadequate services in Stalinabad itself where the number of vehicles has not kept pace with the increase in population; here too there is evidence of lack of intelligent supervision. In spite of the poor surface of many roads in the town, the construction of a further 11½ km of trolley-bus routes is to be started shortly. There have been complaints from the new towns of Isfara and Shurab that a proper bus service has not yet been introduced.

Civil Aviation

The essential and growing part to be played by Civil Aviation in the development of Tadjikistan has been understood, and it has been

officially stated that there are sufficient fast passenger and freight aircraft available to fulfil present commitments, while agriculture and hospitals are adequately served by lighter machines. In January 1954 the Director of Civil Aviation, Menshikov said that passenger and freight lifts are to be considerably increased during the course of the year, and that more attention is to be paid to the equipment of airfields and the comfort of passengers. Regular direct connexions with Moscow, Mineralnye-Vody and the oblast centres, or via Tashkent to other parts of the Soviet Union are to be maintained; new hotels and restaurants are to be opened at certain airfields and amenities generally improved. Combined tickets valid for air, rail and sea routes are to be introduced.

Post, Telephones and Telegraph

Improved technique and the more efficient and extensive use of motor-transport has resulted in the considerable improvement of the postal services, an economy of ten per cent being achieved in the first quarter of 1953. New postal routes have been inaugurated and mail vans now service the Gissar, Shakhrinau, Regar and Pakhtaabad raions; republican newspapers now reach subscribers in these areas on the day of issue. Similarly deliveries have been improved along the routes Stalinabad - Koktash - Dagan Kiil - Kuigysehvsik - Kurgan-Tyube - Oktyabrsk - Kaganovichabad - Dzhilikul - Voroshilovabad and Molotovabad, and between Stalinabad and Ordzhonikidzeabad.

Failings in the postal services have however, been sharply criticized in the press. Revenues in 1952 were only 95.6 per cent of the yearly estimate, and there have been many cases of delayed delivery and wrong routing of mailbags. It was claimed in April 1953 that the dispatch of mail from Stalinabad had improved considerably, but the situation in outlying districts still leaves much to be desired. For example, there is but one post-office in the Dangara raion, which is cleared only once in five days; it sells neither stamps nor stationery, and does not accept mail for dispatch. Considerable delays have been experienced in Kolkhozchionski raion: bags from Stalinabad were held up en route at the Pendshikent Post Office and reached their destination only on the seventh day. Newspapers pile up at rural post-offices, and in the Gissar raion more than 5000 subscribers once waited months for their reading matter, the reason being that the postmaster of the Novabad Kishlak Soviet would not detail a postman to serve the Lenin Kolkhoz unless the Kolkhoz provided transport i.e. a horse. Post Offices too, often fail to pay war and old age pensions on time; even though they are under obligation to pay pensioners from house to house; the Leninabad, Kulyab and Garm oblasts have been the worst offenders in this respect. The operation of the postal services is a union responsibility and steps are taken from time to time to remedy deficiencies.

Recent information on the telephone and telegraph systems is scant. It was announced in February 1953 that telephone and telegraph systems had been overhauled and where necessary repaired in connexion with the local elections. The Stalinabad Telephone Exchange operated successfully in 1952, receipts being 5 per cent in excess of the plan. All repairs were up to schedule, maintenance improved and new installations were found to be more reliable. The average time taken to put through a call has been reduced from 4 to 2.8 seconds.

Telephone systems are being installed in the large kolkhozes, such as the Karl Marx, where communication had previously been by horsed messenger. The standards necessary for graduation from the special Communications Schools are to be raised, but the shortage of equipment for training purposes was proving a handicap.

Broadcasting

Considerable emphasis has been laid by the Press on the widening field covered by the broadcasting system and the consequent advantages enjoyed by more and more listeners, not only in the towns, but particularly in workers' settlements, among kolkhoz kishlaks and isolated kolkhoz workers, such as the Chabans (shepherds), who spend their days on remote mountain pastures. Every house in the Lenin Kolkhoz and 400 houses at a kolkhoz in Pendzhikent are now wired for reception. Radio Moscow is now clearly audible.

The seventh Conference of the Tadzhik Communist Party stressed that the ideological level of broadcasting should be raised and old equipment renewed thus ensuring better quality in transmission generally. However, there are still cases of transmission failure and bad reception due partly to technical breakdowns, but also in many cases to the slipshod attitude of radio exchange operators, many of whom lack experience. For example, at the Shaartuz radio exchange, programmes are often between 15-40 minutes behind schedule, while at Dagankiik there have been cases of operators being drunk when supposedly on duty. Relays in this area have often been subject to ten-day interruptions, and there have also been complaints from the Zhdanov kolkhoz and from Novabad and Komsomolabad.

The quality of news broadcasts, Party talks, agricultural and cultural programmes does not arouse much criticism for, although adapted for local listeners, they are evidently centrally directed. Musical programmes, on the other hand, have been the target of considerable invective; they are said to be monotonous in the extreme, concerts being long drawn out and usually consisting of native music which is so familiar to listeners that all novelty is lost. The Tadzhik National Orchestra is rarely heard, accompaniment usually being provided one or two instruments only. Vocalists are poor and the choir of the Stalinabad Station is well known for its low musical standard; it

consists of eighteen choristers only capable of singing in unison. The musical repertoire is very limited, and for years the popular singer Galibova has rendered over and over again the same songs by the well-known Mirzo Tursun Zade, although these are sung not in the vernacular but in a most inadequate Russian translation. Tadjhik composers have been included in the general criticism for their failure to create any music of merit during the past few years, thus making the selection of a more varied programme well-nigh impossible.

To remedy the situation Radio Stalinabad is called upon to bring Tadjhik broadcasting to the level of that of Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan by introducing more variety into the programmes. The specific suggestion has been advanced that a regular practice should be made of using Tadjhik translations of Soviet and Russian folk songs and of Russian and western operatic songs and choral music.

Sources

Central Asian Press

ROMANCE VERSUS REALISM

In January last an article appeared in the Moscow humorous weekly Krokodil under the title "Khozain vsegda ostayetsya khozainom" (Once master - always master). The article is a criticism of the reports sent by Salisbury, foreign correspondent to the New York Times, during a recent tour of Central Asia, and of the editorial comments on them. The author of the original article is Sadriddin Aini, a prominent Tadzhik intellectual and exponent of the orthodox Party line, a description of whose life and literary work appeared in Central Asian Review, No. 2. of 1953.

Commenting generally on the reports, Aini maintains that the correspondent did not entirely obscure the positive aspects in the life of the Central Asian peoples, but that these were represented in such a way as to appear in a purely negative sense. Writing of Samarkand the correspondent had said that although the restoration of old buildings and monuments was proceeding apace, the romanticism of the Golden City had gone forever. To Aini this is not a matter for regret. He writes:

"Of course we cherish and venerate the monuments created by the art and toil of our predecessors; but can we regard as romantic the epoch which gave birth to these creations?"

and he goes on to quote the nineteenth-century Hungarian orientalist Vambery "who as it happens was a faithful servant of British Imperialism." In the middle of the nineteenth century Vambery visited Central Asia, and in his book on his travels there he interspersed his vivid descriptions of the wonders and opulence of the historic monuments at the time of Tamerlane, with an account of the condition of the inhabitants, who, as a result of the shortage of dwellings, were rendered homeless and had to seek refuge in caves and under trees where they were to be found summer and winter.

"It is hardly likely" writes Aini "that people who had themselves experienced the 'delights' of this life thought it romantic, nor does it appear so to the eyes of our contemporaries who have thrown off the chains which bound them to such an existence.... Only a few decades ago" he goes on "all the raw silk was exported from Central Asia to Milan, where, after being manufactured it was sold and the proceeds were shared out among the magnates. To-day our powerful silk-weaving industries produce millions of metres of high-quality silk which, in the present order of things, are supplied to shops all over the Soviet Union..... I do not think that the correspondent can be ignorant of these facts. He probably bewails not so much the vanished romanticism of the Golden City as the fact that since the setting up of the Soviet rule, this rich and free land has passed beyond the grasp of all imperialists of whatever calibre."

Aini next takes up the point made by the correspondent that the fabulous bazaar and market squares of old Bukhara are no more; that in their stead is a local kolkhoz market and a medium-sized universal store where goods similar to those available in Moscow are being sold.

"I do not know by what means the correspondent managed to discover only one store in Bukhara" counters Aini "but he withheld further particulars of the local kolkhoz market. Apparently he remained unimpressed by the enormous piles of fruit, vegetables and other foods about which there really is nothing romantic."

"The correspondent regrets the bygone splendour of Toki Sarafon and Toki Sargaron, the former of which he describes as the haunt of famous money lenders and the latter as a market of goldsmiths and jewellery merchants. In reality, these were dens of speculators and dishonest moneylenders. Our people had a saying 'if you fail to catch a thief one must hang in his place the saraf or sargar!' i.e. the moneylender or the goldsmith, as they are both inveterate rogues. When the correspondent therefore sheds tears because in Toki Sarafon they no longer exchange one counterfeit coin for another but stable Soviet rubles for ripe melons we really cannot comfort him."

After several scathing asides about bourgeois journalism in general, Aini fastens on the editorial which was devoted to the correspondent's despatches. This editorial, he claims, gives a wholly misleading and distorted impression of conditions in Central Asia and plainly hints at a colonial regime there. It interprets the correspondent's statement that in the shops of Samarkand one can buy 'Kreml' scent, 'Moskvichi' wireless sets, 'Pobeda' wrist watches and wooden Russian dolls, as a sign of the suppression of national culture. It also deplores the fact that from the point of view of propaganda, Central Asia is undoubtedly one of the trump cards used by the Soviet Union in attracting Africa and Asia; and suggests that figures quoted by the government for schools and doctors provided by the Soviet regime are but an idle boast used as a basis for an unjustifiable comparison with the conditions prevailing in Persia, India and similar countries.

Aini challenged the truth of this statement. He admits that in the despatches there is no mention of schools and doctors but claims that

"during his stay in Stalinabad the correspondent had visited a number of schools, the Tadzhik Academy of Sciences and other institutes of higher education, among them the Faculty of Medicine whose annual output of graduates is around 500, and whose clinics and laboratories are provided with the most up-to-date equipment. He also visited schools in Tashkent, Samarkand and other cities of Central Asia and was thus in a position to inform his readers that even in kishlaks, not

to speak of towns, there are large numbers of seven-year schools as well as secondary ten-year schools annually qualifying students for the higher educational institutions. But all this has somehow dropped out of the correspondent's field of vision; he noticed only a clean hotel with hot and cold water and a daily change of linen. That at any rate is the impression one gets from his article."

The opinion expressed in the editorial that the native population of Central Asia are treated as citizens of the second rank and are subject to discrimination, provokes the rejoinder from Aini that this was a strange charge to be made by the gentlemen who subscribed to the Hitlerite idea of the 'master race'.

In the last section of his article Aini counters the charge that the Soviet regime terrorized the Central Asians into giving up their nomadic way of life.

"Which is the better" he asks "a nomadic way of life in the steppe in heat and frost or a settled one in a comfortable home? I remember how difficult was the life of the nomads dressed from head to foot in sheepskin, their fate depending on the caprice of merciless nature, which often brought death to them and their flocks..... Every spring and autumn merchants would set out to the nomads and rake in enormous profits by exchanging third-rate goods (often even cloth for burial shrouds) for herds of horses and sheep..... The days of the Emirate are long past; the former nomads are now leading a settled life and working in normal conditions. The best medical and veterinary service is now at their disposal enabling them to safeguard themselves and their flocks from illness and extinction. To my mind" he concludes "there can be no two answers to the above question."

K I R G I Z I A

THE ORTO-TOKOI AND CHU VALLEY IRRIGATION PROJECTS

The aim of the big Orto-Tokoi and Chu Valley irrigation projects is the further development of agriculture in the fertile Chu Valley, including the expansion of its sugar-beet industry. This Valley is the most thickly populated region of northern Kirgizia and the centre of its light industry, besides being an important agricultural district. It has a relatively warm climate and fertile soil, and has naturally attracted settlers from all parts of the USSR so that a third of its inhabitants today are Russians, Ukrainians and Uzbeks.

The Valley was originally a cattle-raising and grain area. Of late, fibre crops including hemp and kenaf (*hisbiscus cannabinus*) have been grown. But the most important of all changes in its economic pattern has been the introduction and development of sugar-beet crops. The Valley is in fact now called the "Sugar Valley" and a recent article in this Review described the progress made with this crop and the sugar-refining industry in recent years. There have been other developments in new directions to vary the agricultural pattern - large-scale market gardening, and the planting of orchards and vineyards, all of which are reported to be very successful.

The major problem of the region is its water supply. Much depends on the Chu River and the use of its waters to the best possible effect. Near the Chumysh Rocks in the north-western part of the Valley, a dam has been built to create a reservoir which supplies the Georgiyevka and Atbashi Canals. This canal system covers some 800 km. The tributaries of the river have been harnessed to supply power to various regions. But further development was threatened by the lack of water, and in the late thirties it was realized that the resources of the Chu would have to be conserved by means of a larger reservoir which would store the surplus waters coming down in the late summer after the melting of the glaciers, instead of allowing them to rush down and get lost in the arid steppes into which the Chu ultimately disappears.

The plan for the Great Chu Canal and the Orto-Tokoi Reservoir took shape in 1940. By the following spring construction of the canal was started and more than 40,000 kolkhoz peasants, engineers and technicians were at work. The task was interrupted by the war and only resumed in 1951, when the processes were largely mechanized.

The site of the Orto-Tokoi reservoir

The site of the big dam and reservoir is roughly 9.5 miles west of Lake

Issyk-Kul at 76°5' deg. E. Longitude and 42°20' deg. N. Latitude. It lies in the Boam Gorge between the Kirgiz Range and the Kungei Ala-Tau and the dam is being erected about 15 miles south-west of Rybachye village. Above the river the modern Naryn highway runs along the old caravan route which linked Bukhara and Samarkand with Sinkiang. The Chu flows along the gorge where the tall 2,000-metre high granite masses come close together forming a very narrow passage for the length of one km. Above this bottleneck there is a remarkable natural granite reservoir of immense capacity.

The value of such a natural reservoir is evident from the fact that the Chu, rising in the Tien Shan mountains, flows first east towards Lake Issyk-Kul and then west and north-west into Kazakhstan where it loses itself in the desert steppes. It has a very low water level in May and June when its waters are most needed for crops, while in July and later there is a great surplus of water from the melting snows and glaciers, which runs to waste in the desert. There is a further wastage in autumn and winter.

The projects

The twin projects now being carried out are firstly the damming of the great granite fissures so that the waters of the Chu river not needed for immediate irrigation are held back in the granite bowl of the gorge, and secondly the simultaneous extension of the canal system in the Chu Valley below and the completion of the Great Chu Canal. Both projects form part of the fifth Five-Year Plan of 1951-55. The dam is to be 56 metres high and in its lower part will be over 500 metres wide. The reservoir above it will be 16 km. long from three to five km wide and is expected to hold 500 m. cubic metres of water.

An unusual feature of the reservoir is the cutting of a 570-metre tunnel through the solid rock, into which the waters of the river are being diverted. This not only enables the construction of the dam to be carried out on a dry river-bed but will serve as a substitute for sluice-gates for the control of the flow of water through the completed system.

The canal system was started in 1941. Employing the so-called method of narodnaya stroika (i.e. the use of mass manual labour on construction work). 145 km. of the western branch of the Great Chu Canal were completed within two months. This has irrigated about 25,000 ha. in the Chu Valley, and new hydro-electric stations have provided Frunze and the surrounding kolkhozes with power. Early in 1953, the 175 remaining kilometres of the western branch were completed and the construction of the eastern branch was taken up. This will irrigate some 28,000 ha. in five raions of Kirgizia. Besides feeding a big irrigation network the Great Chu Canal will be used to operate a number

of small power-stations; its surplus water will be directed into a bypass canal to be poured back into the main stream of the Chu River. Subsidiary reservoirs will also be built on tributaries of the river. There are to be 2 dams of 12 to 16 metres in height on the Sukuluk, each with a capacity of 15 m. cubic metres, and two 9-metre high dams on the Altyn-Sorgan river, each with a capacity of 3 m. cubic metres.

The dam and reservoir

The Orto-Tokoi hollow is being turned into a giant reservoir by throwing a dam across the bed of the river. It is expected that, if the programme of work laid down for 1954 is carried out on time, the reservoir will be operative by 1956. In its construction millions of cubic metres of stone and rock have been brought to the site so as to save concrete and steel.

The construction of the dam is fully mechanized, and appears to be going forward at a quickening pace. Large quantities of new machinery reached the site in 1953, including tip-lorries of $3\frac{1}{2}$ ton capacity and dump-cars for the carrying of rock to the dam. Last July the dam was stated to have risen to a height of seven metres. When the tunnel has taken the waters of the main stream, the bed of the river at the dam site will be dry so that work can proceed across the entire width of the gorge. This will mean considerable acceleration of the pace of dam building, which has involved the removal of alluvial deposits up to three metres thick and the blasting of frozen ground.

Progress was behind schedule last year before the spring, but by the summer individual excavators were yielding more than 8,500 cubic metres of rock per month against a quote of 5,000 cubic metres. New "E-505" excavators received in April were turning out on an average 150 per cent of their set norms by the summer. A powerful "E-754" excavator has been delivered which loads a 4-ton lorry in 57 to 59 seconds and reached the monthly norm in 13 working days. On 29th January of this year a local paper reported that excavator teams were getting ready for work on a wide front in spring.

Underground course for the Chu

The 570-metre tunnel which provides the Chu with a new course has been hailed as the biggest and most complicated part of the whole project. It was cut through tough syenite rock from both ends simultaneously, and there were problems of underground waters and of landfalls to be faced. As the new course of the river, it has to be strong enough to stand up to a colossal pressure of water, and so not only the walls of the tunnel, but also the surrounding cliffs, are being reinforced with cement.

The tunnel should have received the waters of the river by last autumn. By December 1952, 266 metres of the total length had been excavated. By early May 1953, 370 metres of the tunnel had been cut and on 19th December, 1953, the excavation was completed. Early this year the tunnel was being lined with concrete, more than 4,000 cubic metres of concrete having been earmarked for the purpose.

As mentioned already the tunnel will serve a long-term purpose as well as the more immediate one of drying the river-bed for the building of the dam: with its movable shields at either end, it will be used as a regulator of the water supply to the river below. During the winter and spring months the river below the tunnel will depend on the tributaries which join the lower part of its course. In the dry summer months the water stored in the reservoir will be allowed to flow through the tunnel to give the river below and its canal system all the water they need.

Recruitment of labour

The carrying out of a major irrigation project at an altitude of 2,000 metres has been described by P.P. Glushanov, the chief engineer, as unique, and it is only to be expected that many problems besides those of water, stone and concrete should have arisen in its execution. Hundreds of skilled workers are needed and, in the hitherto undeveloped area, they have had to be supplied with all the necessities of life. No description of the undertaking would be complete without some account of how the workers have been found and looked after.

Most of the labour recruited for the scheme is from the ranks of the kolkhoz peasants of the Tien Shan and Issyk-Kul oblasts of Kirgizia, and about 60 per cent of all employees working at the site are Kirgiz. New workers arrive daily at the site and there is a great demand for skilled hands. This is because the workers tend to leave the project in search of better jobs.

In view of the fact that the local labour force is almost wholly composed of casual labour, training courses have had to be organized at the site for mechanics and drivers of lorries, tractors, excavators and bulldozers. These courses have been in progress since last summer; earlier still, masons, carpenters and other building craftsmen were being recruited. Building staff, electricians and Diesel mechanics with proper qualifications are badly needed to replace untrained workers. The local press blames the Council of Ministers of the Kirgiz SSR for not making sufficient provision in advance for properly trained workers. Sovyeteskaya Kirgizia states that the republic has the hydro-electric specialists badly needed for the project, but that these men prefer working on planning organizations or in research institutes to serving at Orto-Tokoi.

Progress of the new settlement

The provision of good living conditions is another matter of importance in carrying out a project of this type; and at Orto-Tokoi the newest settlement in Kirgizia has come into being. It spreads over a fair area on both banks of the Chu and has a large number of flats, houses, hostels, a club, a school, and a hospital. There are shops, municipal and other services, including a library. New flats and houses are coming up rapidly, but they are not able to keep pace with the needs of the growing population. Last autumn more than 100 flats were completed, a park was laid out in the rocky terrain for which trenches had to be dug and filled with soil brought here specially for the purpose. A number of new blocks of flats, which are being built on the left bank of the river for temporary occupation by the builders of the project, will later house the permanent staff of power-stations and other industrial concerns which are to be established here. Ten such blocks were completed at the end of 1953 as well as a secondary school, a club and other buildings. A hydro-electric power-station had been built and about 5 km. of power lines have been laid linking the tunnel, the dam site, the quarries and the settlement.

There have been complaints of the lack of amenities and of poor arrangements for the supply of food and consumer goods. Representatives of various ministries of the Kirgiz SSR have visited the site and undertaken to improve matters. The tendency in the first instance has been to concentrate on industrial building rather than on good housing and amenities for the worker, hence the reluctance of skilled workers to volunteer for service here. There has, however, been a slow improvement in conditions since the beginning of 1953.

The Great Chu Canal

The eastern branch of the Great Chu Canal is now being excavated. It will be 120 km. in length and most of the work is being carried out with the help of excavating machines, manual labour being adopted only for some 26 km. The work involves the excavation of two million cubic metres of earth and the erection of several large hydro-electric stations. Tens of thousands of kolkhoz workers from a number of raions are employed along the canal route. The excavating machinery used is of Soviet design, and in 1952 carried out 94 per cent of all the excavation work done.

The increase in mechanization since the Great Chu Canal scheme was first drawn up has led to a number of financial problems as to how the cost of the undertaking should be distributed. The first plan was for the use of masses of kolkhoz labourers working with their hands in the execution of an undertaking which would bring great benefits to their own kolkhoz. The pre-war blueprints and estimates have, however, become somewhat out-of-date, and the planning office of the Sredazgidrovod-

khlopok (Central Asian Hydro-Cotton Project) which has the responsibility for bringing the scheme up-to-date, has been rather slow in its task.

Because there is a smaller demand for manual labour from the kolkhozes, these are now only contributing in labour five or six per cent of the total excavation work. They are thus drawing benefits from the use of machines which have been paid for out of the budget of the republic, and it is felt in some quarters that a financial contribution should replace the contribution in kind which would have been made under the pre-war plans.

I. Vovchenko, who is chief of both the Orto-Tokoi and the Great Chu Canal projects, has written that the time is past for the old narodnaya stroika method and that payment in kind should be replaced by payment in cash by the kolkhozes which stand to gain from the canals. The suggestion has also been made in the press that the kolkhozes should create special units (building brigades) to work permanently on the Orto-Tokoi scheme. The idea has been mooted of organizing a "socialist emulation drive" in order to interest as many people as possible in the projects.

Outlook for the future

Assuming that the growing pains of the newly-settled areas are overcome and that the technical difficulties and problems of financial adjustment will be resolved, a period of increasing prosperity can be foreseen for the whole region. The improved supply of water will not only feed the area that has been brought into cultivation for the first time with the building of the Great Chu Canal, but will also benefit other regions; and it is reckoned that, in all, 100,000 hectares or more will gain from it. The eastern branch of the canal, for example, is expected to feed a fair area which has in the past relied entirely on small hill rivers.

Besides serving the sugar-beet fields the new projects will increase the area of pasture-land and thus help in raising more cattle. They should lead to a fivefold increase in the output of cotton. A big extension of fruit-growing is expected and in the processing of fruits and vegetables. The power position should be much improved, especially in the town of Frunze, and to serve the newly developed regions a network of roads will be built which will connect the remotest farm districts with the towns of the outside world.

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T U R K M E N I S T A N

DEVELOPMENTS IN THE OILFIELDS

The Turkmen oilfields are fifth in importance among the oil-producing regions of the Soviet Union. The output of crude oil is over six times the figure for 1940, and the increase in each successive year has been from 16 to 21 per cent of the previous year's figure. The Turkmenneft Kombinat, which controls the fields, has overtaken the Grozneft and the Krasnodarneft in the Northern Caucasus. It is now only behind the Baku Region, Bashkiria, Tataria and Kuibyshev Province.

Organization

The Turkmenneft Kombinat consists of the following trusts:

- A. Three oil-producing trusts - Nebitdagneft, Kumdagneft and Chelekenneft.
- B. Turkmennefterazvedka - the Turkmen Oil Trust for prospecting and exploratory drilling.
- C. Turkmenburneft - the Turkmen trust for development drilling.
- D. Turkmenneftestroi - the Turkmen Oil Trust for the building of oil installations, workmen's quarters etc.
- E. Turkmenneftezavody - the Turkmen Trust of Oil Refineries.

The original source of oil in the area was the island of Cheleken, which has become a peninsula owing to the fall in the level of the Caspian Sea since 1929. Nebit-Dag has been in production since 1932 and Kum-Dag since 1951. The two latter fields have brought about a great change in the oil situation and there is no doubt that the region has a great potential. At the moment the factor that is limiting development is the rate at which building work is executed. With modern equipment and pipe-lines, the new centres of Nebit-Dag and Kum-Dag have quickly become important, but their output could be increased even more if the construction programme of the Turkmenneftestroi were carried out more efficiently.

Crude oil production

No cut and dried figures for actual production of crude oil by the

Turkmenneft Kombinat have been published since the war, but it is possible to infer with a fair degree of accuracy from percentage statistics what the output must be. Thus the Turkmenskaya Iskra statement that the planned output of the Turkmenneft for 1950 was exceeded by 83 per cent indicates that it must have reached about 2,020,000 tons, against a scheduled 1,104,000 tons. The first post-war Five-Year Plan (1945-1950) set a target figure which was reached by November 1948. The output of 1951 was 17.2 per cent above that of 1950 which comes to about 2,365,000 tons. The yield for 1952 was 32 per cent higher than that for 1950 or approximately 2,667,000 tons, while the 1953 figure, said to be higher by 37.5 per cent than 1951, must have been about 3,255,000 tons. The last figure represents six times the pre-war yield of the Turkmenneft, and from the rate at which production has risen in the last three years, it is quite possible that the Turkmenskaya Iskra forecast that the output will be doubled between 1950 and 1955 will be more than fulfilled.

Although the 1953 quota was achieved ahead of time and there is every possibility of the yield reaching 4.m. tons in 1955, it is clear from various critical references that the fields are not being fully worked even with present equipment and potential. Plans for mechanization are not being carried out and secondary recovery methods are not being introduced with enough efficiency.

There is a good deal of loss of output due to needlessly prolonged suspensions of the operation of wells. This is caused by accidents or the need for minor repairs, and as many as 25 per cent of the wells have been idle at a time. In this way hundreds of working hours are lost. Failure to observe the rules for development of the wells causes further falls in output, and matters are not improved by the unsatisfactory power, gas and water services. A tendency is often noticed to abandon a well if it does not yield a sufficient quantity of crude oil at the outset, and no effort is made to develop it further.

Thus while the oilmen are delivering the oil required of them -- and in 1953 appear to have exceeded their quota by several train-loads -- there is a lack of drive which keeps the fields from attaining the maximum possible results. The drilling of newly discovered reserves is not going ahead at the expected rate and it is felt that costs of extraction and drilling might be reduced.

Generally, a number of fields were reported to be doing better in 1953 than in 1952 in the matter of reaching their production norms. This was stated at a conference at Krasnovodsk last summer when Lepikhov, Secretary of the Krasnovodsk Regional Committee of the Turkmenistan Communist Party, specifically mentioned Fields Nos. 1 and 2 of the Nebitdagneft and No. 3 of the Kundagneft, the drilling offices of the Turkmenburneft and Turkmennefterazvedka, and the Krasnovodsk Refineries as showing improved working.

The Nebitdagneft

The Nebitdagneft has four oilfields situated 135 km south-east of Krasnovodsk and 27 km south-west of the Trans-Caspian railway line. A local line connects the fields with the main line at Nebit-Dag junction.

The production position at Nebit-Dag is satisfactory so far. During the first two weeks of January 1954 the output was 100.9 per cent of the quota laid down, Field No. 2 showing the best results. The number of temporarily inoperative wells was reduced by an extension of the "inter-overhauling period" of the wells.

The efficient organization of the underground repair of wells, a matter of vital importance in any oilfield, ensured a rise in the output of crude oil. A big reduction in the time taken in such repair work can lead to an increase in the average daily output of a well by several tons. As an example at Well No. 706 the time taken over repairs was cut down to 24 hours in November 1953 as against a set norm of 66 hours. A number of idle wells are being brought back into production in the fields of the Nebitdagneft. Some repair teams have succeeded in bringing idle wells into operation at the rate of five wells per team per month.

A big problem is presented by the clogging of oil pipes by waxy deposits and salt in the wells. In the past it has been necessary to lift out the whole system of pipes fairly often for the removal of wax and of all corrosion, and this kept a well idle for days at a time. Now the method of forcing hot steam and compressed air into the wells is being tried. The effect is to loosen the wax by melting, so that it comes out with the crude oil which is raised later. The rust also is loosened and removed by the pressure. This means a trebling of the period between overhauls of wells with a resultant cut in stoppages and an increase in output figures.

Another method by which the output of individual wells has been increased is by the use of deep-pumping methods in place of the earlier use of compressors. The change in the case of Well No. 381 led to a twentyfold increase in the daily yield.

Field Statistics

In Field No. 1 of the Nebitdagneft the output of crude oil during 1953 kept steadily in excess of the planned quota. A number of new wells were completed ahead of time. Well No. 397, which was flowing previously, was put on to compressor operation and its output of crude oil was doubled. Wells Nos. 666, 720 and 685 were brought back into operation. At Well No. 720 the removal of waxy deposits led to an increase of 12 tons in the daily output of crude oil. In all, 15 temporarily inoperative wells were

put into production once again. A switch over from the compressor to the deep-pumping method of operation took place at 31 wells.

In Field No. 2 the production situation was also good in 1953. The costs of crude oil were reduced by seven per cent. For the whole field, in October 1953 the crude oil output was 101.2 per cent of the set quota. Individual teams reached figures of as much as 115.5 per cent of their quotas. Thirteen wells were put on to the deep-pumping method of operation and 11 temporarily suspended wells were put back into production. A definite development regime was chosen for 94 per cent of the wells in production in the field after the adoption of a large number of "geologo-technical prophylactic measures." i.e. the preliminary overhaul of wells.

In Field No. 4 also, a number of wells have been brought into operation once more, while Wells Nos. 316, 355, 640 and 680 were converted from compressor to deep-pumping operation. Well No. 238 was producing about 50 tons of crude oil daily in November 1953.

The Kumdagneft

The Kum-Dag oilfields, at which industrial production commenced as recently as 1951, are about 25 km south of Nebit-Dag. Geophysical prospecting undertaken in 1947 was followed by exploratory drilling in 1949-50. The first indications of the presence of oil were obtained in 1950.

At the end of 1953 three oilfields were in operation in the area; the former desert is now covered with derricks and a new town has sprung up at Kum-Dag. During 1952 already several thousands of tons of crude oil were obtained over and above the quota. Costs were cut by 8.5 per cent. In 1953 the monthly targets were exceeded month after month. The output for the year was 110 per cent of the quota and operation costs were cut by a further three per cent. The yield of crude oil was 21.5 per cent better than in 1952.

With regard to the individual fields, Field No.1 is stated to have to have shown an increase in yield lately with better organization and new development methods. Field No.2 is considered the best of the three operated by the trust. Output in 1953 was 50 per cent higher than in 1952 and every day hundreds of tons of crude oil are being obtained over and above the planned quota. Field No. 3 also produced its planned yield of crude oil. A number of oil wells were overhauled in less than the scheduled time and in some cases outputs were 159 per cent of the scheduled figure.

The generally satisfactory position at Kum-Dag was in part due to

improvements in drilling and the resultant economies achieved. In October 1953 two new wells were completed. Both the drilling trusts, the one concerned with prospecting and the other with the actual boring of wells, did all that was expected of them. Economies effected as a result of work by S. Udayev in the Kum-Dag region will be described later in this article.

The Chelekenneft

Crude oil production in the Cheleken peninsula was down to 6,000 to 8,000 tons a year before the Second World War because of the exhaustion of the strata from which existing wells drew their oil. New deposits have since been discovered in deeper strata, and considerable efforts are being made to increase the output of the fields here.

There is scope for increased cooperation between the Academy of Sciences and its affiliated institutes on the one hand, and the oil experts on the other, in solving a number of problems of the oil industry. Flooding of wells is a fairly common problem in the Turkmenneft fields and up-to-date methods of production are not introduced with all possible speed.

Drilling: prospecting and well-boring

There was an improvement in the working of both the specialized trusts concerned with drilling during 1953 after the indifferent performance in 1952 when drilling quotas were not realized. Even so, it is felt that things might be done in a more efficient manner. There are accidents, mistakes and delays in getting essential equipment and material; and the stoppage of work that these cause while matters are being rectified lead to a big loss of working hours. Such stoppages have at times totalled 33 per cent of the working time. The supervision of drilling is not adequate and the shortage of really qualified technicians, and poor working discipline are reflected in the failure to keep to schedules. The consumption of piping, brown coal and other materials is also wasteful.

Things were worse in 1952 when the Turkmennefterazvedka failed to carry out its allotted prospecting tasks. Its exploratory work continued behind schedule in 1953 as well in the Cheleken peninsula. Misuse of equipment and materials led to a rise in the cost of drilling of 115 rubles per metre for development drilling and 181 rubles per metre for exploratory drilling; and millions of rubles were wasted in this way.

The improvement in 1953 was marked. The footage of development drilling for the early months of 1953 was 79 per cent over that of the same period in 1952. Both the prospecting and the well-boring organiz-

ation reported drillings in excess of quotas by several thousand metres, particularly good results being recorded in the Kum-Dag and Vyshka fields. In a number of individual cases average drilling speeds were four times those of 1940. In that year the rate of progress was not more than 369 metres per rig per month; in 1953 at Kum-Dag the average drilling speed reached 1,260 metres per month against a planned 760 metres. An outstanding record was that of a team of Drilling Unit No. 3 which did 410 metres in eight working days. The rise of drilling speeds is mainly due to the introduction of turbine drilling which is being gradually adopted throughout the oilfields.

Mention must be made of another improvement. Experiments over several years and a study of the geological strata at Kum-Dag have shown that, under the existing layer pressure, the development drilling of shallow wells does not necessitate the use of 12-14 inch casing strings. This finding, tested by S. Udayev, has led to a saving of over 3,000 metres of 12-inch casing and of many tons of cement for a single drilling office of the Turkmenburneft alone.

Labour: training and initiative

The growing oil industry calls for more and more skilled technicians, and local opinion, as reflected in the newspaper Turkmenskaya Iskra, is alive to the need for training and in particular for the training of Turkmen workers. Early this year only 27 per cent of all the workers in the oilfields of the republic were Turkmen.

At Ashkhabad there is an oil technicum for training drilling technicians, oil operators, and other skilled hands. Tuition is in Russian. The course lasts four years for those joining the first year. Those who enter in the third year after having completed ten-year secondary school complete the course in two and a half years. Students receive government scholarships which vary in value according to their seniority from 285 to 390 rubles a month.

To train young Turkmen workers for the oil industry an industrial school was opened a few years ago at Nebit-Dag. The press is anxious to go further and to have a new faculty created at Ashkhabad University to deal with petroleum -- both the extraction of crude oil and its refining.

"Rationalization" and "rationalizers"

"Rationalization", i.e. the introduction of new helpful ideas has a special significance in industry in the Soviet Union; in 1953 154 workers of the Turkmenneft received the title of "rationalizer and

inventor." Helpful ideas from the workers have contributed to the increased output of crude oil. The Kombinat registered over 450 suggestions of which 227 were adopted and these are estimated to have saved 1.5 million rubles. A further 70 useful ideas will be adopted soon and should lead to the release of scores of hands, increased output and a simplifying of industrial processes.

But sometimes it appears technicians to not appreciate new ideas and do not want to be troubled with them. A suggestion for building a lifting crane to instal electric motors on the platforms of pumping-jacks was left on a file for two months while the heavy motor, weighing 500 kgm was lifted by manual labour to a height of three metres.

Construction tasks

The Turkmenneftestroi is trying hard to improve the rate of building work in the oilfields. It did not carry out its programme for last year on time, and showed no definite improvement in its pace in the first half of the year to suggest that arrears were being dealt with. Efforts at "shock work" (shturmovshchina) only upset the balance of work. Labour productivity is below normal, mechanized equipment is not used effectively, and building costs tend to stay very high. Especially bad reports come from Building Trust No. 5 and Road Building Trust No. 3. Two factories producing building materials at Krasnovodsk are behindhand with their output.

At some sites of one building unit the work is so badly organized that workers waste many hours waiting for their daily orders, as many as 22 hours having been wasted in 10 days in one instance. Misuse of expensive equipment is evident when machine-tools are allowed to rust or get broken and valuable spares are left about and covered with sand. New machines, spares, pneumatic drills, opened paint-tins and other materials are left in the open and are either stolen or allowed to deteriorate.

The overall picture that one obtains is of general expansion and the overcoming of many difficulties in the field of oil production and the prospecting and boring of wells, development being handicapped mainly by the failure of the building trust to carry out its programme of public works.

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THE TURKMEN POPULATION OF THE KHOREZM OASIS

The following is an abridged translation of an article by G.E. Martov which appeared in Sovetskaya Etnografiya No. 4 of 1953. The article deals with the history and causes of the settlement in the Khorezm Oasis of the Turkmen tribes which at present constitute the bulk of its population. A detailed description of the distribution of the various tribes is included. Of considerable interest is the tribute paid by the author to the stabilizing and progressive influence exercised by the Imperial Russian administration.

General Historical Sketch

The student of the history and ethnography of the Turkmen peoples is confronted at the outset with a number of difficulties. Up to this time, no history of the race has ever been written, the material available is generally meagre in the extreme, and on certain aspects it is entirely non-existent.

In tracing the development of the Turkmen race, recourse must be made, albeit in somewhat schematic form, to the decisive historical phases and occurrences in the life of the Khorezm Turkmen. Literature contributes practically nothing of assistance to research on the subject, and the present article is based on three main sources of information: the Khiva chronicles of Munis and Agakhi; the State archives of the Turkmen SSR and the Kara-Kalpak ASSR, from which the origins and the broad lines of development can be gathered; and such current information as could be obtained from a number of older Turkmen during the author's expeditions to the Khorezm Oasis in 1948, 1949, 1950.

From the archives there is evidence of constant incursions into the Khorezm Oasis throughout the centuries by various Turkmen tribes, which appear to have settled there for varying periods and then to have departed again. Arab sources speak of conflicts between the inhabitants of the oasis and intruding Turkmen tribesmen as early as the eleventh century, and there is definite evidence of their presence during the twelfth.

But to follow the vicissitudes of all the Turkmen tribal factions which from time to time settled and became part of the community of the Khorezm Oasis (and many of which, in any case, have no direct relationship with the present inhabitants), would be extremely difficult. The history, however, of those main tribes, which form the basis of the present population and which migrated primarily during the seventeenth,

eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries, can, on the other hand, be traced with reasonable accuracy. For this period a somewhat richer historical and ethnographical collection of material is available; the chronicle *Erdaus-ul-Ikbal* of Muni and the chronicles of Agakhi provide the basic historical facts, and apart from these, a number of interesting theses on the Turkmen tribes have been written by various Russian travellers, among them, N.N. Muravyev (1819- 1820), Colonel Danilevskii (1842) and others.

The seventeenth-century historian, Abulgazi gives a detailed list of the Turkmen tribes in the Khiva Khanate, but this list does not include many of the important tribes of the present-day Khorezm group, as at that time they had not yet migrated and thus had no direct contact with the Khanate. It was, indeed, only from the end of the seventeenth century that the haphazard nomadic wanderings of the Turkmen tribes began to assume the form of a definite migration. From then onwards, and throughout the eighteenth century, the tribes approached step by step nearer to the frontiers of the Khanate, and the first half of the nineteenth century was marked by an intensive penetration of the Khanate itself. Once established, the Turkmen tribes gradually began to exercise an increasing influence on the affairs of the Khanate, ousting into a position of minor importance the original tribesmen mentioned by Abulgazi; by 1873 and the advent of the Russians, the process of migration had been completed, the Turkmen tribes had established themselves as part of the permanent population of the Khiva Khanate.

Prior to the migrations, stock-breeding and a very primitive form of agriculture had been the principal occupations of the Turkmen; they had led a semi-nomadic existence, maintaining their herds and indulging in such agricultural activities as their surroundings of the moment favoured. By the beginning of the eighteenth century, however, emphasis had been concentrated almost entirely on stock-breeding, agricultural activity had degenerated to a very minor, secondary occupation, and deficiencies were made good by systematic banditry and forays, primarily against neighbouring settlements across the frontier into Iran. Food and cattle were the most sought-after loot, but the practice of seizing prisoners and selling them as slaves in the markets of Bukhara was also very prevalent, the proceeds of the sales being devoted to the purchase of grain and provisions.

The conquest of Central Asia by the Uzbeks in the sixteenth century caused the position of the Turkmen tribes to deteriorate sharply; they often lost their independent status and the Uzbek Khans vied with each other to enlist Turkmen into their armed forces. Owing to their lack of any form of homogeneity or economic stability, the Turkmen tribes, even before the Uzbek conquest, had not been able to establish anything in the nature of a stable state; after the conquest they were no longer masters even of their own established territories, and

they were gradually drawn into the sphere of influence of one or other of the existing neighbouring states.

With the growing strength of Iran and the Central Asian Khans, banditry and forays - the alamans of the eighteenth century - could be successfully prosecuted only with the connivance and assistance of one or another of these governments, and to obtain this patronage the Turkmen tribes had to surrender a portion of the booty they obtained. "The Turkmen engaging in forays..... are obliged to pay as tribute to the Khan of Khiva one fifth of the booty they acquire (slaves, women, horses, camels, children)" wrote N. Veselovskii in 1877.

This form of mutual cooperation ran, however, by no means smoothly. The Khans of Khiva, while only too anxious in times of war and unrest, to enlist Turkmen, the best fighting material they could find, and to give them handsome privileges in return for their services, were equally intent, in normal times, on transforming them, by stern oppression, into permanently subject races. To this the Turkmen retorted with frequent and violent revolts, and many and bloody were the encounters which ensued - in 1760 - 70, in 1804- 5, and finally the revolt of 1850 - 60, which led to the collapse of the rule of the Khans of Khiva, a situation of which on account of their lack of co-ordination, the Turkmen could not take full advantage. It was, indeed, not until 1873 and the advent of the Russians that some semblance of stability was established.

The Principal Tribal Elements

From this general outline the author passes to an enumeration of the more important Turkmen tribes and a detailed, though necessarily brief, account of the history of their migrations. The predominant portion of his information is drawn from the chronicles of Munis.

The Yomut

Although the Yomut, one of the most powerful and warlike of the Turkmen tribes, made earlier, temporary incursions into the Khiva Khanate and are among those listed by Abulgazi in the seventeenth century, they did not migrate permanently and en masse until early in the eighteenth century. According to Munis, the Yomut came originally from the valleys of the rivers Gugen and Atrak and from the Balkhan mountains. When they migrated to the Khiva Khanate, they took service under Shiraz Khan (1715-1728). In the war against Nadir Shah they fought on the side of the Khan of Khiva, were defeated and were compelled to seek refuge once again in the Balkhan mountains. On the departure of Nadir Shah from Central Asia, they returned to the Khorezm Oasis, where, right up to the third quarter of the eighteenth century, they continued to resist

all attempts of the Khivan feudal rulers to absorb them.

In 1760, together with other Turkmen tribes, they rose in revolt, and it was not until ten years later that, deserted by their other allies, they were finally and decisively defeated by Muhammad Emin in 1770. After the reprisals customary at the time, the latter, recognizing the inherent qualities of the Turkmen, made a generous peace with them and granted them land in the vicinity of Khiva itself.

Before long, however, they were once more in conflict with the Khan of Khiva, Iltuzer (1804-06), against one of whose dependent tribes, the Tekke, they had perpetrated a series of attacks. This time they were compelled to leave the Khanate and return to their original territories in the Gyurgen and Atrek valleys.

On the death of Iltuzer and with the permission of the new Khan, Muhammad Rahim I, (1806-25), they were allowed to return to their previous settlements in the Muz-Kumgan district, were granted further land in what is now known as the Tashauz oblast, and from that time became permanent, though by no means willing or peaceful, subjects of the Khanate.

Sporadic strife was continuous for many decades until the advent of the Russians in 1873 culminating in the fierce and bloody war of 1850-60. The Turkmen attacks shook the Khanate of Khiva, but owing to lack of cohesion they were always defeated.

The Imreli

At the end of the eighteenth century, the Imreli were driven from their homes in Khorasan by the more powerful Tekke tribe and migrated to the Khorezm Oasis, where they were granted land not far from the Yomut, near the Aman Kuli canal in the Khodzheili district.

Although willing to come to an agreement with the Khan of Khiva, the Imreli, like the other Turkmen tribes, were not prepared to become his unconditional vassals, and when the authorities of the Khanate took steps for the final subjugation of the Turkmen tribes, the Imreli joined the Yomut revolt. Having defeated the rising, Iltuzer Khan, whose object was the subjection, but not the annihilation, of the Turkmen, transferred them nearer to his capital to the territories previously occupied by the Yomut near Ak-Sarai and Muz Kumgan; and later, when the Yomut themselves were allowed to return, the Imreli were moved to Yangi Aryk, fifteen miles from Khiva. Finally, in the nineteenth century, they were given more land in what is now the Tashauz oblast.

The Choudor

The Choudor tribe came originally from the northern part of the Mangyshlak peninsula, and certain portions of the tribe, rather in the role of an advanced guard of the tribes with which they were affiliated, migrated during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; the main migration, however, occurred at the beginning of the eighteenth.

At that time the tribe was settled along the north-western frontiers of the Khiva Khanate and led a semi-modadic existence, with stock-breeding and fishing as their chief activities. In the struggle between Khiva and the Aral rulers, the Choudor sided with the latter, were in consequence repeatedly attacked by the troops of the Khanate and were finally compelled to seek refuge in a fortress stronghold of their Aral allies. They escaped annihilation, but their settlements were razed to the ground and destroyed to such an extent that, according to the Khivan chronicles, they were obliged to seek new ground. Part of the tribe returned to Mangyshlak, while another section, the Khasan-Eli, sued for peace in 1810 and were allowed to settle in the Khanate.

The Ali-Eli

In 1806, on the conclusion of an expedition against Iran, Allah Kuli Khan took under his protection the Ali-Eli, a Turkmen tribe resident in Khorasan and discontented under the oppressive nature of Iranian rule. Almost at once, however, the dictatorial attitude adopted by the Khan of Khiva caused the Ali-Eli to turn on their protector, and they attacked and defeated his forces, already weakened by the Iranian campaign.

In 1830, Allah Kuli Khan laid siege to and captured the fortress of Baverd (or Abiverd), the Ali-Eli stronghold, confiscated their lands and gave them to the Tekkes, and compelled the Ali-Eli to migrate to the lower reaches of the Klych-Niyaz Bai canal in the Khorezm Oasis.

The Goklen and the Karadashli

These tribes are mentioned in the Khivan chronicles of the beginning of the nineteenth century as inhabitants of the Gyurgen and Atrek river valleys. In 1836, Muhammad, Shah of Iran, sent a punitive expedition against them, and the tribes, fearful of Iranian tyranny, migrated to the Akhal foothills in Kyzyl-Rabat. At the invitation of Allah Kuli Khan, they then settled within the confines of the Khiva Khanate.

Originally, a portion of the Goklen, the Kai clan, took over the duties of guardians of the Khorezm frontiers, while the remainder were given land in the Kunya-Urgench district. In 1847, Muhammad Emin Khan

concentrated the whole tribe in this latter area, but after the Turkmen revolt of 1850-60 the majority migrated to Iran, and at the present time there remain but few of the Goklen in the Khorezm Oasis.

The Ata

The Ata migrated in the time of Muhammad Emin Khar (Meidamin, 1845-1855). According to the older members in their present settlements in the Darganata raion of the Turkmen SSR and in the southern Kara-Kalpak ASSR, they came originally from the Balkhan mountains, and this is confirmed from the Khivan chronicles and from other sources. It seems clear that oppression by their more powerful neighbours, the Yomut and Tekkes tribes, was the primary cause of their migration.

The Arbachi

The Arbachi are one of the smaller tribes; for details of their origins the author was dependent entirely on the information he could gather from the older members of the tribe at present settled in the Shabbaz raion of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR. According to these tribal elders, the tribe migrated to the Khorezm Oasis from Mangyshlak at the time of Muhammad Emin Khan (1845-55). Like the Ata, the Arbachi are an offshoot of the powerful so-styled Yaka, or trans-frontier, Yomut, and they, too, were driven from their original homes by the oppression of their more powerful neighbours.

The Causes of the Turkmen Migration

In some isolated cases, such as those of the Ata and the Arbachi, migration was quite simply the result of pressure from hostile and more powerful neighbouring tribes. But the answer to the fundamental question as to what were the causes of the mass migration of the Turkmen tribes to North Khorasan and the Khorezm Oasis in what to-day is known as Turkmenistan can only be obtained from an examination of the social, political and economic conditions, not only of the Turkmen tribes themselves, but also of their immediate neighbours, Iran, Khiva and Bukhara.

The chronicles of both Khiva and Iran and the accounts of numerous Russian travellers all agree in describing the economic state of the Turkmen tribes as being precarious in the extreme. Their main occupation, stock-breeding, was limited by the narrow confines of the grazing grounds at their disposal (the Turkmen steppes cannot in this respect compare with the steppes of Kazakhstan), and the food they obtained in exchange for their cattle did not suffice for their needs; the semi-nomadic

existence which they led, and the poverty and inadequacy of their arable land reduced their agricultural activities to negligible proportions; continuous inter-tribal feuds and wars against their neighbours, during which their water-wells and irrigation systems were either destroyed or were neglected, had further adverse repercussions. Water supply, particularly for those tribes in the vicinity of the Caspian, in Uzboi and in the Daryalik and Sarykamysh valleys, had presented a problem ever since the sixteenth century, for the development of the irrigation network which followed on the Uzbek conquest further reduced the amount of head-water available to them from the Amu Darya.

On the other hand, improved irrigation facilities led to a considerable increase in the area of arable land in the Khiva Khanate; and as the Khivan authorities were prepared to grant land on favourable terms, the prospect of migration proved very attractive. The politically and economically weaker tribes settled more readily, but the more powerful tribes, or rather their leaders, continued to a great extent to lead their traditional semi-nomadic life, while leaving the poorer members of the tribe to devote themselves to the tasks of agriculture.

External events, in the shape of changes in the political and economic situations in neighbouring states, also exercised a marked influence. During the eighteenth and the early years of the nineteenth centuries, with few exceptions, all the Turkmen tribes changed their habitat. The independent and, in many cases, mutually hostile tribes, spread over a vast area, caused terror among the weak and ill-organized populations in their vicinity. But with the consolidation and strengthening of government in Iran, Khiva and Bukhara - (in Iran under Nadir Shah in the eighteenth century and in Central Asia at the beginning of the nineteenth century), these neighbouring states were no longer prepared to tolerate the independent attitude or the marauding habits of the Turkmen tribes; and the latter not only met with sterner opposition in their forays, but were also themselves not infrequently the victims of external onslaught.

By the end of the seventeenth century, the situation of the Turkmen had deteriorated sharply, and they had the greatest difficulty in maintaining their independence. Inter-tribal rivalries, encouraged by the neighbouring governments, precluded the possibility of their developing into an organized state, and their neighbours, by the simple process of opening or closing their markets to them, had established a strangle-hold over the Turkmen economy.

In the eighteenth century, Iran, Khiva and Bukhara all attacked the Turkmen tribes, thrusting them back to the confines of their own territories and destroying every vestige of their settlements and agriculture. Pressed on all sides and unable to offer any successful resistance to this concerted and organized onslaught, harassed by lack of ess-

ential water supplies and held firmly in the politico-economic stranglehold of their adversaries, the tribes, from the beginning of the eighteenth century, were thus compelled, one after the other, to seek the protection of one or the other of their powerful neighbours, and in return for the land granted to them they took service in the armed forces of their protectors. Even so, the arrangement was an uneasy one, and the passionate value which the Turkmen placed on their independence led, as has already been shown, to many violent conflicts.

The advent of the Russians into Central Asia 1873 marked the beginning of a period of progress and comparative stability for the Turkmen tribes. Unlike Iran and the Khanates of Central Asia, the Russian authorities neither fanned the flames of inter-tribal rivalry nor used the Turkmen for forays. It is true that they opposed the alamans - the traditional Turkmen marauding expeditions - but they did so with the object of suppressing them, not of gaining control of their direction.

From 1873 onwards the raions of the Turkmen gradually began to take permanent shape, and although some of the tribes, particularly the Yomut, did not at once settle permanently, they at least remained within the confines of their raions. The majority of the smaller tribes, on the other hand, and all those on the right bank of the Amu-Darya settled and turned completely to agriculture. This example was followed much later, at the introduction of collectivization, by the Yomut, who, however, alone among the tribes continued to retain stock-breeding as a secondary occupation; and from the time of the national demarcation of raions some thirty years ago the Turkmen settlements have remained unchanged.

The post-revolutionary situation

Prior to the Russian Revolution, no ethnographical study of the Turkmen tribes had been undertaken, and no accurate analysis made of tribal distributions within the confines of the Khorezm Oasis.

Basing himself partly on the information obtained from archives, partly on that which he was able to gather in conversation with tribal elders during his expeditions in 1948, '49 and '50, but primarily on the findings of the Raion Boundary Commission (which was at work during the national demarcation period and before the actual demarcation of the individual raions was made), the author gives the following account and claims that, though the statistics of the Commission were compiled in 1925, the whole is a reasonably accurate picture of the current situation.

The Khorezm Oasis is at present divided into four administrative areas - the Khorezm oblast of the Uzbek SSR, with the town of Novo

Urgench as administrative centre; the Tashauz oblast - centre: Tashauz; the Darganata raion, centre: Darganata, both in the Turkmen SSR; and the Kara-Kalpak ASSR.

The total Turkmen population of the Oasis is, in round figures, 100,000. Of these, in 1926, 78,000 were settled in that portion of the Oasis which is situated on the left bank of the Amu Darya, another 10,000 lived on the right bank, and while the numbers then settled in the Darganata raion reached a mere fifteen hundred, this total had increased very considerably in recent years. The numbers of Turkmen in the Khorezm oblast of the Uzbek SSR remain insignificant.

The Tashauz Okrug (now oblast)

As the predominant settlement, the Tashauz Okrug deserves a more detailed examination. It was divided into five raions and contained some 75,000 Turkmen, or three quarters of the whole Turkmen population of the Khorezm Oasis.

(a) The Takhta raion

The population of the Takhta raion (25,000) was composed entirely of the Yomut Turkmen tribe, which was divided into numerous clans or tire, among the more important of which were the Salak, the Okuz, the Ushak, the Orsukchi, and the Kodzhuk settled primarily in the vicinity of the main irrigation channels of Armatbag, Aulie, Lara and Gazavat. Each of these clans had its own characteristic way of life and methods of agriculture. Of them, the 1925 Commission reported:

"The Ushak and Kodzhuk have retained a purely tribal structure, but the other Yomut clans have for the most part abandoned tribal traditions and remain firmly settled in one spot on the land."

(b) The Ilyaly raion

Of a total of some 30,000 inhabitants, 20,000 were Turkmen and the remainder Uzbeks. The Turkmen population was drawn from a number of tribes. The Imreli, settled on the lower reaches of the Shavat and Kunya-Darya canals, the Karadashly on the right bank of the Shavat and Garrau canals and the left bank of the Yarmysh canal, and the Yomut between the lower reaches of the Shavat and Kunya-Darya, in the vicinity of Kogukli, form the majority; in the north of the raion along the Divan Begi canal were some minor settlements of Goklen, and between Daryalyk and the Sha Murad canal a few Yomut communities. With the exception of the Yomut elements, which still remained semi-nomadic and

were still economically backward in comparison, all these settlements were engaged exclusively in agriculture.

(c) The Porsu raion

Here again, agriculture was the main occupation, and 20,000 Turkmen inhabitants, mostly Yomut and Choudor, formed 80 per cent of the population, the remainder being Uzbeks.. The Turkmen settlements were on the lower and middle reaches of the Klych-Niyaz-bai, the Kulbnya-yab and the Soviet-yab canals. The Yomut elements were settled in the Karailgyn district and were generally referred to as Karailgyns.

(d) The Kunya-Urgench raion

The population of the raion was 10,000, all Yomut Turkmen and all engaged in agriculture. During the Turkmen revolts of 1912-1916, severe damage was done to the main canals - the Shah Murad, the Sapai-yab, the Kalpak-Irgen and others, and the population migrated to more peaceful areas on the Sovbied, Urug-yab and Khan-yab canals. With the sovietization of the raion, the damage was repaired and the settlers returned to their old lands.

(e) The Tashauz raion

In the Tashauz raion, of a total population of over 26,000 there were only very few, perhaps some five hundred in all, Turkmen settlers.

The Darganata raion

The Turkmen population of the Dargan Ata raion differed very considerably in both composition and way of life from that of the Tashauz oblast. Migration to the Darganata region occurred at a very much later date, and the majority of the Turkmen settlers arrived there only some twenty or thirty years before the Russian Revolution. Up till then, lack of arable land and irrigation facilities had compelled the majority to adhere to a nomadic existence, moving from one source of water supply to another; but with the development of the irrigation network these Turkmen, composed predominantly of the Ata tribe with a sprinkling of Goklen and Igdyr, very quickly abandoned their nomadic way of life in favour of permanent settlement and agriculture.

The right bank of the Amu-Darya

The Ata and Arbachi tribes formed the majority of the Turkmen

population of what is now known as the Kara-Kalpak ASSR, on the right bank of the Amu-Darya, colonization of which took place simultaneously with that of the left bank.

Settled in the outer confines of the Khiva Khanate, these tribes found themselves much less exposed to the arbitrary and often oppressive rule of the Khivan authorities than did their fellow tribesmen on the left bank, and in consequence they were far less active in the revolts against the Uzbek feudal overlords; with the advent of the Russians in 1873 their position became better and more secure in every way.

At the present time the right bank Turkmen are settled primarily in the Shabbaz and Turtkul raions in the south of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR. The neighbouring Uzbek and Kara-Kalpak population have exercised a marked influence on their domestic and cultural lives, and they differ sharply on account of this from their fellow tribesmen on the left bank.

The above cannot in any way claim to be a history of the Turkmen tribes; it is indeed no more than the briefest possible account of the main successive phases of Turkmen migration into the Khorezm oasis from the middle ages up to the time of the introduction of collectivization and their final adoption of a settled agricultural existence. The tracing of their origins and their pre-migratory history is a task for the future, which will necessitate much long and meticulous research.

K A Z A K H S T A N

THE KOMSOMOL IN KAZAKHSTAN

Much light was thrown on the working and organization of the Kazakhstan Komsomol at its Seventh Congress held in Alma-Ata in March of this year. The Congress was attended by 700 delegates and, in the course of the sessions, achievements and failings were reviewed, aims and policies declared and criticisms voiced.

Organization

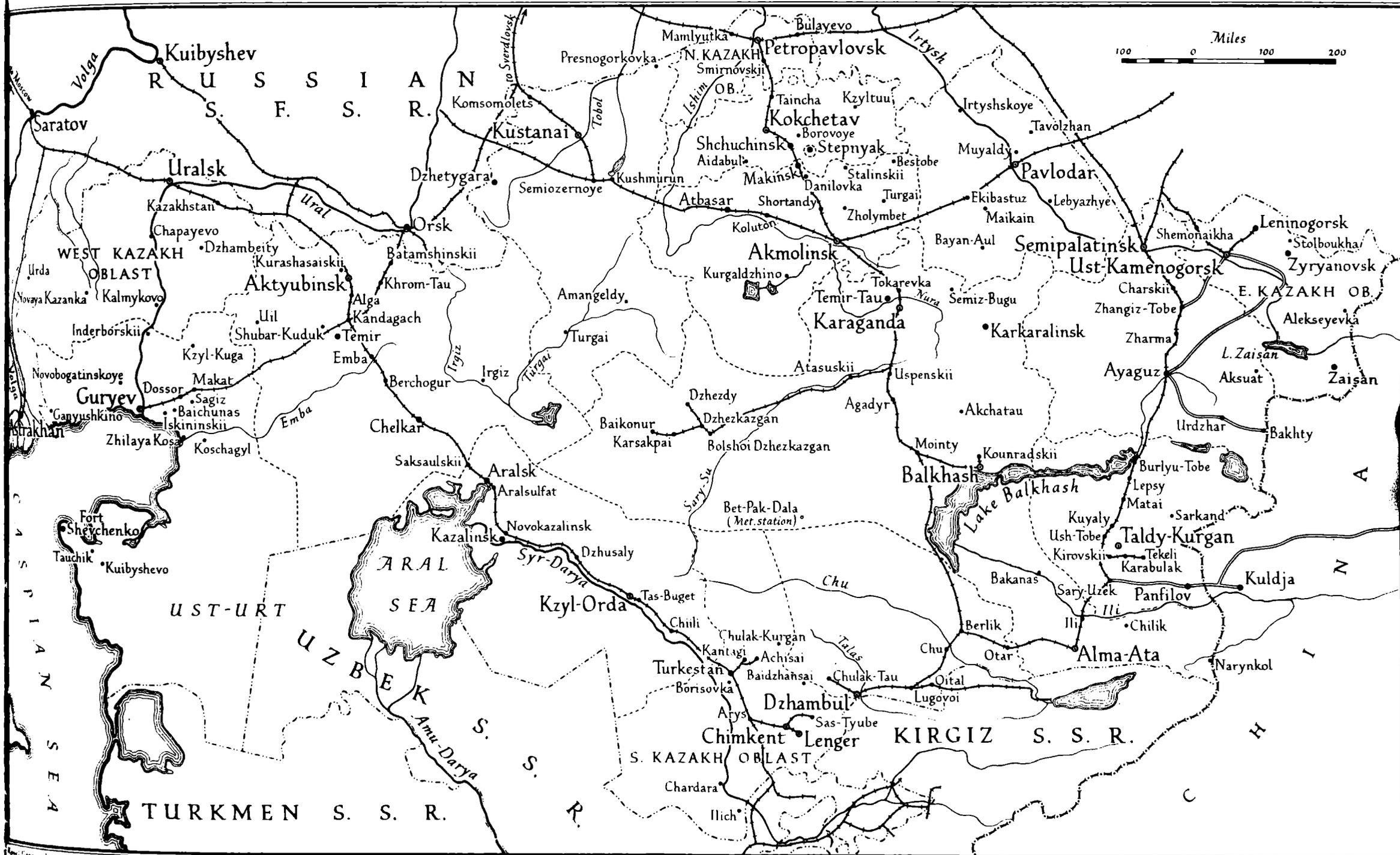
In its organization the Komsomol (i.e. The Leninist League of Communist Youth) of Kazakhstan is similar to that of the other republics of the Soviet Union. It comprises a Central Committee situated in the capital, Alma-Ata; a number of raion committees (raikom) and oblast committees (obkom), each with its hierarchy of officials; and primary cells found in schools, universities, kolkhozes, MTS, factories and other sections of the community.

Membership of the Komsomol is not compulsory but selective, though very great efforts have to be made to get the right type of person into the organization. In 1953 nearly 70,000 trainees were registered with the Komsomol. Members join at some stage in their middle teens and remain until elected to the Party. To become a Party member the Komsomolets must be proposed either by a Komsomol raikom or by a full-fledged Party member. His candidature is then debated at a general meeting of a primary cell of the Party and if approved, must be endorsed by the local committee of the Party. On becoming a Party member the individual may leave the Komsomol provided he does not hold an executive position in the organisation. There is no precise information about what happens to members not elected to the Party.

Membership of the Komsomol in Kazakhstan has risen in the current year by 20 per cent, and today numbers 558,240, which is more than double the number of Party members, of whom there are 227,379. The close link between the Party and the Komsomol was emphasized at the Seventh Congress when it was claimed that the Komsomol is now politically stronger and more mature, that there is greater solidarity among members and closer union with the Central Committee of the Communist Party.

Administration

KAZAKH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



activities in the republic. It formulates policies in line with those of the Central Committee of the Communist Party in Moscow, and convenes congresses. In theory, resolutions adopted at these congresses are passed down to the obkoms and raikoms whose task it is to implement the decisions locally and to watch over the primary cells. In practice however, the administration does not function with uniform efficiency and plans and resolutions often go awry.

At the Seventh Congress the administration and executive of the Kazakhstan Komsomol came in for sharp criticism. The administration, it was stated, is maladroit, and officials are perfunctory, irresponsible and resent all criticism. Some indeed regard themselves as highly important personages (velmozhi) and spend their time formulating policies. They are out of touch with conditions on the spot which they assess by hearsay only, and as a result, issue identical instructions to all oblasts regardless of the specific conditions obtaining in each. Nor do they keep a proper check on the execution of their decisions. They are moreover denounced as "zealots of leadership by paper" and for working in a perpetual swirl of circulars, directives, queries and red tape without ever being able to give a straight answer to a plain question. Many indeed are behindhand in their work; four years after the removal of secretary Ulutaiski from the Karaganda obkom, the Central Committee inquired by special telegram the reason for his dismissal.

The Selection and placing of officials has also come in for a share of criticism. Not infrequently people with no experience of youth work or industrial and agricultural training are raised to responsible positions. As one of the delegates at the Congress put it, "selection seems to be based not on a person's suitability for a particular post but on his political character and his ability to draw up an official document". As a result, the replacement of officials is extremely high, in some oblasts it reaches half their number, and in some raions as much as 80 per cent. In an unspecified period eighty-five secretaries of town and raion committees and twelve secretaries of oblast committees were removed from their posts for unworthy behaviour and for defrauding the organizations of the Komsomol. Their duties are many and varied, As an active helper of the Party, it must display great initiative and resourcefulness at all times and in all spheres, they take part in and extend "socialist competition drives", and combine the training of youth with an active participation "in the unceasing battle for the victory of Communism". At present nearly 400,000 Komsomol members and other young workers are taking part in drives for the fulfilment and over-fulfilment of plans for the production of consumer goods.

The immediate tasks before the Komsomol lie in the field of agriculture and fall into three main categories:

1. Cattle-breeding

2. Cultivation of virgin and neglected lands.
3. Staffing and manning of MTS and MZhS.

Cattle-breeding

At the Nineteenth Congress of the Communist Party in the autumn of 1952 it was stressed that the work of making the republic of Kazakhstan into the cattle-breeding centre of the Soviet Union must be intensified. It was then estimated that to achieve the targets for cattle-breeding in kolkhozes 300,000 workers would be needed, and at least two thirds of this number would have to be provided from the ranks of the Komsomol on whom would rest the main responsibility for achieving practical and substantial successes and the solution of the whole complex of problems relating to cattle-breeding.

Today, in cattle-breeding there are in fact 107,000 young workers. These are made up of an unspecified number of Komsomol members and other young people. The Central Committee and many local committees, especially those of Semipalatinsk, Aktyubinsk and Dzhambul, have come under fire for not increasing and strengthening the cadres of cattle-breeders and for adopting a dilatory and inactive attitude. They were also charged with indifference to the fact that bad feeding and care of cattle result in a decrease of livestock and milk yield. The welfare of the cattle-breeders has also received insufficient attention. Many of them lack elementary comforts and even necessities such as warm clothing. Social and cultural amenities are equally scanty. During the past three years not a single film has been shown in seventeen kolkhozes of the Aryk raion of the South Kazakhstan oblast and there are no libraries. Similarly in the Sarysui raion of Dzhambul oblast, cattle-breeders working 500-800 km from the kolkhoz centre are served by one mobile film unit which often does not get to them even once a year and newspapers and magazines only percolate occasionally.

Cultivation of virgin and neglected lands

The drive for the increase of grain production in 1954-55 by the cultivation of 6,300,000 hectares of new lands presents a vital and challenging problem to the Kazakhstan Komsomol. The papers carry glowing accounts of the "intense ardour" and "inspiring enthusiasm" with which the youth has responded to the call of the Party. The Komsomol organizations of Petropavlovsk, it is claimed, have already received 310 applications and the number of applicants for the whole of the republic is around 10,000. Over 200 representatives of the youth of Alma-Ata have gone for a course at the Technological College of the North Kazakhstan oblast. In this oblast, with the help of the Komsomol, it is hoped to machine tractor in the current year 350,000 hectares of

virgin and neglected land.

While giving full prominence to the work and achievements of the Komsomol in agriculture, no attempt has been made either in the press or by the delegates at the congress to obscure the "grievous shortcomings" that still exist. Comrade Belechenko, secretary of the North Kazakhstan obkom, in his report to the congress stated that only the first steps have so far been taken to mobilize the youth for the cultivation of virgin lands. Many of the projected plans have remained on paper because of the negligence and red tape of the Komsomol committees. Other evidence that things are not as good as they might be was given by the secretary of the Central Committee, Comrade Abdrazakov, who remarked that there has been an appreciable decrease in the number of Komsomol kolkhozniks; in 1952 there were 80,000 whereas now there are only 73,000 and this is put down to poor political training and "lack of vigilance".

MTS and MZhS

The activities of the Komsomol in this sphere of agriculture have received more praise on account of achievements and near-fulfilment of plans. Nearly 100,000 komsomol members are working in tractor and field brigades. Over 1,300 young specialists are said to have joined the MTS in recent months, and others are eagerly training in Zyrjanovsk, Ust-Kamenogorsk and elsewhere. All are possessed by the desire to give practical assistance to the village and kolkhoz workers. The Komsomol organization of the Kalinin MTS of Akmolinsk oblast formed a youth detachment comprising three brigades, and a 100 other brigades are being trained. Another instance selected for particular praise and emphasis is the initiative of the Komsomol group of the Third Alma-Ata machine plant who manufactured 270 sets of locksmiths tools. Their example has been followed by other groups in Petropavlovsk, Semipalatinsk and elsewhere. Already over a 1000 sets, each consisting of 20 tools, have been delivered to MT stations.

Activities in the cultural sphere

According to press reports Komsomol organizations now exist in all seven-year and ten-year schools of the republic; their total membership among school children numbers 187,000. The number of Pioneers - an organization similar to the Komsomol for children between the ages of eleven and sixteen - has grown by 50,000. This expansion, however, is not exploited to the full nor is any attempt made to correct faults, where they exist, or bring them to the notice of the Ministry of Education or other responsible authority.

In many schools conditions are primitive and discipline lax, there is also a shortage of textbooks and maps. But the obkom and raikom Komsomol officials rarely visit the schools and have little idea of the life, needs and interests of the pupils. In Taldy-Kurgan oblast the Kirov Komsomol raikom hold all their meetings in the local school building, but they have never yet visited the school during lesson-time or taken an interest in the work and progress of the pupils. The Komsomol meetings for the pupils are also infrequent and monotonous, failing to arouse any lively interest in the participants. As a result they lose all their significance and harm the cause.

Reports also tell of the failure of the Komsomol and Pioneer organizations to maintain, not to say raise, the educational and teaching standards in rural schools. In the schools of Alma-Ata, Kustanai, and Karaganda oblasts standards have in fact been lowered. Nor, it seems, is sufficient attention being paid to "artistic" development, the proper and rational use of leisure and the development of moral qualities such as, honesty, courage, selflessness, loyalty to the Party and homeland and community spirit. Misdemeanours of various sorts are common and instances of hooliganism and truancy often go unpunished. Particularly blameworthy are the Komsomol organizations in the schools of Akmolinsk, Ust-Kamenogorsk, Kzyl-Orda and Kokchetav. Nor is enough attention being devoted to the improvement of living and working conditions in schools. At the Congress, Comrade Shkarupina stated that at the Chimkent boarding-school there is not a single properly equipped classroom, no tables and chairs, and children have to do their lessons sitting in bunks. Similar instances were reported from Suzak, Kirov and Chaiyanovsk raions. The Central Committee, it is alleged, are aware of these facts but have so far taken no effective measures to improve the conditions. Nor have they seen to the "Homes of the Pioneers", many of which exist in name only; in the Eastern-Kazakhstan oblast for instance, of fifteen homes, eight have no buildings of their own.

Very little has also been done to improve conditions in the technological institutes of the republic. At present there are fifty institutes of mechanized agriculture training some 15,000 students. Yet many of the Komsomol committees overlook the fact that students are taught antiquated techniques and the manning of out-of-date tractors, and that at some of the institutes there are no technical appliances and living conditions are cramped.

The gravest concern, however, is felt at the way the fight against "nationalistic deviations" has been allowed to lapse in a number of the higher educational institutes. This, it is claimed, has given rise to instances of "amoral behaviour" among the students; and Stalin's remark that nationalism is a most dangerous survival and wholly alien to communist ideology is quoted as a warning.

In one respect the Komsomol organizations seem to have carried out their duties in the educational sphere, notably in developing in the youth an interest and love for their work, and particularly for agricultural or mechanical work. According to reports this is being done by providing the schools with garden plots and greenhouses where the pupils are encouraged to grow and tend various plants, or by organizing excursions to kolkhozes and MTS and arranging meetings with "Heroes of Socialist Labour". It is hoped besides to provide more schools with carpentry shops and meteorological units.

It is thus apparent that in nearly every sphere of its activity much remains for the Kazakhstan Komsomol to accomplish. Officials must spend less time attending conferences and take their responsibilities more seriously. More Kazakh girls must be elected to the committees and greater attention paid to primary cells which should be made into strongly-knit kollektivs. Finally, political training must be placed on a surer footing. It may be that in the light of these suggestions and criticisms voiced at the Seventh Congress abuses and failings will be rectified and the way opened to new achievements.

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PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

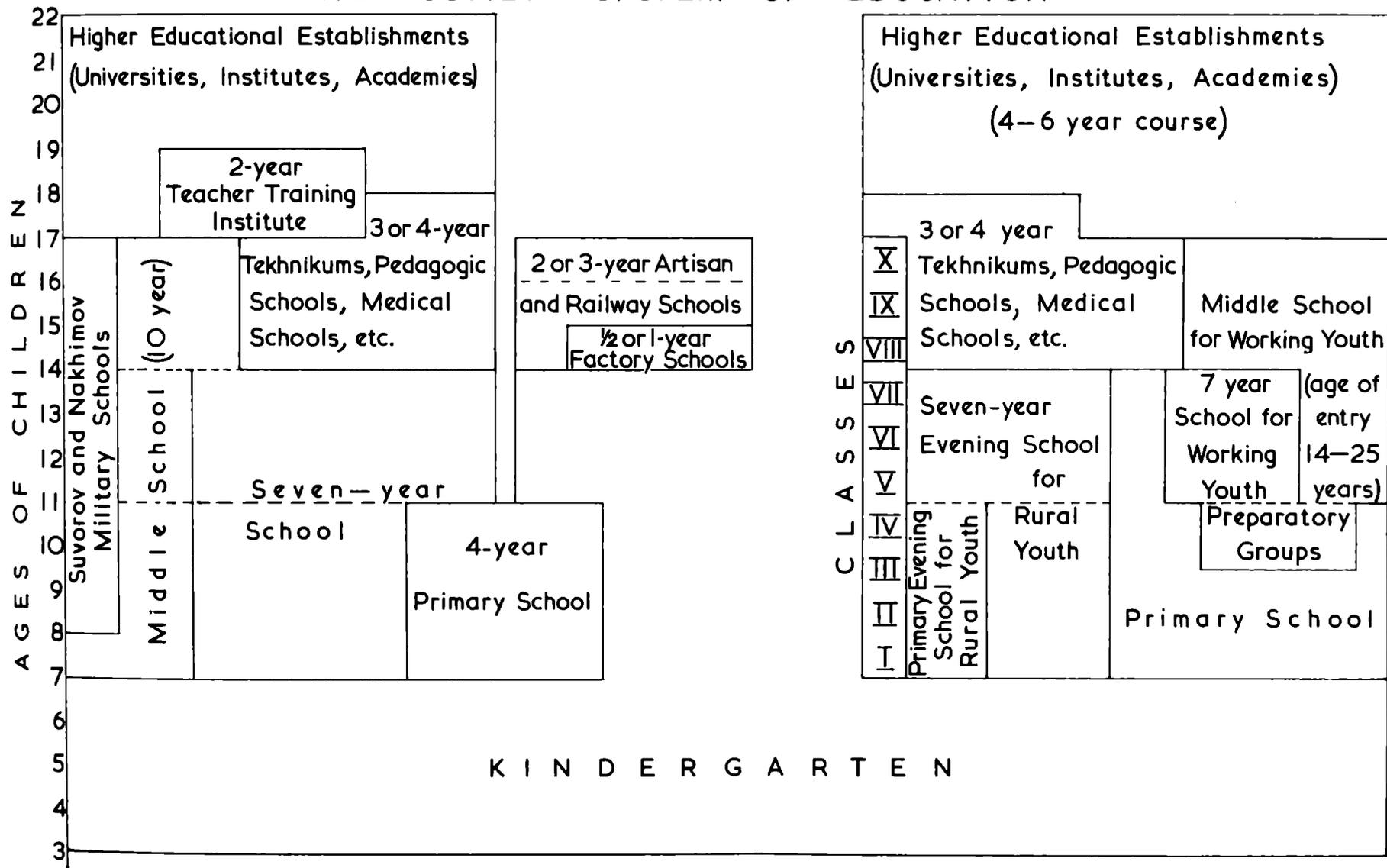
As elsewhere in the USSR, education in Kazakhstan is now compulsory from the ages of seven to fourteen. Pre-school or kindergarten education is voluntary. At the age of seven, according to the locality in which they live, children enter either a primary (four-year) school or a junior-secondary (seven-year) school or a full-secondary (ten-year) school, also called a "middle school". To what extent children on leaving a primary school can pass on to a seven-year school, and similarly to what extent children from a seven-year school can pass on to the senior classes of a ten-year school is not precisely known, though this is obviously not impossible and indeed appears to be encouraged. The normal course for a child leaving a seven-year school at the age of fourteen is to enter a secondary professional school, either one of the so-called tekhnikums which give specialized training in one of the various branches of industry, transport, agriculture, etc., or a medical, art, or pedagogic school. On leaving a ten-year school at seventeen or eighteen, children pass on to a higher educational establishment (VUZ) such as a university, institute or academy. For young people already at work, there are many part-time, evening and correspondence schools offering both a general and a specialized education.

The same problems arise in Kazakhstan as in any other country rapidly expanding its educational system: there are material problems such as finance, buildings and equipment, the supply and training of teachers; there are social problems caused by the raising of the school-leaving age and by the education of girls. Moreover in Kazakhstan there is the special difficulty of language, for, though there are no precise up-to-date figures, at least 50 per cent of the present population of Kazakhstan can be assumed to be non-Kazakh. It is interesting to note in this connection that in no current publication on education so far seen is mention made of the proportion of Kazakh to Russian school children, nor to what extent the Kazakh and Russian languages are used in schools though it is apparent that there are some schools in which Kazakh is the medium of tuition.

Progress since the Revolution

The history of education in Kazakhstan since the Revolution is one of spectacular and rapid advance from almost complete illiteracy to a position today where 1.34 m. children attend school. Before the Revolution, according to the Great Soviet Encyclopaedia, 98 per cent of the Kazakh people were illiterate. In the area now included in the Kazakh SSR, there were 2,041 schools with 115,000 children. But 1,958 of the schools were only two-year primary schools, and in all

THE SOVIET SYSTEM OF EDUCATION



schools there were only 7,900 Kazakh children, mostly drawn from the upper classes. In 1920-21 there were 2,410 primary and middle schools with 144,000 pupils; in 1927 there were 3,944 schools with 274,000 pupils. School attendance in 1929-30 was 352,000 and the next year it rose to 540,000.

In 1932-33 there were 6,869 schools with 576,000 pupils in the republic. They included 6,419 primary four-year schools, 419 seven-year schools and 31 ten-year schools. While in the pre-revolutionary period Kazakh children made up fewer than seven per cent of the total number of children attending school, in 1931-32 they were forty per cent of the total.

Between 1933 and 1940 there was considerable re-organization of the educational system and much building of new schools; particular attention was paid to seven-year and ten-year schools, and their increase in number accounts for the corresponding decrease in numbers of primary schools. During this period, primary education was made compulsory in rural areas and seven-year education in towns. Between the academic years 1949-50 and 1951-52 seven-year education is reported to have been made compulsory almost everywhere in Kazakhstan.

Today the republic has 5,519 primary schools, 2,693 seven-year schools and 733 ten-year schools. In 1952 the total enrolment was 1,346,000 children and there were 63,000 teachers including 23,000 university graduates. There are also 176 working youths' schools (i.e. part-time schools for young factory workers), attended by 28,000 students; of these schools, 147 give a general secondary education. 7,600 students are said to attend a total of 91 evening schools. There are besides, 176 boarding orphanages with over 20,000 children, nine schools for blind, deaf and dumb children, and two Forest Schools for weak children. For the children of railwaymen whose homes are often in isolated areas, there are special boarding schools. Last December, the twenty-third such school along the Turksib line was opened at Aul station.

Kindergartens

The first twenty kindergartens in Kazakhstan were opened in 1921 with accomodation for 610 children. Between 1927 and 1932 about 12,000 children on an average attended kindergarten. In 1950 the republic had 651 kindergartens with about 2,000 teachers in charge of about 25,000 children. At present, in towns throughout the republic more than 1,200 kindergartens and day nurseries take in some 70,000 children. This service enables mothers to leave their children in the care of trained staff while they are at work.

In Kazakhstan, as in other countries, the rival claims of schools and housing on the building trade lead to complaints, for instance, that the social services do not get their fair share of new construction. Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 13th November 1953 pointed out that the 1953 development plan for pre-school education was carried out only to the extent of forty per cent of the schedule. New building in 1952 only reached fifty per cent of the programme. The Polymetallic Kombinat at Zyryanovsk has delayed the building of a new nursery since 1951. At Alma-Ata the fruit preserving works has not yet built a kindergarten, while the knitwear factory in the same town has only provided one kindergarten for 100 children, when the need is far greater as most of its workers are women.

Primary and secondary schools

Figures for the number of primary and secondary schools giving a general education for their staff and enrolment have been given already. The Kazakh Ministry of Education is giving a good deal of attention to the development of schools in rural areas, with particular reference to the improvement of their equipment, staffing position and inspection. Already early this year according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 4,100 young graduate teachers were serving in village schools and in the course of the year, a further 3,500 teachers with higher and secondary education diplomas are to be posted to village schools throughout the country. They will include 600 teachers of mathematics and physics and 450 teachers of Russian language and literature. Apart from primary and secondary schools giving a general education, in 1950 there were 75 factory schools giving workshop training with over 12,000 young people on their rolls; 23 artisan schools with over 5,000 pupils; and 10 railway schools with over 3,000 children. These schools, known as "primary professional schools", train lower-grade technicians. Middle grade technicians and professional workers are trained at "secondary professional schools" and in 1951 Kazakhstan had 64 tekhnikums, 5 schools of music and dramatic art, 2 cultural education schools, 17 medical schools, 1 law school, 7 agricultural schools, and 25 teacher-training schools.

The extension of full secondary ten-year education is a matter of considerable concern to the authorities, and the urgency of the matter may be gathered from the fact that 179 ten-year schools are operating on a three-shift system. It is hoped that by the end of 1955 none will need to have more than two shifts.

Acting on directives issued by the Nineteenth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, the Kazakh Ministry of Education and the Education Department of the local Soviets have drawn up plans

for the introduction of general ten-year education in Alma-Ata, the oblast towns, and also in Leninogorsk and Balkhash. This involves raising the 1952 figure of 733 ten-year schools by 100 and stepping up the number of pupils of the eighth, ninth and tenth classes, which stood at 143,174 early in 1954 by more than 46,000 by the end of next year. Already at the start of the 1953-54 school year it was claimed that more than ninety per cent of the pupils who completed their seven-year course were admitted to the 8th class. By 1955 it is hoped that the enrolment of pupils in the eighth class will be nearly double the corresponding figure for 1952.

This will mean a big building programme and the provision of about 30,700 new places in secondary schools in the principal towns. The three-shift system is most in evidence at Alma-Ata. Here two new schools are to be built. The Ministry of Education is to build two more schools at Kustanai and one each at Petropavlovsk and Taldy-Kurgan; and other ministries and offices are to construct 23 schools with 13,760 places in 1955. Besides this, the completion of schools now under construction will provide 3,320 new places in towns and 6,220 new places in rural districts.

Training of teachers

A Congress of Teachers of the Kazakh SSR, which took place at Alma-Ata in July 1953, was attended by 1,200 educationists; particular attention was paid to the problems of teacher-training and of subject-teaching. It is proposed to deal with these two subjects in the light of criticism voiced at the Congress.

It was stressed that a large number of teachers, especially in primary schools, were not well trained in the theory and practice of teaching, especially in the teaching of Russian language and literature. Too often their only method was to read passages from a manual and make children take down from dictation or copy a few paragraphs. In the case of children entering middle schools (i.e. ten-year schools) from provincial primary Kazakh schools, their inadequate knowledge of Russian, which was a big handicap in further studies, was largely due to the poor knowledge their primary teachers possessed of the Russian language. The failure to cultivate Russian as a live medium of expression was very evident.

Although the republic had 25 training institutes for teachers in 1951, against a figure of seven such institutes in the pre-revolutionary period which turned out teachers for Russian and the then called "Russo-Kirgiz" schools, the shortage of highly qualified teachers in Kazakh schools is still acute. In Balkhash, especially, the Kazakh schools suffer through the lack of specialist staff and even of inspecting officials who know the Kazakh language. One school has to rely for most of

the teaching of its senior classes on part-time help received from teachers on the staffs of other schools. This includes all the teaching of mathematics, physics and chemistry. As there is no controller of education who knows the Kazakh language, the Kazakh schools often do not have an inspection for years and are in effect outside the control of the town education departments.

Subject-teaching problems

The major subject difficulties encountered in Kazakhstan are those relating to the teaching of languages and science.

On the language problem, the Congress of Teachers reported serious shortcomings both in the teaching of the "native" language in Russian schools and in the teaching of Russian in Kazakh schools. The importance of a good knowledge of Russian as a means to national advance is repeatedly stressed in reports of the speeches.

"The knowledge of the Russian -- the language of the great Russian people -- has become an essential for the creative cultural development of all the people,"

said Comrade **Esenzholova**. Another speaker referred to the need to eliminate

"defects in the teaching of Russian language and literature, and thus to remove all obstacles to the process of assimilation by the youth of Kazakhstan of the great treasures of advanced Russian culture."

For these defects not only the ignorance of Russian on the part of Kazakh teachers is found to be responsible; there is also a lack of direction from the Ministry of Education and a shortage of teaching manuals which throws the teachers on their own resources. The lack of textbooks is also a handicap in teaching Kazakh language and literature.

Practical technical education

The Congress of Teachers discussed the unsatisfactory and often too abstract manner in which subjects like mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology are taught. A certain minimum of practical laboratory work was held to be desirable and it was stressed that students should be familiarized with the practical applications of science in industry and agriculture.

In the Alma-Ata oblast some teachers have tried to introduce

an element of practical technical education (politekhvizatsia) into their syllabus. This includes increased laboratory and experimental work, and visits to factories, kolkhozes, sovkhoses and MT stations. Practical projects are introduced into mathematics teaching. Chemistry is linked with instruction in the use of fertilizers and other chemicals in agriculture to increase yields, fight pests and treat plant diseases. The proper teaching of biology is most important in rural schools. The shortage of equipment for practical work is a big drawback and reliance has to be placed on the willing cooperation of the Party and of factories, farms and other organizations.

Teachers' ideals

The teachers' desire for improved conditions and higher standards is reflected in their criticism of those of their colleagues who are unqualified and in consequence lower the general level of education. It was stated that many children do not get promotion and have to repeat a year in the same class owing to poor progress. School attendance is another problem: despite the high proportion of the population enumerated as attending school, it would seem that many children still do not go to school and for this those in authority are blamed for failing in their duty. Many children do not enter school or leave in the middle of the year. A considerable proportion of these are Kazakh girls whose parents do not want to have them educated. Transport difficulties may make attendance difficult and the need for special boarding schools for the children of workers on cattle kolkhozes and for proper transport for these children was stressed at the Congress.

The need for close contact with the people is also realized by the profession. "The people's teacher" said one speaker "must be closely connected with the masses and be responsible for daily cultural and political cooperation with them. The Soviet teacher should be an active assistant of the Party and help to carry Soviet ideas to the people". In this connection it is significant that the role of associations of parents in the education of children is felt to be worthy of development.

Textbook difficulties

Most schools in Kazakhstan are short of textbooks. In 1953, of 100 books in the Kazakh language which should have been published, only 80 appeared and even these were not all available in sufficient numbers. The distribution of books is not supervised by the local education departments. A number of the books not printed were for the study of Russian language and literature in Kazakh schools and of Kazakh language and literature in Russian schools. This only aggravated the difficulties of language teaching already mentioned.

Buildings and equipment

The rapid growth of towns in the wake of industrialization and the increase in seven-year and ten-year education has led to widespread accommodation problems. The three-shift system in Alma-Ata has been mentioned. Many schools lack laboratories and study-rooms. One girls' school in Alma-Ata has ten class rooms where it needs at least 27 for its 1,100 pupils. The physics mistress complains of her inability to carry out the minimum of practical work owing to the lack of laboratories. To provide space for essential study-rooms, tenants of part of the premises should be evicted but nothing has been done in the matter. Other schools which may have rooms often lack equipment and Kazsnabpros, the agency for supplying schools equipment, lacks proper storage arrangements, as a result of which much costly apparatus is spoilt in damp basements.

The same shortages are reported in all parts of the Republic and particularly with regard to boarding schools and to housing for teachers. The lack of housing often leads teachers to change their posts and this causes frequent changes of staff in the schools.

Throughout Kazakhstan big building programmes have been approved. Between 1951 and 1955, 750 new schools should be built in the republic, but construction seems to be behind schedule and in 1952 only half of the planned number of new school buildings were completed, and most of them in the latter half of the year. Delays have been particularly bad in Alma-Ata, Dzhambul, Aktyubinsk, Semipalatinsk, Guryev, Karaganda and Kzyl-Orda oblasts, especially in the rural areas. The Ministry of Education is blamed for not fostering local interest in the problem and for failing to supply local bodies with plans and technical help.

In conclusion the accepted standard of what a good school should be is worth recording. A new middle school should serve 440 pupils. Besides class rooms, it should have laboratories, two rooms for laboratory assistants, a gymnasium, changing rooms where sports equipment can also be kept, shower baths, a library, a refectory, a study for youth organizations (Pioneers, Komsomol), a medical room, a staff room, the director's study and the office. This would entail a floor space of 1,332 square metres and should meet the needs both of urban and rural areas. It is felt that some of the out-size schools, built to serve 880 pupils, have been a mistake; among other handicaps pupils often have to come from quite a long distance. Everyone it is felt, would be better off with less centralization of schools.

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SYR-DARYA: A KAZAKH NOVEL

Sabit Mukanov, whose recent novel Syr-Darya is reviewed below, is a well-known Kazakh writer. His books include novels, plays and history. Some of them have met with a qualified reception and he has at various times been criticized for glorifying the feudal past. In his introductory essay to the complete works of the poet Dzhambul, for instance, he was accused of putting a wrong interpretation on several of Dzhambul's published songs which, it was claimed, were deliberately distorted by "bourgeois nationalists" to include sentiments which Dzhambul could never have held. Mukanov also collaborated in the compilation of the History of the Kazakh SSR (Alma-Ata, 1943) which has since been discredited.

The following is an abridged translation of the review of the Russian translation of Syr-Darya by B. Vadetski which appeared in Druzhba Narodov No. 1. of 1954.

As the theme of his book the author has chosen the construction of a vast irrigation canal in Kazakhstan, the transformation of Nature and its harnessing in the service of mankind - a spacious and significant canvas, which demands a palette endowed with great wealth and variety of colour.

Nothing on this scale has ever before been attempted in Kazakh literature. The characters cover a wide range of human activity and include irrigation experts, constructional engineers, labourers, collective farmers and town dwellers; there is a wealth of descriptive detail embracing the pre-war period, the Civil War and the events of the last few years; and the complexity of the author's line of thought bears witness to his artistic boldness and mature experience.

A vivid power of description, a markedly poetic form of expression and a live and faithful description of rural life in Kazakhstan are features which become at once and strikingly apparent; but when the author approaches more abstract themes or turns from rural life to subjects with which he is personally less familiar - the delineation of character, descriptions of urban life and the swift action of war - he tends to lose his artistic powers of expression.

Two young students, Baizhan and his fiancée, Gyulnar, are both awarded their diplomas - he as an engineer and she in surgery. Together they go to the scene of the great irrigation work, where the man in charge is the Russian engineer Polevoi, Gyulnar's father.

Very swiftly, however, their blissful and peaceful life is shattered; Gyulnar goes to the front, while her husband remains on the spot in charge of the construction. When the war ends, they come together again on the canal, the construction of which has in the meanwhile been completed.

The action centres round the activities of the aged engineer, Anatoli Kondratevich Polevoi, a political exile settled in Central Asia, who has acquired almost the status of an ambassador of the Russian people and who has so immersed himself in the language and customs of Kazakhstan, that he has become accepted as a true Kazakh.

In both earlier and in more recent literature there are plenty of examples of this favourite figure, the Russian as a pioneer of science and enlightenment, of progress and new ideas; as a real friend of the people, settled in Central Asia, fighting for its future and raising his voice against imperial Tsarist colonization; and the author has concentrated many of these characteristics in the person of Anatoli Polevoi, from whom emanate threads to all the other characters, and to whose energy, resource, wisdom and experience they are all indebted in varying degrees.

It must, however, be stated that the author fails to give any concrete idea of the vast work of construction itself, of the many and great difficulties encountered, of the daily life of those engaged in the work. His choice of the grandiloquent title, Syr-Darya (the name of the principal river in Kazakhstan) should have compelled him to give a picture both of the massive natural obstacles confronting the enterprise and of the complicated human relationships involved. Instead, however, he gives the impression that the construction of the canal proceeds in an easy and orderly fashion. He mentions, it is true, that there were certain difficulties, but the reader does not see them or sense them, and as a result does not really believe in them. For example, the author knows as well as anybody else that Kazakhstan is the principal stock-breeding area of the East. Yet one of his characters is made to say: "Those who do not know the desert regard it as a wilderness; in reality it contains as much fodder as you could wish for." But the reader is given no picture either of the desperate struggle which stock-breeding involves or of the people who wage it.

The author's lack of creative, objective thought in the handling of material which is strange to him has resulted in his merely mentioning, rather than describing, many of the more important facets of the life he endeavours to portray.

In particular, the characters of Gyulnar and Baizhan are drawn in a very perfunctory superficial manner. As his successor in charge

of the construction, the aged Polevoi chooses his son-in-law, a lad who has only just passed his examinations, and gives him plenipotentiary powers. All this is arranged in a very friendly fashion, though it has, admittedly, the sanction of the local authorities. But the reader does not see Baizhan at work and has no idea of how well or how badly he carries out his important task.. That bewilderment at his appointment is not aroused in the reader's mind is due simply to the fact that there is very little in the novel about the actual construction, and consequently the reader's critical judgement is not called upon to function.

The portrayal of the relations between the young married couple is weak, unconvincing, lacking in romance and psychologically faulty. The subsidiary characters, on the other hand, are much better drawn and much more life-like - Masakpai, the Chairman avid on all occasions to demonstrate the happy state of the kolkhoz over which he presides; Rakhmet, the Party worker; Tartyk, the traitor. But even here, the novel is over-populated with characters, who are merely mentioned rather than portrayed, and the dialogue and description of events is often prolix and verbose.

In spite of these obvious blemishes, there is no doubt that Sabit Mukanov possesses both a wealth of poetic descriptive power and the talent of plastic, objective portrayal. Excellent, for example is his portrait of the colourful old artist, Sarbai. Sarbai is a noted kolkhoznik, a hero of socialist farming, but also a very old man; accustomed to relying on his own experience and avoiding all innovations - chemical fertilizers or whatever they may be - he gradually and painfully comes to the conclusion that "science is more powerful than experience" and that he, Sarbai, in his old age has still a lot to learn. And what a wealth of somewhat coarse, local humour, of crafty resource and of zest for life flows from the lips of old Sarbai!

In general, the kolkhozniks and the workers are drawn much more vividly than are the intelligentsia, and the descriptions of nature and the Kazakh rural way of life are immeasurably superior to the story of the construction of the canal.

Sabit Mukanov is one of those talented artists in the use of words, from whom we have the right to demand the highest possible standard; and the spacious conception on which he has based his latest work tends only to emphasize this right. The new translation by Leonid Soboliev is superior to its predecessor; it succeeds in preserving the picture-sequencess of the original and at the same time it has softened and given life to the less successful passages of the work.

With all its virtues and faults, Syr-Darya is a new step forward along the creative path of the author and a significant milestone in the development of Kazakh literature.



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
Kazakhstan.

The area covered in this Review embraces the five S.S.R. of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan. According to Soviet classification "Central Asia" (Srednyaya Aziya) comprises only the first four of these, Kazakhstan being regarded as a separate area.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with
St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group.

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. II. No. 3.
1954.

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3. and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

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+ Study Group of St. Antony's College, Oxford. It aims at
+ presenting a coherent and objective picture of current political,
+ social and material developments in the five Soviet Socialist
+ Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and
+ Kazakhstan as they are reflected in Soviet publications.
+

+ The selection of material is designed to represent positive
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+ headings: Agriculture, Industry, Communications, Public Works
+ and Services, and Political and Cultural Affairs. Subjects are
+ only treated when a sufficient amount of relevant material is
+ available.
+

+ The maps of the five republics, the Fergana Valley and the
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+

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+ The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post
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+ Sixpence.
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+ Distributing Agents:
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+ Messrs. Luzac & Co. Ltd.
+ 46, Great Russell Street,
+ London, W.C.1.
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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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THE FILM INDUSTRY IN CENTRAL ASIA

Historical background and political significance - I. Studios and film production - Uzbekistan - Kirgizia - Kazakhstan - II. Cinemas and film distribution - Uzbekistan - Kirgizia - Tadzhikistan - Turkmenistan - Kazakhstan - Conclusions.

The importance of the cinema to the Soviet regime need hardly be emphasized. Lenin's precept that the cinema of all the arts is the most important and the most effective as a means of spreading Communist enlightenment among the masses is still the guiding principle of the Soviet film industry. And today, more than at any time in the past, the cinema is regarded as an indispensable auxiliary of the Party in educating the people "in the spirit of Communism and Soviet patriotism." The emphasis placed by the Soviet authorities on the cinema does not mean, however, that the film industry in Russia only came into being since the Revolution; in fact a start had already been made by the turn of the century. The first film shows were held in 1896 but, as in the West, the building of cinemas did not really begin until about 1908; in that year Drankov produced the first Russian film, Stenka Razin. By 1915, the number of cinemas in Russia totalled 1412; of these 1279 were in the towns and 133 in rural districts, and, in the territory today covered by Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan and Kirgizia, 52 cinemas had been built. The Soviet government thus inherited an already existing film industry which they have considerably expanded. On 1st January 1954, it was claimed in the press that there were 49,000 cinemas in the whole of the Soviet Union and that of these 38,000 were in rural districts. Although references to the cinema in the Central Asian press are fragmentary and infrequent, it would appear, from figures quoted later in this article, that in the Central Asian republics and Kazakhstan too the number of cinemas has grown and that film studios are flourishing.

I. Studios and Film Production

The first film studios in Central Asia were established in Tashkent and Stalinabad before the Second World War. Documentary, instructional and feature films were already being produced here when the main Soviet studios, Mosfilm and Leninfilm were evacuated to Alma-Ata, Tashkent and Stalinabad from European Russia in 1941. During the war the bulk of Soviet film production was carried out in Central Asia; this included

a considerable number of patriotic and war propaganda films and several documentaries.

Since the end of the war all the existing film studios in Central Asia have been completely reconstructed and extended; several new ones have been built, particular attention being paid to those specializing in the production of documentary and instructional films. This reconstruction is said to have led to a radical improvement in the techniques of film production and to have enabled the introduction of colour processes, Agfa mostly being used.

One of the main functions of the Central Asian film studios seems to be the dubbing of films into the native languages, a process which was started in 1940. In Alma-Ata, for instance, in the period 1945-52, eighty films were dubbed into Kazakh. This work is considered to be of great political and cultural importance. Judging by press reports, however, it does not always fulfil its purpose as not all of the dubbed films are shown; thus according to a recent statement of the poet Mirshakar, the Central Administration of Cinematography in Tadzhikistan often neglects to show films dubbed into Tadzhik to the masses.

Uzbekistan

The largest and best-equipped film studios in Central Asia are those in Tashkent. Much of their work consists in the dubbing of Russian films into Uzbek and, apart from documentaries, not many original films are produced. Among recently dubbed films are Honour of the Comrade, the long historical film Albanian Warrior Skanderbeg, the comedy Marina's Wedding, and instructional films such as Science and Technique.

The production of full-length feature films is considerably hampered by the lack of scenarios and the absence of capable script-writers. At a conference of Uzbek writers held towards the end of last year, the delegates admitted that most of them had no experience in writing for films, but pointed out that the subjects suggested by the Minister of Culture, such as sericulture and sheep-rearing were not suitable for feature films. They also referred to the impossibility of obtaining technical advice from film editors who were said to be both scarce and unapproachable. The position was summed up at the end of last year in an article in Pravda Vostoka which concluded with the warning that "it is high time the senior officials of the Ministry of Culture and of the film industry realized that unless competent and art-loving writers are freed from all restrictions and afforded every facility, no good scripts will be written and no good films produced." Matters have since been somewhat improved by the setting up of a special cinema commission, and the following writers have promised to try their hands at script-writing: K. Yashan, M. Sheverdin, Timur Fattakh,

and V. Milshakov. It is pointed out in the press that the writers are heartened and inspired by the fact that, with an organization to look after their interests as script-writers, they can now hope to see their work presented on the screen without its being transformed by countless hands into a mere pastiche.

Kirgizia

Apart from documentaries and travelogues, the life of the Kirgiz has not until recently been the subject of any feature film. In April of this year, however, the script of a film Sultanat was printed in Iskusstvo Kino. The author of the script is R. Budantseva and the subject of the film is the development of mountain pastures in Kirgizia. On 4th June 1954 a review by E. Loktev of the script appeared in Sovetskaya Kirgizia. This review is of interest in that it sheds light not only on the substance of the projected film but also on the criteria of a Soviet film critic.

Commenting generally on the script Loktev claims that it suffers from "a multiplicity of themes, lacks a clearly defined plot and is overburdened with side issues". This results in most of the scenes being slow and dull and without action. Oppressed by the abundance of her problems the author is constrained to provide ready-made solutions rather than depict the searchings, conflicts and the initiative of her characters; in consequence, the relations between them are sketchily and hurriedly drawn." Loktev goes on to say that "the solution of the main problem is primitive," and that "the relation between science and life and the impact of science on nature" is drawn unconvincingly and with little imagination. "Among the characters in the film," he writes, "are workers of the Institute for Scientific Research into Stock-breeding and Agronomy, but the activities of these scientists (including the hero, Dzhoomart) are depicted by such scenes as a view of Dzhoomart reading a barometer in a storm, a group of people bending over furrows where grasses are just beginning to grow, and thirdly a shot of Sultanat, the heroine, walking quickly through the experimental station looking for Dzhoomart."

Loktev further claims that the overburdened scenario prevents the author from developing the main theme - the lot of a Soviet Kirgiz woman. The Soviet people, he says, are characterized by their work for the good of the nation, but not so Sultanat, the central figure of the film. She has not the welfare of the kolkhoz at heart and is more concerned with wooing and winning Dzhoomart than with acquiring technical knowledge. Altogether, too much of the film script is devoted to questions of love; and the position of Sultanat, a married woman with a ten-year old son, falling in love with a young agronomist for whose sake she leaves both son and husband is considered an unfair and uncharacteristic reflection on a Soviet Kirgiz woman. The author in fact,

says Loktev, has failed to portray a typical Kirgiz woman.

Loktev finds other faults in the scenario: it fails, for instance to show the Party spirit in the life of a kolkhoz. As a result, the administration of the kolkhoz appears to be in the hands of lazy bureaucrats. The author, claims Loktev, "was quite free to show or not to show Party workers, but it was her duty to display the influence, the role and the place of the Party in village life." Also unsatisfactory is the dialogue. Most of the characters speak not like Kirgiz but like Russians and there is a complete absence of that turn of phrase which distinguishes one character from another.

Loktev concludes by saying that the author has failed "to portray the Soviet man, his growth, new qualities, new moral code, his victory over out-of-date people. The scenario of Sultanat in its present form cannot serve as a basis for a film about the life of the Kirgiz people, it will have to be considerably rewritten."

Kazakhstan

As in the other Central Asian republics, the film studios of Kazakhstan appear to be producing mostly documentaries and instructional films. Established in 1934 (although documentaries and newsreels were already being made there as early as 1928) the studios have been particularly active since the war. In 1945 the long film Songs of Abai was made, and in 1951 the first colour documentary Soviet Kazakhstan was released. Apart from film-making, the studio issues annually forty-eight numbers of a cinema review Sovetskii Kazakhstan published both in Russian and in Kazakh.

Recently the Alma-Ata studios produced a film Poem of Love based on the Kazakh national poem Tale of Kozy-Korpesh and Bayan Slu. The script has been written by the Kazakh writer Gabit Musrepov and the film produced by Aimanov and Gakkel. All the events of the poem are unfolded against the authentic landscape of the steppes, mountains, and sultry, arid deserts of Kazakhstan. The film is said to be well-acted, particular praise being paid to Zhandarbekova in whose performance as the heroine, Bayan are reflected all the best qualities of the Kazakh people such as dignity, bravery, loyalty in friendship and love, spiritual beauty and a quick innate intelligence. Although not in colour, the film is said to mark a considerable advance of the young Kazakh film industry and a growing mastery on the part of producers and actors to create a mature work of art.

II. Cinemas and Film Distribution

Uzbekistan

that the number would be brought up to 970 by the end of 1950. A report of 15th December 1953 stated that in the rural districts alone there were 831 cinemas as against 758 at the beginning of the year. No figures are given for the number of cinemas in towns, but judging by the announcements which appear daily in Pravda Vostoka there are sixteen in Tashkent. Here, as in other towns of Central Asia, whatever the number of cinemas, it is not uncommon for the same film to be shown in several cinemas at the same time. Foreign films are occasionally seen, and in April the Uzbek press advertised a new Chinese film, Gate No. 6 said to have been "written by the stevedores of Tientsin port."

Despite the increased number of cinemas in rural areas, many people, it is said, are still deprived of cinema entertainment. At the Akhunbabaev kolkhoz of the Tashkent oblast, only four films were shown in ten months, although every mobile cinema unit is expected to serve seven kolkhozes at least three times a month each. Of the films shown, many had defective sound-tracks and some none at all. According to press reports, the distribution and exhibition of films has been particularly unsatisfactory in Kara-Kalpakia, and in the Kashka-Darya and Khorezm oblasts. This is considered to be especially deplorable in view of the fact that in 1953 the cinema distribution agencies of Uzbekistan received new projection equipment of Russian design and manufacture.

Kirgizia

A similar state of affairs appears to exist in Kirgizia. The republic has 342 cinemas, 80 of which belong to trade-unions; and although in 1953 15,000 film shows were held, in many of the rural clubs not a single film was seen for months, and the position does not seem to have improved since. Often films cannot be shown because spare parts for the projection equipment have not been supplied in time by the Ministry of Culture; the Issyk-Kul Bureau of Cinematography has provided no spare parts to the trade-union cinemas for more than two years. Sometimes also film shows have to be cancelled because of shortage of admission tickets. At Orto-Tokoi for this reason, no film show was held for ten days. Against this, however, it is pointed out that efforts are being made to establish regular film shows in the mountain areas of the republic, and already a number of films have been brought to remote villages hardly accessible to motor transport.

Frunze has been well supplied with foreign films; in April of this year, three Italian films were shown, Two-pennyworth of Hope, Rome Eleven o'Clock and Road of Hope, all dealing with unemployment and the life of the workers. These films were greatly praised by both the Russian and the Central Asian press for their "realism" and "truth". Among other films recently shown here were The Roumanian People's Republic and Life of Mozart.

Tadzhikistan

In Tadzhikistan there were 284 cinemas in 1953 and in the course of that year over 6,000 film shows were given in rural districts. At present, six to eight films are shown per month in each kolkhoz. Shortcomings are, however, reported from a number of districts: in the Kulyab raion the quota for film shows was only fulfilled by 42 per cent, and elsewhere a number of films were spoiled through the negligence and incompetence of the film operators.

Turkmenistan

In Turkmenistan, it is claimed, the number of cinemas is continually growing. By the end of March 1954, the republic had 215 cinemas of which 165 were mobile units. Recently five new permanent cinemas were established in the kolkhozes of the Chardzhou and Ashkhabad oblasts. The Turkmenistan Ministry of Culture is also supplying the existing cinemas with forty cars, fifty-five mobile projection units, forty-five mobile generators, and a large quantity of other technical equipment. But in spite of this, things are not as good as they might be. At a conference of cultural workers held in Ashkhabad at the beginning of this year, it was stated that, despite the continuous increase and improvement in cinemas, the 1953 plan was not fulfilled; moreover, the Glavkinoprokat (Main Film Distributors) were charged with supplying the rural cinemas with old films, while topical and popular scientific films were not adequately used for publicizing advanced agricultural techniques. Possibly to remedy this omission, a festival of agricultural films was held in February when such films as Complex Mechanization at a Cattle-breeding Farm, Early Vegetables, New Methods of Potato-planting, and the colour film, Tale of Green Plots were shown at forty cinemas and by forty-five mobile units. In spite of this, many criticisms are still heard: an article entitled "The film show did not take place" which appeared on 16th March in Turkmenskaya Iskra said that "often instructional films are quickly run off as prologues to a main film" and that "some kolkhoz managers are scornful of the value of instructional films." Some, indeed, only concern themselves with getting films for entertainment and some even refuse to pay for the agricultural or documentary films sent to them. Besides this, in the Kaganovich raion, film operators often spend days in search of suitable premises for a film show because in the whole raion only the Kalinin kolkhoz club has benches, while in the rest of the agricultural artels "there is nothing even resembling a seat; people have to stand right through the show, often stamping about in order to keep warm as the place is not heated - and how can it be heated" the writer asks "when film shows frequently take place in cattle yards? In these circumstances few people care to see even the most interesting films."

Kazakhstan

According to figures quoted in the Soviet Encyclopaedia published in June 1953, Kazakhstan had by that time 1283 public and 417 trade-union and club cinemas. A report in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 19th September 1953 stated that there were 1129 cinemas in the rural districts and that of this number 851 were mobile units. The increase in the number of mobile units since 1945, it is claimed, is shown by the fact that whereas nowadays one mobile unit serves five to seven villages, in 1945 it had to serve as many as twenty-nine. Moreover, the paper claimed, many individual film operators have exceeded the stipulated quota of twenty-two film shows per month. In the Alma-Ata oblast, since the spring of 1952, one film operator has been serving fishing kolkhozes and fish depots of the Balkhash raion with a film unit installed in a motor boat and has averaged thirty-five shows per month. In recent months the fishermen of the raion were shown the films Dzhambul, Bogdan Khmel'nitskii, Wedding with a Dowry, and a number of instructional films.

In spite of these achievements, however, the planned quota of film shows for rural communities has not been reached, and accounts of delays and defects are reported from various cattle-breeding kolkhozes and villages. The blame for this is placed both on the kolkhoz managers and on the cinema officials. In the Karaganda oblast, for instance, most of the film units belong to the trade-unions. These club cinemas cater for over forty per cent of the cinema-going public of the oblast. But they cannot make full use of their resources because of the obstructive attitude of the Central Administration of Cinematography, which often refuses a club permission to set up a film projector if one of the Administration's own cinemas is in the vicinity. It is also pointed out that managers and other cinema officials are often absent from their work for days at a time; this is because in order to obtain booklets of tickets for provincial cinemas, the representatives of every local mobile film unit are required to report personally to the Karaganda Department of Culture. Thus, for instance, the chairman of the Dzhezkazgan Palace of Culture recently spent ten days on such a journey and his expenses totalled 516 rubles. The advisability of forwarding the tickets by post has been mooted, but the Kazakh Ministry of Culture has so far taken no measures to bring this about. The complaint is also made that more cinemas are built in the towns at the expense of the country; the reason given is that cinemas in the rural areas do not pay their way.

Technically the working of the cinemas is said to be adequate; the Kazakh school for cine-mechanics, during the fifteen years of its existence has trained 2,386 operators, including 700 girls, and is at present extending its activities.

Conclusions

Although the available material on the cinema and film industry of Central Asia is scanty, certain features common to all five republics are apparent. A considerable increase in the number of cinemas has undoubtedly taken place in the years following the war; this increase, however, is not altogether balanced by a corresponding improvement in service, and defects in the distribution and exhibition of films appear to be mainly due to bad administration. Although foreign films, particularly those with a social slant, are sometimes shown, cinema programmes are mostly made up of locally produced and dubbed Russian films. It is clear that the cinema is regarded primarily as a means of education rather than of entertainment and, despite popular preference for feature films, the local film studios concentrate mostly on the production and exhibition of instructional films and documentaries.

Sources

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2. Soviet Encyclopaedia.
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D O S A A F : A N E X P E R I M E N T I N P A R A - M I L I T A R Y
T R A I N I N G

Organization and activities - DOSAAF in Central Asia - Uzbekistan - Kazakhstan - Kirgizia - Turkmenistan - Conclusion.

DOSAAF - (Dobrovolnoye Obshchestvo Sodeistviya Armii, Aviatsii i Flotu) - Army, Air Force and Navy Volunteer Association is an important and interesting branch of the Soviet military and para-military organization. Formed on an all-Union basis in 1951 by the amalgamation of three independent volunteer associations connected respectively to the three services, it would appear to correspond, very loosely and with a far wider field of mass application, to a combination of the British school and university volunteer system and the Home Guard, or second-line defence.

Its avowed primary purpose is to strengthen the defensive powers of the Soviet Union, firstly, by giving to young men and women, prior to their call-up for National Service, a grounding in the elementary individual training of their Service thorough enough to enable them easily and rapidly to assimilate the more complicated collective training when they join the armed forces; and secondly, by building up a second-line defence force, sufficiently trained to be able to support and supplement the activities of the regular armed forces in time of national emergency or invasion. Its voluntary basis and the extensive ramifications of its activities throughout the Union are proudly regarded as proof of the esteem in which the Soviet people hold their armed forces and the measure in which they are prepared voluntarily to support them.

DOSAAF covers a wide range of activity, embracing not only such purely military subjects as rifle and revolver shooting, but also the whole field of those individual attainments - motor-driving and cycling, flying and parachute jumping, mechanical and wireless technical knowledge, skiing, sailing, horsemanship and the like - which are of direct importance in the complex corporate entity of modern armed forces; and, since physical fitness is recognized as the essential basis of all military efficiency, games and sports of all kinds play an important part in the DOSAAF curriculum.

The Association is guided in all its numerous activities by the Party and works in close collaboration with trade-union and Komsomol organizations. The first two years of its existence were in the nature of a period of experiment. By the autumn of 1953, however, the position was regarded as sufficiently clarified to justify a general

stock-taking, and during November and December of that year reports were consolidated, inefficient and inactive executive members were weeded out, a widespread and intensive publicity drive was inaugurated, new executive committees at all levels were elected and the broad lines of the Association's permanent future form were agreed upon.

Criticisms of the trial period have been both numerous and severe, and the results obtained were recognized as being little more than embryonic; from these it was hoped an all-Union Association embracing the whole population would grow. Nevertheless the Association, in its present numerical strength and with the degree of all-round efficiency attained, is considered already to have reached a position, which will not only ensure for the future a continuous, sustained and adequate dissemination throughout the Union of the elementary principles of military training and methods of mass-defence, but will also enable it, as it now stands, to make an immediate and valuable contribution in case of national emergency.

Of actual members, more than twenty per cent already hold certificates as pilots, parachutists, mechanics, drivers, wireless and telegraph technicians and operators, and the like. During 1953 more than one and a half million members of DOSAAF underwent instruction in small-arms training and took part in rifle and revolver shooting competitions; and of them, some two hundred thousand reached the standards laid down for the various categories of marksmanship. The number of qualified pilots, parachutists, designers and other aviation technicians has already reached twenty-two thousand and is increasing rapidly. Next in popularity to rifle shooting comes training for the Navy, and nearly half a million volunteered for courses in seamanship and aquatic training and sports. Detailed statistics as regards wireless technicians, qualified mechanics and others are not quoted, but here again the response is regarded as being gratifyingly large.

Interest in aviation is by no means confined to practical flying. Great emphasis is laid on the importance of the study of aerodynamics, and the popular enthusiasm for model aircraft, which appears to be common throughout the Union, is particularly encouraged. By November 1953 the results of all model aircraft design and performance competitions throughout the Soviet Union had been scrutinized, and twenty-four all-Union records were confirmed. Eleven of these, among them the performance of a jet-propelled model which attained a speed of 264 kilometres per hour, are claimed to be world records.

While it is not yet possible to form any estimate of present or future membership, the figures quoted above are sufficient to show that DOSAAF is a movement of considerable importance, capable of playing an important role in national defence in case of sudden emergency and of making a large and valuable contribution to the strength of the Soviet armed forces.

DOSAAF in Central Asia

From its inception in 1951, DOSAAF was launched as an all-Union movement simultaneously and on a uniform pattern throughout all the republics of the USSR. In Central Asia, as elsewhere, the activities of the first two years were of an exploratory character, which culminated, as in Russia itself, with a general stock-taking in the autumn of 1953, the holding of elections for the various executive committees and the placing of the Association on its permanent footing. In general, allowing for the greater administrative and organizational difficulties with which the movement inevitably has to contend, response in Central Asia appears on the whole to be satisfactory, but uneven in the various republics.

In all the Central Asian republics there is a great scarcity of material equipment, sporting-gear and clothing, playing-fields, rifle-ranges, halls for instruction and discussions, club premises and similar facilities; and the Central Asian press, fully appreciating the fact that the successful expansion of para-military training and sport of all kinds depends to a very large degree on the possession of these amenities, is persistent in its efforts to draw attention to existing deficiencies, to the widespread dissatisfaction they are causing and to the handicap they are imposing on the development of DOSAAF activities.

The popularity of small-arms training and shooting competitions, and the inexpert and very amateurish organization of sport are salient features, which are also common to all Central Asian republics. Small-arms training appears to be consistently progressive and to embrace small-bore shooting, elementary instruction with Service weapons, fire and movement, snapshooting and rapid fire - in short - the whole curriculum of the complete marksman. The general standard attained is good; many noteworthy performances, by both men and women, are recorded, and a variety of records, some republican and some all-Union, have been set up. At Regar in Tadzhikistan, at the Lenin secondary school, classes in small-arms, have been started, at which, apart from shooting, instruction is also given in the mechanism and working of small-arms.

The organization of sport is not, of course, a monopoly of DOSAAF, and many local and republican authorities, educational institutions and clubs are actively engaged in the promotion of physical culture and games. Their efforts, however, are spasmodic, and un-coordinated; it is therefore probable that DOSAAF will gradually assume a general control, and that its wide ramifications and superior facilities will result in a greater degree of standardization and coordination.

Uzbekistan

At the end of the exploratory period, while it was generally

acknowledged that the provisional committees formed in 1951 had, on the whole, successfully accomplished their primary task of launching the movement, the general results and the response are considered to have left much to be desired.

Lack of efficiency and, in some cases, of zeal on the part of local committees resulted in a failure both to establish the essential primary cells throughout the kolkhoz and sovkhoz estates, the industrial undertakings, and the schools and universities of the republic, and to enlist the interest and active support of the masses. In the oblasts of Bukhara, Surkhan-Darya, Andizhan, Kashka-Darya, Tashkent and Fergana, organization has been faulty, and the response has in consequence been numerically disappointing. The Komsomol has not given the active support which is expected of it, and less than half of the Uzbek Komsomoltsy have joined the Association.

In the Shabbaz raion of the Karakalpak ASSR and the Voroshilov raion of the Andizhan oblast, on the other hand, thanks to the activity and efficiency of the local committees, very considerable progress has been made, both in recruiting and in training. Progress, too, has been general in mass-defence training, for which the Party itself is directly responsible, though here, also, the requisite amount of guidance and help is not always forthcoming. In December 1953 there was a brief resume in the press of recent notable rifle shooting performances, among which were four new republican records, two by men and two by women.

In spite of the fact that progress had been by no means uniform, the stage was deemed set for the next phase, and elections for the primary organizations were due to be completed by 20th November 1953. Prior to these elections, all members of the Association were mobilized in an intensive drive to try and make good some of the weaknesses and deficiencies which the preliminary reports had brought to light. Raion conferences were due to be held by 1st December, oblast conferences by 10th December, and the republican conference was fixed for 19th-20th December. On 23rd December the first Uzbek republican conference was briefly reported in the press; the report mentioned the good work of DOSAAF units in certain industrial plants, including the Khilkov Cement Works, in the kolkhoz Bolshevik of the Bukhara oblast and in a number of educational institutions. As a remedy for the prevailing lack of equipment, the suggestion was put forward that the requisite gear should be purchased through and with the assistance of the trade-union, the Komsomol, and agricultural and industrial concerns, which should then accept the responsibility of making it available to all throughout the republic.

Kazakhstan

According to press reports, during the first two years of the existence of DOSAAF in Kazakhstan, very considerable progress was made;

membership grew very rapidly, primary cells were established throughout the kolkhozes, sovkhoses, and the industrial and educational institutions of the republic; the Association is, in fact, rapidly assuming the proportions of a mass organization. The official stock-taking and the facts revealed during the canvassing for the elections held at the end of 1953 do not, however, entirely corroborate this optimistic account. Many of the primary cells were found to exist on paper only; in numerous instances the initial impetus had been sluggishly launched; and in not a few raions mass-defence had been ignored and sports very poorly organized. As in Uzbekistan, the true picture is probably a patchwork of success and comparative failure, according to the zeal and efficiency of the local committees concerned. It is of interest to note that here again the support given by the Komsomol is particularly disappointing; in spite of the decision of the Communist Party Central Committee that Komsomol members should be called upon to enlist en masse in DOSAAF, only about one third has responded to the appeal, and nowhere are the Komsomoltsy taking the lead expected of them in the paramilitary or the sporting activities of the Association.

In general, no concrete statistics are available, but it seems that about one hundred primary cells are active in the republic, and that membership, while falling short of expectation and nowhere approaching its potential maximum, has nevertheless grown and is increasing rapidly.

In detail, both response and efficiency are claimed to be satisfactory in the oblast of Dzhambul, particularly so in the Merke raion; they are less satisfactory in the Guryev, West-Kazakhstan, Karaganda, Kyzl-Orda and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts; patchy in the Alma-Ata oblast, where organization is faulty and response poor, particularly in the Ili and Lenin districts; and exceptionally poor in the Shakhta raion of Karaganda, where no provisional committee at all has been established and where the whole burden rested - and still rests - on the shoulders of a single instructor.

During November 1953 the Kazakh press took the opportunity of stressing the great significance of the coming DOSAAF elections, which it described as the culminating stage of two years of strenuous preparation and as an event of paramount importance to the future development of "this great patriotic Association."

On 18th December reports on the first republican conference of DOSAAF delegates appeared in the press. The conference expressed the general opinion that the foundations for the rapid building of DOSAAF into a nation-wide mass Association had been well and truly laid. The new republican committee was elected, delegates to the all-Union DOSAAF were nominated, and many new measures for the implementation of DOSAAF plans were agreed upon. Publicity regarding the objects and aims of

the Association had not, it was considered, been sufficiently widespread and forceful, and this would be rectified; a large number of new groups and training centres with improved facilities for both sport and paramilitary training are to be established; particular emphasis is to be laid on further expanding and extending small-arms training, various uniform standards of marksmanship are to be laid down, numerous rifle meetings are to be organized, and, with the dual incentive of competition and prizes, it is confidently expected that shooting will become a mass attraction and that the majority of members will readily qualify in one or other of the established categories of marksmanship. Finally the conference issued a special appeal to the Komsomoltsy, urging them to give their full and active support to the Association.

Kazakhstan appears to be grappling more successfully with the problem of equipment than most of its neighbours. Thanks to the assistance of the trade-unions, the Kazakh DOSAAF was able during 1953 to purchase rifles to the value of 150,000 rubles and to acquire 50 motor-cycles and a large number of manuals on sports and elementary military training; a boat club has been established for instruction in seamanship and aquatic sports in Alma-Ata, where nine rifle-ranges are also in use..

The shooting activities of the republic culminated in the first Kazakh republican rifle meeting, which was held in June on the Alma-Ata ranges and lasted for ten days or more; on the conclusion of the meeting, teams and individuals to represent the republic in the all-Union meetings were selected.

In the field of technical instruction too, progress is claimed to be gratifying; no figures are quoted, but "very large numbers" of members are said to have qualified as pilots, drivers, mechanics, wireless technicians and so on. Kazakh sportsmen are as enthusiastic as they are numerous, but the general standard of their performance is low. Haphazard organization, lack of facilities, dearth of expert coaching and the absence of any systematic method of regular training among the athletes themselves are given as the reasons. Winter sports are particularly badly organized. In many oblasts instructors are absent or on leave just at the time when their services are most urgently needed, ski-runs are not properly prepared and mountain rest-houses are poorly equipped; even in Karaganda, which boasts of a particularly flourishing sports club, no skis and no ice-hockey equipment are available, and in Petropavlovsk and Guryev conditions are equally bad.

Kirgizia

Except for detailed accounts of the results of rifle meetings, which appear to be very numerous, the Kirgiz press devotes very little

space to DOSAAF activities, and from such meagre reports as are published, it would seem that the local authorities show neither enthusiasm nor ability, and that the republic as a whole has so far remained bluntly unresponsive. The 1953 report on the work of the first six months of the year admits that only a paltry 15 per cent of the planned training programme was carried out. The central administration was said to be incompetent in the extreme; its annual accounts were in a chaotic state, reports on progress made during the exploratory period were not collated, and arrangements for the new elections were not made.

In the Issyk-Kul oblast even the Party itself is apathetic, while support from the trade-unions and the Komsomol organizations is negligible; recruiting is disappointing, and of those who have enrolled only 17 per cent have as yet paid their subscriptions. In the Przhevalsk, Voznesensk and Dzhety-Oguz districts mass-defence and anti-gas training are badly neglected. As regards physical training and sport, the situation is much the same, and very little has been accomplished; the conditions of service and living amenities offered to instructors are so poor that very few qualified men come forward, and those who do move on as soon as a more attractive opening offers itself.

Complaints about poor supplies are particularly loud in Kirgizia. The procurement and distribution of sports gear in the republic is a responsibility shared by the Dynamo sporting society and the Kirgiz-potrebovuz, (the Kirgiz Consumers' Cooperative), but so far in at least three oblasts - those of Tien-Shan, Issyk-Kul and Frunze - no arrangements whatever for the sale and distribution of sports gear have been made. In Tien-Shan, for example, ideal facilities for skiing lie ready to hand, but in the whole oblast only a few dozen pairs of skis are available, and the very large number of would-be enthusiasts have still to train on crude, home-made substitutes. The authorities, however, are not inactive in the matter. In December 1953 the Kirgiz Minister for Health announced a number of improvements and innovations. New ski-centres, he said, had been opened at Naryn and Przhevalsk; a camp for mountaineers had been established in the Ala Archin gorge, and an automobile club at Tokmak; a staff of physical training instructors had been engaged for the Frunze stadium, where a new stand to accommodate 3000 people had been erected, and stadiums and covered swimming-pools were shortly to be constructed at Kizyl-Kiya and Sulyukta. All these improvements and additions, the Minister asserted, would be of great assistance and benefit to DOSAAF.

Rifle shooting activities present a brighter picture, and if the volume of press reports be accepted as the yardstick of achievement, small-arms training and rifle meetings are more widespread and better organized in Kirgizia than in any other republic. Successful meetings were held in the Osh oblast in July and August 1953; at the Frunze meeting to celebrate the thirty-sixth anniversary of the October Revolution the general standard of shooting was very high and four new

records were established, one of them by a team of five schoolgirls, who scored 2,568 points out of a possible 3,000; in March 1954 a meeting at Khorog in the Pamirs attracted 36 teams and 180 competitors, and eliminating competitions for the selection of competitors in the inter-republic and all-Union matches are now in progress.

Turkmenistan

There appears to be very considerable DOSAAF activity in Turkmenistan and, if the net result is not one of wholesale and unqualified success, sufficient has been accomplished to justify the opinion that the Association is in a flourishing state.

"Many thousands" are said to be flocking to join the Association, while hundreds of schoolboys and girls are devoting their spare time to studying wireless telegraphy and other technical subjects, attending preliminary courses in small-arms training and taking part in physical culture and sports of all kinds. The Chardzhou branch has established itself as a centre for aquatic training and sports, and the Stalin raion of Ashkhabad, while being the object of criticism in other directions, is active in arranging small-arms instruction and rifle meetings, at which many of the participants qualify as marksmen. Nor is the theoretical side neglected, and many lectures are given at the smaller branches of the Association.

The Sredazhheldorstoi (Central Asian Railroad Construction Trust) is particularly praised for the keen and efficient manner in which it sponsors and organizes DOSAAF activities, both in practical work and in theoretical and technical instruction.

Reports from the Krasnovodsk oblast are less satisfactory. Poor progress is reported in all branches of para-military training and mass-defence, and the raion committees of Hasan Kuli, Kum-Dag and Kizyl-Atrek, in all of which districts membership has actually declined, have been sharply criticized for their supine attitude. But the responsibility for this general lack of success is placed squarely on the shoulders of the local organizations, and the oblast committee is confident that, once these weaknesses are eradicated, a marked improvement will be seen.

The provisional Turkmenistan committee appears to be satisfied, but by no means complacent. Its special criticisms are directed against the Chardzhou Silk-Reeling Mills, of whose employees less than one hundred have joined the Association, and against the Komsomol which, once again, appears to have stubbornly ignored all the special appeals made to it.

In the whole of Turkmenistan, only in two towns, Ashkhabad and Nebit-Dag, can sports gear and equipment be purchased, and even there

in very limited quantities. In Krasnovodsk, a city with a rapidly growing population, where no fewer than 6,000 competitors took part in the various athletic meetings during 1953, there are no sports shops of any kind. Many thousands who evince keen interest in football, gymnastics, tennis and other games, are unable to practise and train through lack of the requisite gear and facilities, and in Krasnovodsk itself exasperated sportsmen are urging their town councillors to open a store dealing exclusively in sports goods.

The general lack of facilities has adversely affected the standard reached, but does not quench the enthusiasm shown by Turkmen sportsmen. Turkmenistan took third place in the inter-republic games of 1952, but the performances of her athletes were not of high standard, and little improvement has since been made. There is a particularly acute shortage of good coaches; on the official register there are, admittedly, 727 instructors, but of these only 37 hold any sort of instructor's certificate, and only 7 have really high professional qualifications. A further handicap is the absence of any manuals on military training or on sport in the Turkmen language.

Conclusion

In spite of many failures and frustrations, the foundations of DOSAAF appear to have been firmly laid in Central Asia. During the two years of trial and error, apart from concrete achievements, there has been gathered a mass of information which should give the central executive a clear indication of the requirements for the future. The assumption by DOSAAF of a general supervision of physical training and sports should undoubtedly lead both to a rapid improvement in the supply of gear and facilities, and to a coordinated and more efficient organization of sport as a whole; and this in its turn may well have a direct bearing on the future success of the military side of the organization.

Sources

Central Asian press.

A NOTE ON SOME ASPECTS OF
SOVIET NEOLOGY

An important part of the mental equipment of any student of Soviet affairs is the comprehension of the special meanings attached to words of non-Russian - usually Latin or Greek - origin used in the Soviet political vocabulary. Many of these meanings differ in varying degrees from those attached to the same words in the West.

Communism is now generally regarded as a kind of secular religion and like most religions it has an abstract vocabulary of its own. Although Russian may be thought of as the "liturgical language" of Communism in the same way as Latin and Arabic are the liturgical languages of the Roman Church and of Islam, the great majority of words relating to Communist dogma are not of Russian or Slavonic origin. This is due partly to the foreign origin and to the international target of Communist doctrine, and partly to the established tendency of Russian to contrive new words from foreign rather than Slavonic sources. The abstract vocabulary of the Orthodox Church was for the most part Slavonic, and this may be an additional reason why this source is avoided by Communism.

There is a noticeable tendency in English writing on Soviet subjects to render such words as agitatsiya, natsionalizm, kultura and formalizm by their English counterparts of agitation, nationalism, culture and formalism, regardless of the fact that these counterparts have in the West an accepted meaning quite different from the Communist one. It is seldom possible to render the latter by a single word, and the expedient is now being adopted in Central Asian Review of indicating the existence of a special meaning by enclosing English counterparts in inverted commas. Where the English counterpart has a rare or totally unrelated use in English, the Russianized word is transliterated as if it were Russian and underlined, for example, kollektiv, aktiv.

It is of course true that these devices are unnecessary for those familiar with Communist terminology, but they have the advantage of enabling such words to be used in their Western sense, when required, simply by dropping the inverted commas. Moreover, some such expedient is necessary in the interests of accuracy and objectivity. A misleading impression may easily be created by the loose use of words whose meaning or emotional value in English and Russian is different. The very word objectivity is a case in point. The Russian word obyektivizm means by Soviet definition "explanations of the necessity and laws of the historical process which justify and praise the capitalist

system and conceal bourgeois views with a pretended 'theoretical absence of party spirit'." It is clearly "a bad thing" and the word is often used to stigmatize a method of approach which in the West would be described as objectivity. It cannot however be rendered by objectivity, which in the West is generally regarded as "a good thing." If it is rendered by objectivism (without inverted commas) misunderstanding must arise, for this word is used in English merely to describe any theory of knowledge which to a greater or less extent attributes reality (as the source and pre-requisite of knowledge) to the outside world. The use of inverted commas indicates that the word is being used in its Communist sense.

The same objection applies to the rendering of agitatsiya and agitator by agitation and agitator. In English these words have a distinctly pejorative atmosphere whereas in modern Communist language they are used to describe an activity and a class of person regarded in Soviet society with no less respect than the preaching of the gospel and the missionary are regarded in Western society.

These differences in meaning are, of course, due to differences of association which have arisen from a parting of the ways of Communist and Western or pre-revolutionary Russian thinking and ideology. A valuable guide to the current Communist meanings of non-Russian words of international usage is the Slovar Inostrannykh Slo (Dictionary of Foreign Words) published in Moscow in 1949. This book contains about 20,000 foreign words now used in the Russian language with their officially accepted meanings. In some cases, the international meaning is also given without comment; but in others such as "cosmopolitanism" and "imperialism" explanation is confined to the Communist conception. The fact is that in the Communist vocabulary some words are nowadays never used except in a bad sense, and any good or even neutral sense in which they may once have been used in Russian or are now used in other languages is deliberately obscured.

The attachment of an extended or entirely new meaning to loanwords taken into one language from another to which it bears no morphological resemblance is a phenomenon by no means confined to Russian or to the specialized vocabulary of Communism. In concrete nouns or those relating to material matters such extensions and differences are easily perceived and dealt with. No one would be satisfied with rendering the Russian words platforma (in the sense of truck) and dislokatsiya (in the military sense) as platform and dislocation. But in point of fact the differences between the meanings of natsiyonalizm and nationalism, agitatsiya and agitation, kulturnyi and cultured are almost as wide, and to ignore or gloss over them may - and frequently does - result in serious misunderstanding.

PROBLEMS OF ALL-UNION PLANNING

Psychological and Social Factors in the Kazakhstan Cereal Plan.

The new cereal plan for Kazakhstan involves the mass movement of people and materials from all parts of the Union into a sparsely populated area with few or no amenities. Kazakhstan is moreover a nominally self-governing republic whose people have an old if outdated agricultural tradition. It is thus hardly surprising that an undertaking of this kind should be beset with a number of psychological and social problems, most of which are dwelt upon at length by the Central Asian and all-Union press.

The classification of the plan as an all-Union rather than a republican effort would not in itself imply the inability of the Kazakhstan administration to manage its own agriculture. The essence of the plan is the placing of new and virgin lands under cultivation, and the population of Kazakhstan, whether indigenous or settled, would clearly be inadequate for this purpose. But the systematic denigration of the Kazakh Party First Secretary, Shayakhmetov, and the replacement of him and his Second Secretary by Ponomarenko and Brezhnev shows clearly that the Kazakh people themselves are to have little or no say in the application of a plan designed to have a fundamental effect not only on the economy, but also on the population of their country. The proportion of Russian and Ukrainian settlers to native Kazakhs is already very considerable and it can scarcely be supposed that the Kazakhs will regard with equanimity an enormous increase in this proportion, and also in the application of machines and methods which they do not understand and which they regard as calculated to deprive the ordinary peasant of his livelihood. At the Seventh Congress of the Kazakhstan Communist Party, sharp criticism was directed against those local officials who, influenced by tradition, regard the development of grain cultivation, and the ploughing up for this purpose of pasture land, as a threat to the survival of the livestock industry, which they persist in regarding as the one most suited to the conditions prevailing in Kazakhstan. Vigorous attempts are being made to convince such officials that the intensification of wheat cultivation will create more favourable conditions for the development of animal husbandry rather than supplant it. In deploring the defeatism and lack of imagination among local officials, the press constantly emphasizes the poor quality of Party personnel and the failure of the raikoms to exercise spiritual and physical control over their primary cells, this being especially true in the new lands where communications are still undeveloped.

There is strong Party and press criticism of the flood of administrative paper which is said to be clogging the machinery of the plan.

This is taken as an indication of "formalism" in the approach to agricultural matters, that is to say, of a tendency to carry out orders mechanically and without entering into their spirit. It is claimed that the issue of paper guidance in the form of numerous telegrams, questionnaires and circulars is used as a lazy substitute for personal supervision and executive action. It results in the time of local officials and specialists being largely occupied with replying to questionnaires and instructions, many of which are duplicated. Many recent instances of this evil are quoted and it is represented as being in some way incident on the plan itself rather than as a long-standing defect. A correspondent reports from Alma-Ata that in the course of five months the Ministry of Agriculture issued 1,710 orders and directives to MT stations, whose directors were in addition daily pestered by letters, telegrams and telephone messages. In the first six weeks of this year, the director of the Qii MTS received from his oblast centre 309 orders and enquiries. In two months the Molotov raion executive committee received 220 circulars from its oblast centre, many of them dealing with matters already dealt with. Most of these circulars and directives are marked "urgent", and dire consequences are threatened if they are not complied with. All this bureaucracy is described as a legacy left behind by Shayakhmetov, who, in company with other high officials; is supposed to have taken refuge in paper in order to conceal a fundamental ignorance of the land and its requirements.

One of the most serious problems confronting the Soviet authorities is the element of hooliganism among the young Komsomol members who are being directed into the new lands of Kazakhstan. This matter was dealt with in some detail in a recent article in Literaturnaya Gazeta. It appears that many of these young men are far from being the well-trained, willing and conscientious workers required for the furtherance of the plan. There is, in fact, a considerable and even organized element among them of unstable and reckless youths who are merely out for adventure. By profession they are mostly drivers and mechanics, they are well-turned out and groomed and have a plausible command of current Party slogans and popular attitudes to education. They profess indeed to be disciples of the Makarenko⁺ school of education and are quick to cite his alleged precepts in defence of any of their number caught out in an act of hooliganism. "Don't arrest him," they cry, "he is only a boy. All he needs is a little education to remove his bad impulses. We all make mistakes, don't we?"

Many of these young men are intelligent and strong and can work well when they want to. A part of the trouble seems to lie in the

⁺ A wellknown educationalist who specialized in juvenile delinquency. His book The Road to Life has become a household word.

romantic picture which has been painted of the possibilities which lie before them in Kazakhstan. They would be quite prepared to stand up to the primitive living conditions on the new lands, but only if they had work to do and an opportunity to prove their mettle. Unfortunately, however, they often find that the hard conditions are there but not the work, for they are often sent to places where the land is so poor as to be unworkable. Sometimes they are met on their arrival by sovkhos directors who cordially invite them to listen to the radio and otherwise amuse themselves since there is no immediate work to be done. When they ask to be shown the workshops they are led to a mud hut with a leaking roof in which valuable tractors lie rusting. They ask to see the seed-drills, and are shown a kind of dumping-ground where dismantled parts of machinery and metal are lying about in disorder. On their way they have seen parts of Finnish made prefabricated houses marked "store in a dry place", but lying on the ground covered with snow. This kind of thing naturally produces a sense of frustration and often ends in acts of hooliganism towards their comrades and superiors.

It appears that the most stable and conscientious element of the Komsomoltsy comes from the Ukraine, and notably from the Poltava, Dnepropetrovsk and Kharkov districts, and from Transcarpathia. The Ukrainian Party authorities seem to exercise considerable care in selecting the right type of youth, and Ukrainians are in any event well known for the facility with which they settle down in new and unfamiliar conditions. The worst element includes youths from Moscow, many with criminal records, and also from Alma-Ata, whose authorities seem to have used this opportunity to rid the city of its hooligan element. Unfortunately, the better type seem to be less well organized than the hooligans and easily cowed by them. Curiously enough, the Party officials also seem to be afraid of the hooligans or inclined to side with them. The press reports an incident which occurred on the 1st May last when, infuriated at the closing of the drink-shops, a section of the population, led by newly arrived hooligans, rushed the house of the official responsible and dragged him into the street. In this case he was saved by the better element of the Komsomoltsy who fought off the hooligans. The leader of the latter, however, remained unpunished. A Party official merely requested him to behave better in the future and in the presence of the crowd shook him warmly by the hand and congratulated him on the great festival. At Kzyl-Tu in the Kokchetav oblast, a young hooligan knifed the director of a sovkhos and also wounded several of those who tried to drag him away from his victim. He was arrested but set free the following morning, for in the view of the police, although they had the right to arrest him for being drunk, they had no right to detain him any further.

The press is loud in its condemnation of such incidents, but recognizes the difficulty of maintaining discipline in the prevailing

conditions. Some prominence has recently been given to the matter of amenities in the new lands. Housing is naturally deficient, but there is even a shortage of temporary caravan accommodation, many of the workers being forced to live in tents or dug-outs. There are plans to provide large numbers of prefabricated houses and thirty combined cinema-radio units have already been despatched from Samarkand factories to Akmolinsk, Kokchetav and North-Kazakhstan. The press recognizes the danger of leading the new settlers to expect too much. As one observer remarked: "The new lands of Kazakhstan are not the Klondyke."

The remedy unceasingly prescribed for all these troubles is the better organization and intensification of Party work. It is the duty of Party officials and the agitkollektiv, the element responsible for the indoctrination of Party principles and discipline, to instil a proper understanding of the aims of the new plan into the local population, particularly in the rural areas. The local Party organizations have also to take the new settlers under their political wing, and it is pointed out that many of the incidents of hooliganism are due to the insufficient proportion of Party members on the new sovkhoses. In some cases this is as low as two or three percent, far too small a number to exercise a restraining influence on unruly elements.

UZBEKISTAN

BEGOVAT: KEY TO CENTRAL ASIAN
INDUSTRIALIZATION

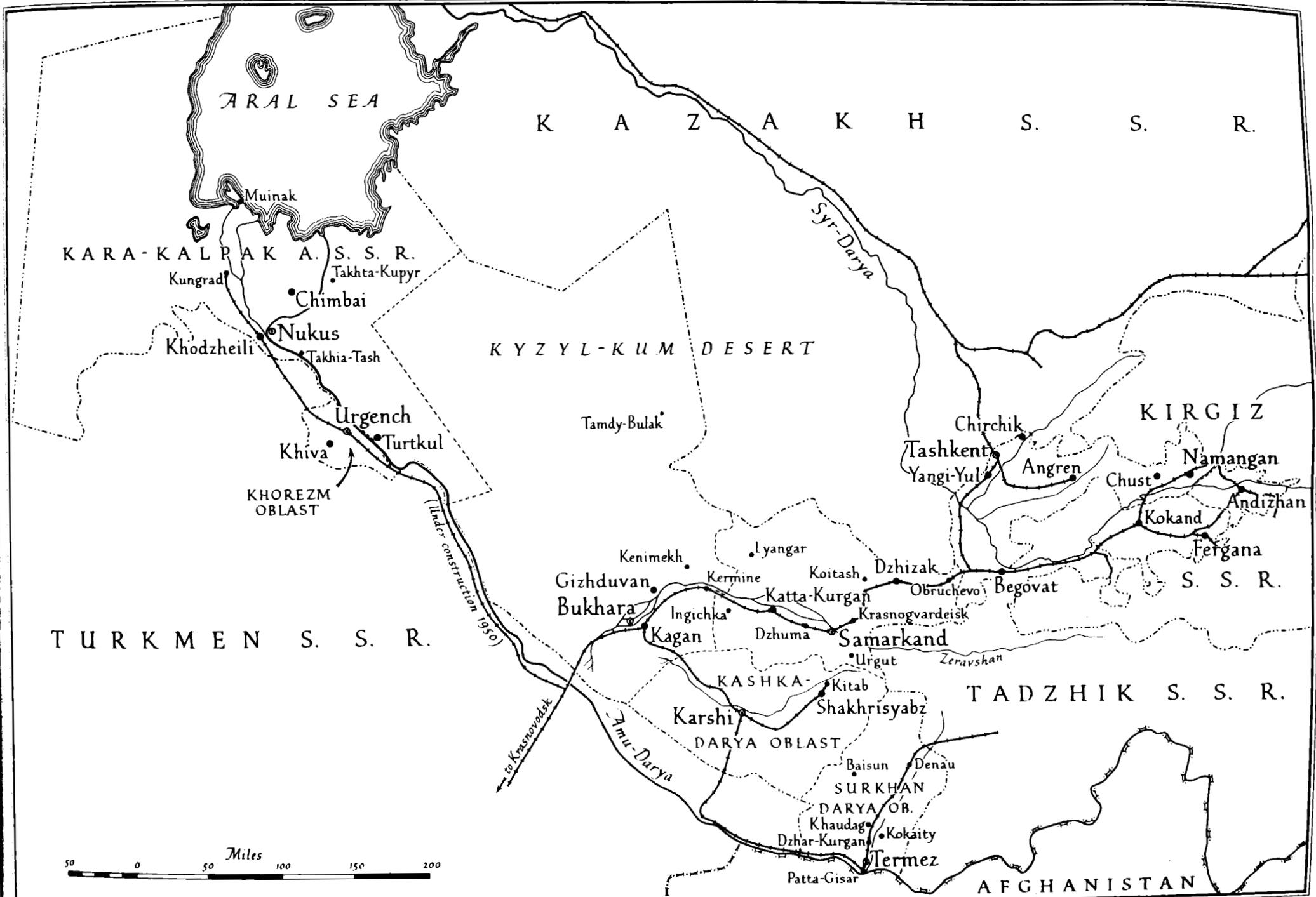
Importance of Begovat, its history and location - Expansion since 1946 - Modernization of production techniques - Supplies of raw materials - The training of skilled workers - Future of Begovat.

The industrial development of Central Asia began in the thirties when a number of factories were built in Uzbekistan. Today the republic has many different industrial undertakings including cotton-mills, chemical works, and canneries, while the most important branch of Uzbek industry is mechanical engineering. Uzbekistan is the most important cotton-producing area of the Soviet Union and, as is to be expected, many of her factories produce machinery for the cotton industry; thus for instance the Tashselmash factory at Tashkent produces cotton-batting machines and cotton pickers, the Tashtextilmash produces fly frames and ring spinning frames, the Uzbekselmash produces cotton-sowing machines and various agricultural machinery. Other factories make cranes, pumps, tractor spares, and equipment for the chemical industry and the oil industry. All these undertakings, it is claimed, are being continuously expanded and equipped with up-to-date machine tools.

This industrial expansion is in line with the policy pursued by the Soviet government of encouraging the regional self-sufficiency of Central Asia; correspondingly, the expansion of mechanical engineering has necessitated an expansion in the metallurgical industry to meet the growing demand for iron and steel, and hence the importance of the steelworks at Begovat.

Started in 1943 as a scrap reduction plant for the purpose of turning out steel from the war scrap collected from the battlefields of the USSR, the steelworks at Begovat, since 1950 called the Uzbek Metallurgical Works, have become the biggest producers of iron and steel in the whole of Central Asia and a key factor in its future industrialization. The output of steel has grown steadily since 1946, the first year of production, when 28,000 metric tons were turned out, and the output for this year may be estimated at something in the region of 198,000 metric tons. Although five years ago only about a third of the iron and steel produced at Begovat was consumed in

UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



Uzbekistan while the remainder was sent to other parts of the USSR, today it is almost all used in Central Asia.

Begovat is situated in the oblast of Tashkent and about 128 km. south of Tashkent city. It is not far from Khilkovo railway station on the banks of the Syr-Darya; on the opposite bank lies the Farkhad power-station which came into operation in 1949. The nearness of railway, river and power have all helped in the development of Begovat, which before the Revolution was only a small kishlak but which today has, in addition to the steelworks, a number of modern industries, including a cement plant, a cement pipe factory, cotton-ginning mills and motor-repair workshops. All of these came into being between 1940 and 1951. In 1949 the population was over 10,000, and there are now nine schools, six cinemas, as well as clubs, hospitals and other municipal services, and work is continually going on with the building of houses, flats and hostels for the workers of the Uzbek Metallurgical Works and of other local industries.

Expansion since 1946

The construction of the Begovat steelworks was started in 1943 during the Second World War. The first steel melting was done in March 1944, and the first rolling mill was put into operation in 1946, the year in which industrial steel production was started. Between 1946 and 1951 there was a threefold increase in the number of Martin (open-hearth) furnaces, and by the end of 1952 they were yielding, it was claimed, 115 to 120 per cent of the output originally planned for them. The Uzbek Metallurgical Works now comprise not only a number of Martin furnaces for working scrap, but also rolling mills, sheet iron and crude iron workshops, electric furnaces, and other services, as well as a thermal power-plant, now merely a reserve source of power since the Farkhad power-station has been in operation.

Under the fourth Five-Year Plan, the output of steel ingots and rolled steel was planned to increase about three times, i.e. from 28,000 metric tons in 1946 to 86,000 metric tons in 1950. In fact, it was claimed, this target was exceeded by 8 per cent. By 1952, steel production was said to be two and a half times that of 1948 and almost five times that of 1946. The output of rolled iron increased by 18.5 per cent in 1952 and in the same year labour productivity went up by 23.2 per cent. The yearly targets for both steel and rolled metal were completed during November 1952, and, as a result of this progress, the targets for 1953 were raised by 35.5 per cent for steel ingots and 20.5 per cent for rolled steel. It was said that during the first six months of 1953 the steelworks did not achieve their planned output; but the progress must all the same have been considerable for it was claimed that during the first seven and a half months of 1953 the works yielded as much steel and rolled iron as during the whole of 1952. The yearly output targets for both steel and rolled iron were reported as achieved by the end of December 1953. The increase over the 1952 output was later given as 20.8 per cent for steel and 20 per cent for rolled iron,

which is difficult to reconcile with the foregoing statements. During 1954 the production situation is said to be satisfactory, and outputs of iron and steel are going up every month.

Modernization of production techniques

To achieve these increased outputs, not only have many new furnaces been built but certain steps have been taken to bring about more efficient working. That this was necessary is seen, for instance, from the statement that during 1952 the suspension of work due to accidents and other causes totalled 717 hours during which time the Martin furnaces were kept hot but idle. Now, however, measures have been taken to ensure that equipment and machine tools are used to their fullest capacity. Production processes have become almost wholly automatic; intervals of unemployment or underemployment of machine tools and equipment have been reduced by speeding up repairs and drastically curtailing the suspension of operations in general.

A new "inclined stockade" and teeming pit have also been brought into operation which improves the delivery of charges to the Martin furnaces, and the teeming process is said to have been speeded up. At the iron-rolling mills "an apparatus for using hot gas to heat the air" (a recuperator?) has been introduced.

Particular attention has been paid to raising the speed of melting operations, and during the first four months of 1953 a group of workers completed 522 high speed meltings - a task which took six months in 1952. Already by the end of 1952 the yield of steel per square metre of hearth area rose by one and a half tons for each melting. Some teams (working one shift per day) achieved 70 high speed meltings per month. In spite of this progress, however, the criticism is heard that the rhythm of work still lacks stability. Thus, for instance, one day (i.e. three shifts) ten meltings may be obtained from a Martin furnace, while the next day only eight will be carried out. This may, however, be due to the habitual shortage of flux or to difficulties in the supply of scrap metal.

Supply of raw materials

The Uzbek Metallurgical Works receive raw materials from all parts of the USSR: pig iron from Magnitogorsk in the Urals, coke from Kemerovo in Western Siberia, and coal from Karaganda in Kazakhstan. Supplies of scrap metal come from the Uzbek branch of the Glavvtorchermet - the body administering the recovery of ferrous metals - which is under contract to supply 75 per cent of all the scrap needed by the Works. The Glavvtorchermet has eleven sorting yards at its disposal in which it is supposed to collect, store and sort the scrap. Many serious criticisms are, however, directed against this body: as a

result of bad sorting much of the scrap which reaches the steelworks is unclassified as to type and size; a proportion of non-ferrous metals, and of useless waste material and impurities is included; even in quantity, the amount reaching the steelworks has been at times very inadequate. During the first four months of 1953 only 21 per cent of the quantity due was received; in May a mere 10 per cent; one seventh of the material received is of an unclassified category consisting mostly of light scrap and very rusty turnings with 15 to 20 per cent of sand and other impurities. Losses due to this state of affairs are put at millions of rubles; the regular operation of furnaces is impeded; the time of smelting is increased; there is an excess of carbon monoxide fumes; and a wasteful use of costly ferro-alloys.

The training of skilled workers

The proportion of skilled to unskilled workers at Uzbek Metallurgical Works is constantly growing. In 1947 about 50 per cent of the workers employed at the plant were skilled, and between 1946 and 1951 the number of skilled workers was said to have increased 50 per cent. Many of the Uzbek workers are highly trained, and include foremen and mechanics of various types.

Steelworks in the Urals have contributed to the training of Uzbek skilled hands; at some of these works special schools have been organized for training young Uzbeks. Besides this Ukrainian metallurgists who have come to work at Begovat have helped to train local labour on the spot. Kh. Abdulayev in Sovetskii Uzbekistan describes the Uzbek Metallurgical Works as the "smithy for the training of Uzbek steelworkers." At the different workshops at Begovat a few years ago over 200 young Uzbeks were under training. At the moment a group of young workers from the technical training school at Electrostal are learning work at the steel mills under the guidance of experienced foremen.

With a view to spurring the workers on to better efforts, the Begovat steelworks have embarked on a "socialist competition" with the steel-workers of Kazakhstan. The present target is the completion of the 1955 output quotas by the end of 1954.

The future of Begovat

There are ambitious plans for the development of the steelworks at Begovat. One of the main factors for future expansion is the exploitation of the iron ore deposits of the TienShan mountains. Iron ore has long been known to exist here and the 1946-1947 geological survey of the region revealed that iron ore deposits are to be found in the Mogol-Tau section of the Tien Shan mountain range between ten and fifteen miles north-east of Begovat, and that magnetic ore deposits are to be found near the Begovat rapids on the Syr-Darya river. Mining

operations at Abail will, it is hoped, see the first local ores processed at Begovat by the end of 1955. Moreover, when the coal deposits at Uzgen in Kirgizia start to be worked, supplies of coking coal will be much more readily available than at present when they come from as far away as Karaganda and Kemerovo.

The change from working scrap metal to working iron ore necessitates, however, different techniques, and a second series of Martin furnaces and the first series of blast furnaces for processing ore are now under construction and are due to be completed by 1956. When these new furnaces are finished and the locally mined ore starts to be worked, an expansion in steel output even greater than that at present can be expected. The increased supplies of iron and steel from Begovat will be an encouragement to the further expansion of the engineering industries of Central Asia, and, since Begovat will be able to obtain more and more of its raw materials from local sources, a great step forward will have been taken towards the aim of regional economic self-sufficiency.

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U Z B E K I S T A N

L I T E R A R Y J U B I L E E S A N D M O D E R N C R I T I C I S M

Literary jubilees - Gafur Gulyan (Ghafur Ghulam) - Mukimi - Niyazi, founder of Soviet Uzbek Literature - Criticisms of contemporary literature - Publications of Uzbek folklore - Contemporary theatre.

In the last year or so a number of literary occasions have focussed attention on Uzbekistan's men of letters; and on these and other occasions critics have voiced their opinions on the current output of literature and drama. A brief review of some of this press comment is presented below, but certain facts must be borne in mind in reading it. Widespread literacy among the Uzbeks is a fairly recent phenomenon and it would not be reasonable to expect from them any large output of good writing, so that the use of superlatives in appraisal must be accepted with some qualification. Another point to remember is that the degree of acceptance of the Communist Party line by a writer, at least as much as his own literary merit, decides his status with the critics.

Last year, the fiftieth birthday of Gafur Gulyam, doyen of contemporary Uzbek writers, was celebrated by a joint session of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences and of the Union of Soviet Writers. Gulyam was born in the year of the death of the poet Mukimi; in September tributes were paid to this earlier forerunner of revolutionary literature by the publication of special editions of Mukimi's works and the production of a play dealing with his life. A third writer who has had considerable recent notice is Niyazi, whose work for the emancipation of women led to his assassination in March 1929, just twenty-five years ago.

Gafur Gulyam (Ghafur Ghulam)

Gafur Gulyam, who has built up a considerable reputation as poet, prose-writer and translator over the past thirty years, now enjoys a status in Uzbekistan comparable to that of Sadriddin Aini in Tadzhikistan. As early as 1930 he wrote with bitterness of the hard lot of the down-trodden Uzbek peasantry in the past. Later he found more cheerful themes in the improvements due to collectivization and to the liquidation of the kulaks and bais (feudal landlords), in the ambitious plans for harnessing the forces of nature and irrigating the desert and,

after the stirring events of the last war, in the schemes for post-war reconstruction. Throughout his career he has stressed the themes of social reform and friendship with Russia; writing as a citizen of the Soviet Union, he has added a reputation as a poet of the Union to his already established one as a national Uzbek man of letters.

Press tributes, reviewing his career, refer to the maturity which he had achieved by the year 1943 when he published his collection of poems I Come from the East which won him all-Union recognition and a Stalin prize. It is said that he has fathomed the deep changes going on in the life of his people and of the Union, that his verse and prose have gradually lost most traces of archaic forms of expression and cliches, and have reached the heights of "socialist realism." His muse is now found to be in line with all current themes, and is tuned to the singing and praising of his Uzbek motherland as part of the Union, of friendship among the peoples of the Soviet Union, of love of the great Russian people and of veneration of the Party and its revolutionary leaders.

His work is said to be steeped in the traditions of Gorki and Mayakovski, in the true teaching of "socialist realism." His best verses glorify the work of Lenin and Stalin, Moscow as the capital and soul of his motherland, the Soviet Union; or they appeal to the builders of the Turksib and of the Fergana Canal to do their best, stressing the significance of these projects in which the people have put so much toil.

In his style Gulyam has done much to curtail the tendency of Uzbek poets to indulge in flowery language, and to bring prose-writing also into line with modern Soviet literary practice. But he is still occasionally criticized for using too many Arabic and Persian words.

His work as a translator of Russian and other foreign masterpieces, which he has read in the Russian, has, it is claimed, enriched his style and vocabulary. His recent translation of Nazim Hikmet's The Poem of Love from the Turkish has called forth further tributes from the critics.

The joint session of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences and of the Union of Soviet Writers held at Tashkent to mark his fiftieth birthday was presided over by Zakhidov, Chairman of the Academy, whose speech was followed by a lecture on the language and style of Gulyam's works.

Mukimi

Mukimi not only made a prominent contribution to Uzbek literature but also played an outstanding part in the enrichment and modernization of the Uzbek language. A poet with an all-Union reputation, he is regarded as having shown considerable political foresight in his attitude

to the incorporation of Central Asia into Russia and he is held up as an outstanding democratic writer of the last century. Although to some extent he had the traditional outlook, at an early age he clearly foresaw that the old social and economic order would in time crumble under the impact of Russia and of Russian revolutionary ideas. Soviet historians, who now insist that the union of Russia and Central Asia was a progressive event, point out that this union enabled Mukimi to come under the influence of the new ideas seeping into Turkestan, ideas born in the revolutionary struggle of the Russian intelligentsia and of the nascent working class against oppression.

Born at Kokand in 1851, the son of a poor baker, Mukimi nevertheless received a good traditional education by the standards of his day at Kokand, Bukhara and Tashkent. The backward social and political conditions of his country embittered him. In his writings he reflects the thoughts, feelings and hopes of the common people - their hatred of the bai rulers, of the mullahs and of the Russians (who in his day were traders and colonial officials of Imperial Russia). In satirical outbursts he makes vigorous attacks on all tax collectors and other civil servants (Russian and native) who were, in his eyes, bleeding the people to death, the reactionary clergy, traders, and feudal overlords. He was particularly severe on the Muslim clergy, the ishans and mullahs, who strove to uphold the authority of outworn Islamic dogmas and who dragged the masses into the bog of religious superstition while at the same time preaching pan-Islamic ideas to resist the impact of progressive ideas from Russia.

Mukimi strongly opposed the Andizhan rising of 1898 (See C.A.R Vol. I No. 3, p. 2), as he felt it to be merely an attempt to break away from Imperial Russia. He attacked Ishan Madoli (Dukchi Ishan) who preached Muridism (a mystical sect) and independence from Russia. Mukimi felt the Ishan was ready to sell his country to a reactionary foreign power and to restore feudalism just to be rid of the Russians.

A master of the spoken word, a poet who could express his thought with great clarity, Mukimi wrote songs that can easily be adapted to popular melodies. This was most important in an age of almost complete illiteracy when poems could only be learnt by most people as songs. He also made the most use of the sense of humour of the Uzbeks - their sayings, proverbs and expressive popular idiom. He knew the styles of speech of most classes of society, and his satirical thrusts had added point because he could express them in literary speech as well as in common idiom.

Mukimi died in May 1903. The emphasis now placed on his revolutionary and democratic ideas is thought to be part of an effort to ascribe present revolutionary tendencies in modern Uzbekistan to roots in its own past. It is hard to believe that he could in fact have

openly expressed revolutionary ideas in Fergana, Bukhara and Tashkent in those reactionary days without attracting official attention or retribution.

To mark the anniversary of his death, Russian and Uzbek editions of his works were published, and the Theatre of Drama and Comedy named after him produced a play on his life. Exhibitions, broadcasts and lectures for workers, peasants and intellectuals were arranged; and generally his works, his place in Uzbek literature and his progressive outlook were very much in the public eye.

Gafur Gulyam was one of those who paid tribute to Mukimi. It is significant that Gulyam stated that Mukimi was only fully appreciated in Soviet times and that it is only now that his work is being widely popularized. Mukimi is shown to have been enthusiastic over the advent of railways and of well-sprung carriages then used on dusty and stony roads by the Russians. He deplored the dilapidated state of the old houses in which the Uzbeks lived and the narrow and dirty city streets. Mukimi's writings made people aware of the social evils they endured and anxious to throw off their yoke; but he was not able to suggest ways out of the difficulty.

At a higher level Mukimi had a code of chivalrous living which places him alongside Navoi and other classical poets of Uzbekistan. He believed in being sincere and faithful in love. Khamza Khakim-zade Niyazi, Sadriddin Aini, Abdullah Kakhkhar and Gafur Gulyam in their best writings all show that they have been inspired by Mukimi, especially in their accounts of pre-revolutionary life.

Niyazi, founder of Soviet Uzbek literature

Following in the footsteps of Mukimi, and other democratic writers of the nineteenth century, Khamza Khakim-zade Niyazi (Hamza Hakimzade Niyazi) was active in the movement which placed its hopes in the progressive elements then coming into prominence in Russia. He was born in Kokand in 1889, and was more ambitious and possibly abler than Mukimi, being regarded by his biographers as the founder of Soviet Uzbek literature.

Like Mukimi, he wrote poems which could be sung to popular tunes and which thus reached a big public. He was a born propagandist, and no mean educationist. Between 1911 and 1915 he opened secular schools in Kokand and Margelan. He also compiled readers and primers for lower forms in schools.

His great admiration for the Russian people led him to criticize opponents of closer association with the Russians. He greeted the 1917 February Revolution with enthusiasm; but he soon found that the bourgeoisie who first gained power continued to oppress the people, and in

an article in the same year he described the Provisional Government as a new tyranny.

His talents blossomed after the advent of Soviet power when he found inspiration in the ideas of the Communist Party - political and social concepts which helped him to shake off all traces of the bourgeois-liberal movement of Dzhadidism. Besides writing poetry, he wrote plays for the theatre, became a theatrical business manager and in 1918 organized a travelling company in Fergana to perform The Bai and the Batrak and other topical plays. In 1920 Niyazi joined the Communist Party and wrote a play in praise of irrigation and the agricultural reforms which the Bolsheviks were carrying out.

In 1927 he wrote a play attacking the parandzha (veil) which he said did not so much serve the cause of chastity and virtuous family life as provide a cloak for vice and strangle efforts at female emancipation. He persisted in this crusade and finally met his death at the hands of a fanatical mob as a result of it. In March 1929 he convened a meeting of women in the backward mountain kishlak of Shakhrimadan (now Khanzaabad) and his fiery speech calling on his hearers to throw off the parandzha was answered by twenty-three women that very day. Ten days later he was killed, and according to a popular book printed both in Russian and German on Uzbekistan, the mullahs responsible "were instigated by bourgeois-nationalist elements in the pay of Anglo-American imperialists."

Criticisms of contemporary literature

In recent years Uzbek writers seem to have been somewhat unproductive of good work. Kakhkhar, a writer of some standing, complained of the "oppressive lull" early in 1952 and Uigun, Chairman of the Writers' Union in Uzbekistan, feels that the pulse of life in prose, in the drama, in music and the theatre is throbbing weakly. A meeting of writers held in Tashkent in January 1953 voiced a number of complaints. Kakhkhar, for instance, was criticized for not treating his novel The Lights of Koshchinar with enough realism. Aibek's novel The Winds of the Golden Valley was described as a hasty draft rather than a finished work by an experienced master. Writers and journalists alike were under fire, and articles and poems about the Main Turkmen Canal (a scheme now apparently in abeyance) were described as immature and sketchy. Satirical and humorous writing was lacking, even the humorous paper Mushtum being labelled dull and uninspiring.

The complaints continue. Aibek's latest novel has a kolkhoz chairman and a Party secretary for its heroes, but they show no awareness of the advanced techniques of mechanized farming. Aibek refers to the use of spade and sickle where critics think he should have referred to the mechanical harvesting of cotton; in this, they feel, the Soviet designers are ahead of the United States.

Workers in industry, likewise, have had little attention from Uzbek writers although industrialization is proceeding apace. This year there has been no improvement in the depiction of the new types of men and women of the Soviet era. One measure recommended is the revival of the Uzbek Litgozizdat which dealt with the selection, editing and publishing of new works before the war.

Abdullah Kakhkhar's novel The Lights of Koshchinar, already mentioned, had one good review in which the author was praised for his account of the peasant-farmers' lives and struggles in the days of collectivization and of everyday life in an Uzbek kishlak.

Even reviewers themselves are at times under fire. Some of them it is said pay inadequate attention to language and style, to plot development, and to the moral and social implications of their characterization. Some reviews lack the fire of the born critic. Others are described as offensive, vulgar and unjust in the extreme.

Uzbek folklore

Pravda Vostoka lately reviewed a collection of Uzbek folklore tales which had been carefully compiled and published in Russian. The critic felt that the material should have been selected from a stricter social and political angle, separating stories of truly popular origin from those reflecting ideas and customs prevailing in a feudal society. Showing a ruling shah as a kind man could not be part of a true folklore tale. Of the many Uzbek stories attacking mullahs, bais and kazis (judges of the canonic law), only one was included in the compilation, and more were demanded in future editions. Some animal tales were from well-known literary sources and were not real folklore. The translation was poor and the translators often used refrains and idioms which did not figure in the traditional Uzbek version.

The book is, however, considered useful as telling the Russian people something about Uzbek folklore and, more particularly, of the epic struggles of the Uzbeks in defence of their water rights. These were constantly menaced both by foreign invaders and by local bigwigs, who used threats to demolish dykes and canals as a means of extorting tribute. Many of the stories vividly illustrate the strength and endurance of the common man, who is often helped by magic forces represented by the stork, the magic stone Akhanrabo and the winged horse Kara Kaldyrgoch.

The Tale of the Stupid Shah gives a good idea of the popular desire to ridicule hated tyrants. The shah in the story yearns to rule over the skies. When he hears that the ruler of the skies is dead, he decides to take over the vacant throne and orders his retinue to hang him. This they do with the greatest of pleasure!

Contemporary theatre

In the field of drama there is also evidence that all is not well, as was pointed out in a report read lately at a meeting of writers in Tashkent. In 1952 there was only one new play by Tuigun, followed by Kakhkhar's play, The Silk Embroidery, which is considered quite outstanding. In 1953 Ukhtamov's Unpardonable Sins was the only new play produced. Of late, however, several new younger playwrights have tried to produce masterpieces while the older writers remain inactive. The paucity of new plays is caused, it is thought, by adherence to the now condemned "non-conflict" theory.

Dramatic criticism is at a low ebb. Authors complained at a meeting at Tashkent that Uzbek theatres fail to produce plays by Tolstoi, Chekhov and other Russian classics; this would help budding writers to learn their art. And discussions and seminars on the drama are neglected and badly attended.

Yet there is a big demand for topical plays, for satirical comedies, for one-act plays with a moral or humorous touch, and the press is strongly in favour of a general examination of the whole position. Yashen's Khamza for instance might, with more serious treatment, have had all the pathos of a social tragedy instead of being written as a popular melodrama.

The actress Ishanturayeva made a complaint some time ago which holds good today. She affirmed her desire to act the role of "an Uzbek woman of culture taking her part in the life of the republic." But when she played roles created by Uzbek dramatists, she felt that she turned into a pale shadow of a modern Uzbek woman. The Uzbeks have an acute sense of humour and of the satirical. Actors wanted to hear healthy laughter from the audience. But so far, she complained, not a single dramatist had written a comedy which forcefully showed up survivals from the past, the conservative elements in society and the vice that imperils progress, and which, above all, made people laugh.

To meet the shortage of actors, an Academy of Dramatic Art was set up in 1945 and later reorganized as a Theatrical and Arts Institute. Its graduates have included eighty-four Uzbeks, fourteen Kirgiz and twenty Kazakhs. At present in addition, fifteen Tadzhiks are doing the course. But the Institute is not fully equipped, lacks a staff of qualified teachers and its pupils do not all have acting ability. There is a marked shortage of Central Asian girl students and so the theatres lack competent actresses. In the present Uzbek group of students there was only one girl and only two in each of the Turkmen and Tadzhik groups. There are ten Kara-Kalpak students, but not one

woman among them. Lacking a proper theatre, the Institute is not able to give proper displays at its graduation performances.

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T A D Z H I K I S T A N

M O R E P O W E R F O R T O W N A N D C O U N T R Y S I D E

General survey - Early development and the pre-war Five-Year Plans - Post-war projects - Rural power schemes - Inter-kolkhoz stations and the "cascade" system - Demand outrunning supply - Technical advances and research.

In studying the figures which show the great expansion of the power system of Tadzhikistan in recent years - and there can be no question that the expansion has been great - one is bound to observe a certain pattern of growth. Under the earlier Five-Year Plans an effort was made to meet the demands of the more important towns of the republic for power by means of municipal power-stations. Then came the War, which held up work on certain new projects, but which also brought about the great shift of Russian industry from enemy-occupied areas to Central Asia. This led to a big demand for power, and the capacity of the existing stations in a number of towns of Tadzhikistan was increased by nearly 100 per cent. Since the War an effort has been made to resume work on long-term schemes which had been in abeyance, and a new emphasis has been placed on the electrification of the countryside. The latter task is being carried out to a large extent through big schemes which utilize the republic's great reserves of water power, for Tadzhikistan, with less than two-thirds of one per cent of the Soviet Union's land area possesses an estimated 11.8 per cent of its total resources of water power. Besides these schemes, steps are also being taken to develop power supplies in out-of-the-way spots and isolated communities, such as those in the remote highlands, by means of small, easily transported generators.

Early development and the pre-war Five-Year Plans

Before the Russian Revolution the region which is now called Tadzhikistan had no large industries requiring the services of industrial power-stations. Its only municipal electric power-station was at Khodzhen (now called Leninabad) and the total capacity was 48 kilowatts. After the Revolution in 1926, a power-station of 78 kw. was built in Stalinabad, the capital of the republic.

During the first Five-Year Plan of 1928-1933, nine municipal power-stations were built in the raion centres. Their total capacity was 634 kw. By the end of the second Five-Year Plan, at the close of 1937, there were thirty-five municipal power-stations with a total capacity of 3,240 kw. In addition, many kolkhoz and other smaller power-stations were in operation. In January 1937 the first raion

hydroelectric plant, the Varzob GES, situated thirteen kilometres north of Stalinabad, came into operation. It now has a capacity of 7,500 kw. and supplies power to Stalinabad and to a number of local industries of growing importance. A diesel-electric power-plant built here in 1926 has a present capacity of 6,000 kw. and provides a reserve source of power.

The third Five-Year Plan (1938-1942) was to have seen the execution of the 13,000 kw. Lower Varzob hydroelectric scheme in the northern quarter of Stalinabad; of the 5,000 kw. Kara Tau hydroelectric scheme to supply power for lighting and industrial use to the oil mill at Regar and to the adjoining raions; of the 6,400 kw. Khodzha-Bakirgan hydroelectric station, which was to provide power for the first stage of a new irrigation programme for Tadzhikistan; of nineteen new municipal power stations; and of the reconstruction of the then existing ten municipal projects. It is known that work on the Lower Varzob project was held up by the War and was only resumed in 1950. It is not clear how many of the other schemes were completed in the five-year period.

In the Pamirs, however, the 1,000 kw. Khorog hydroelectric project was completed in 1940. Located on the Gunt river, within seven kilometres of the town of Khorog, it not only provides light and power for industry, but also helps to make up for the acute shortage of fuel for heating purposes.

Post-war projects

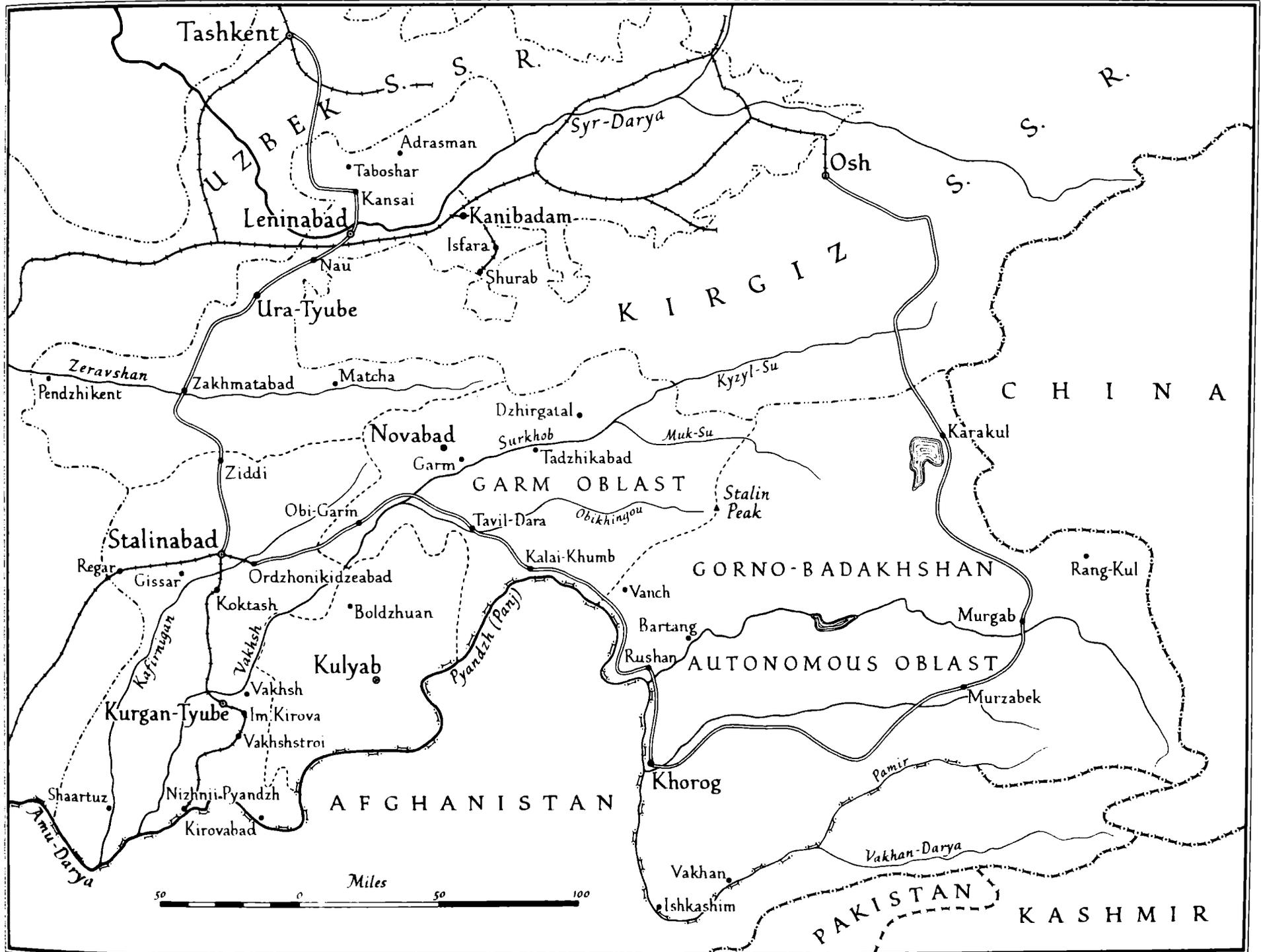
The fourth Five-Year Plan, for 1946-1950, provided for the building and putting into operation of power-stations with a total output of 26,000 kw., of which hydroelectric stations accounted for 24,000 kw. These new stations, large and small, have completely altered the whole power situation in Tadzhikistan.

At the beginning of 1951 there were seventy-six small hydroelectric power-stations and sixteen thermal power-plants in the rural districts of the republic. The fifth Five-Year Plan provides for a further advance in electrification with special emphasis on the needs of the countryside and on the application of power to agriculture.

Rural power schemes

Early this year a number of big power-stations were under construction in the rural areas. Two big new stations were completed on the Zhdanov and Stalin kolkhozes of the Pandzhikent raion. Six hydroelectric stations are soon to be built in the Ordzhonikidzeabad raion and, when they are in operation, the electrification of the collective farms of this raion will be completed. The Kalinin and Moskva hydroelectric stations in the same raion were under construction earlier this year. Another large rural hydroelectric plant is being built in the Nau raion.

TADZHIK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



In the Regar raion, all the kolkhozes will be supplied with power by the big new Shirkent plant. This should have been completed by the end of 1953, but was still under construction in April of this year. The foundation pit for the power-house building was flooded by rain last November and quickly filled with gravel and silt so that all work had to be suspended. The concrete work also took an exceptionally long time to complete. The only available excavator was under repair for a long period during which no work was done in the silted pit. In the four months during which it was used only 5,500 cubic metres of soil were moved as against a planned excavation of 70,000 cubic metres. The construction of the head-water divide at the building site was delayed in spite of the fact that failure to start the task early this year might make it impossible to build the divide till October 1954, owing to the greatly increased flow of water in summer.

Mention should also be made of the 520 kw, hydroelectric station built on the Khashikat, a tributary of the Zeravshan river. The builders were helped by local kolkhoz peasants to cut a road in the mountains and all materials for building had to be transported along this new road.

The growing use of power from rural hydroelectric projects for various agricultural and industrial purposes is illustrated by the variety of services rendered by power from the Ak-Gaza hydroelectric plant. Among the seventy odd engines on the kolkhozes and in industrial concerns which are operated by power from this project are a pumping station which waters large areas of land under cotton, and a cotton-drying plant designed by the engineer Lavrinenko.

Inter-kolkhoz stations and the "cascade" system

In a number of places, what are known as inter-kolkhoz or inter-sovkhoz hydroelectric power-stations have been built. These are projects which are shared by two or more collective farms and therefore are expected to be more economical to run. One such plant, built in the Isfara raion, serves two large collective farms, the Molotov and Stalin kolkhozes. It is operated on a semi-automatic system, with two automatic regulators, and is managed by two trained engineers.

Several other inter-kolkhoz and inter-sovkhoz power-stations have been built in the Leninabad oblast, but some of these are idle, largely owing to lack of spare parts and of other essentials for maintenance and repair work, such as lubricating oils, transformer oils, brushes, generators, bearings, and the like. No one, it seems, knows who is responsible for looking after and repairing the plant, or where spares and supplies are to be obtained.

For the successful working of large inter-kolkhoz power projects it has been necessary to re-group the kolkhozes into units each capable

of using the output of a plant of over 100 kw. The plan for completely electrifying the Ordzhonikidzeabad raion by making use of a "cascade" or series of hydroelectric stations is quoted as a good example of the efficient distribution of power over the countryside. It was drawn up by the electrical section of the Tadjhik department of Sredazgidrovodkhllopok, the organization for cotton and irrigation development in Central Asia.

Water from the Kafirnigan river is led through the Gavkush canal into the Uzun irrigation canal and its continuation, the Upper Dashtishur canal. There is a considerable fall in the water level along the Uzun canal and it is proposed to build a series of four hydroelectric stations along it, of equal capacity, and to build a fifth unit of the "cascade" along the Upper Dashtishur canal. The cascade will be specially supplied with water from the Kafirnigan river in the winter months. The water will pass through the series of generators and the whole raion will get all the power it needs for its kolkhozes, M.T.S. and towns. The power will be used for ploughing, for running workshops, for working cotton-batting machines and cotton-drying plants, for threshing, for flour and hulling mills as well as for lighting the homes of the peasants.

The first unit of the series will be used for the electrification of the large Kalinin, Pushkin and Chkalov kolkhozes and will bear the name of Kalinin. The fifth unit will be called the Moskva station and will serve the large re-grouped Moskva and Stalin collective farms.

Demand outrunning supply

Despite the increase in the output of power in Tadjhikistan, demand is fast outrunning supply, and already the general plan prepared in 1950 is in many ways out-of-date. One of the reasons is that the enlarged groups of kolkhozes need bigger power-stations than those planned in 1950 which have an average capacity of only 50 kw. each.

Certain data - hydrological, hydrometric and constructional - for projected rural hydroelectric stations have not been correctly calculated. Because of this lack of data, the Vakhsh power-station, which was to be erected in the centre of the irrigation network based on the Vakhsh river, has not yet been built. In spite of this delay, the number of power-stations in the Vakhsh and Gissar valleys - the main agricultural regions of the republic - is slowly growing. Of the 2,500 square kilometres of the Vakhsh Valley, more than a fifth of the total area has already been irrigated and the Valley is one of the chief growers of long staple cotton in the USSR.

The national economy is developing so much faster than the utilization of the water resources of Tadjhikistan that the power shortage is

felt in town and country alike. In towns and in industry the shortage is especially acute in the winter months. In the countryside, lack of power is slowing down the mechanization of agriculture. And yet, the territory is very rich in potential hydroelectric power.

Technical advances and research

Since the completion of the Upper Varzob project in 1937 a number of improvements in control processes have cut down the number of workers needed at the power-station. In 1937 six people were employed in each shift at the station. By 1946 the mechanization of several processes made possible a reduction of two persons per shift. In 1949-1950 automatic controls were introduced so that only two engineers were employed on each shift. Since 1951, when new equipment was introduced, only one service engineer has been on duty for each shift. The complex machines are started from a central impulse starter and regulated from a single central panel.

A great help in future development is the presence of a local supply source of generating equipment. Turbines and other equipment for power-stations and other installations are now manufactured at the Stalinabad Mechanical Engineering Works.

While on the subject of equipment, it might be stated that the problem of power supplies to remote mountain districts has been partly solved by the use of light generators. Thus the Tadzhik cinema chain have recently received thirty-eight light generators, each weighing 54 kg., which have made cinema shows possible where projection was out of the question previously. Some of these units have been sent to the Garm, Kulyab and Leninabad oblasts, and to the Gorno-Badakhshan autonomous oblast.

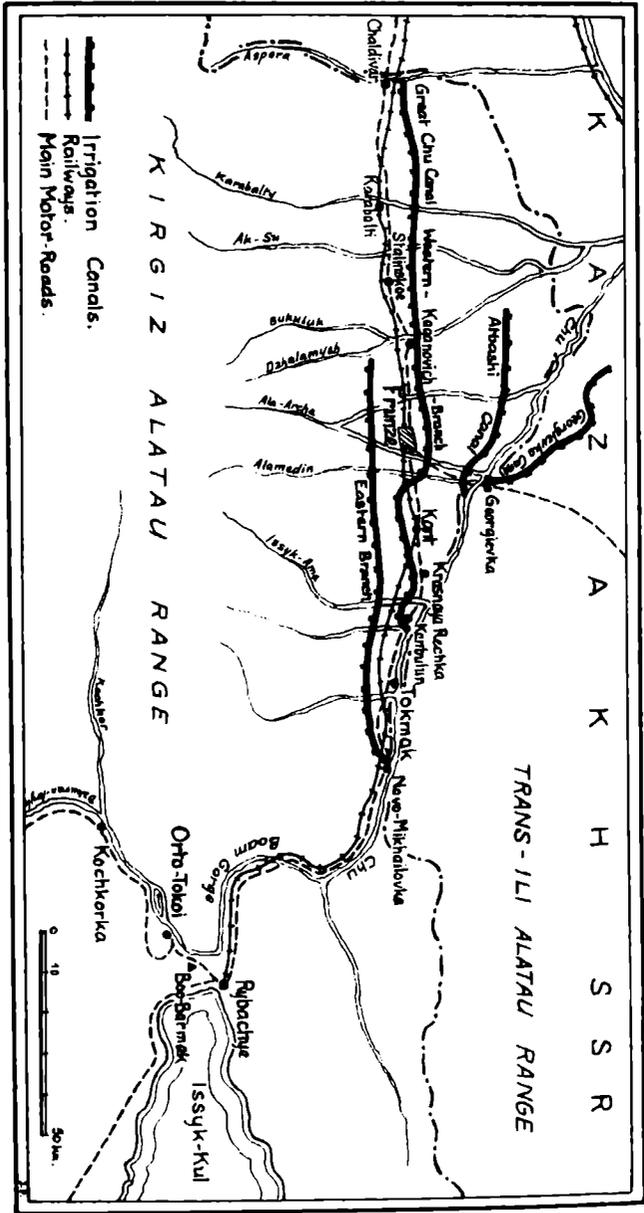
An important research problem which has been tackled by A.S. Soldatov and his assistants has been that of dealing with sludge ice (shuga) which makes the operating of power-stations in winter difficult. The difficulty has been overcome and the Pamir electric engineers won a prize for this in the "socialist competition" (held between the Tadzhik power-stations). At the Lenin power-station in Pamir, experiments made in passing sludge ice through turbines proved a complete success. A filter-press has been produced by the station staff, based on a design of the director, which purifies used transformer oil and makes possible a big reduction in the consumption of this oil in power-stations.

A step forward which is being advocated by a number of scientists is the creation of a central Institute of Energetics and Hydro-Technology to be attached to the Academy of Sciences of Tadzhikistan. Such a step is considered necessary as it is felt that the research done

in this field is not up-to-date and does not meet present requirements.

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The Chu Valley

K I R G I Z I A

F R U N Z E P A S T A N D P R E S E N T

Situation - Historical background - Post-war development of Frunze - Streets - Public amenities - Public transport - Frunze as an industrial centre - Frunze as a cultural centre - Future prospects.

Frunze, formerly Fishpek, is situated practically in the centre of the Chu Valley, some five miles from the foothills of the Alexandrov ridge of the Ala-Tau mountains. The snow-capped peaks rise to the south of the town and on the other three sides stretches a wide bare steppe dotted here and there with settlements.

Historical background

The town was founded in 1878 in the Kokand Khanate near the site of Fishpek fortress which had been razed to the ground by Russian forces in 1863. Soviet rule was extended to the town in 1918 and in the years that followed it became a rallying point for political activity in the area. In 1928 it was renamed after the Bolshevik army commander Mikhail Vasilevich Frunze who was born there in 1885. The name Fishpek was retained only by a railway station in the western outskirts of the town. Frunze became the capital of Kirgizia in 1936.

Although located in an area long inhabited by the Kirgiz, the town, in its early stages had a very small indigenous element among its permanent residents. The majority of the inhabitants were Russians, with a sprinkling of Uzbeks and "Sarts"; in 1883, 290 Dungan families settled there. Most of the rights and privileges were held by Russian officials, merchants and military. In 1913 the population numbered some 14,000, of whom 8,000 were Russians; by 1939 it had grown to 93,000. No later figures are available.

Fishpek was a small town consisting of a huddle of mud huts and small wooden and brick houses roofed with ~~car~~ rushes. It had one high-school (gimnaziya), a horticultural school and seven primary schools, only one of which admitted Kirgiz children. There were no hospitals or hotels. The town had few industries, but the commercial turnover in agricultural and dairy produce was considerable. Hops were grown, butter and honey were produced and there was a brisk trade in melons with Naryn and Przhevalsk; two tanneries had an annual turnover of 7,000 rubles.

Until the Revolution, Pishpek was outside the railway network, the nearest station being 500 km. away at Kabul-Sai. The Semirechye highway served as the sole means of communication, until 1928 when Frunze was linked up with Turksib.

Post-war development of Frunze

With the elevation of Frunze to the capital of the republic, building was undertaken on a large scale. In 1938 a project for the reconstruction of Frunze was drawn up by eminent Soviet architects including Smirnov and Zhaltovskii, and was ratified by the government of the Kirgiz SSR. This plan, when realized, was to make Frunze one of the finest towns in Central Asia. During the war the project was shelved but was brought out and embodied into the first post-war Five-Year Plan (1947-52). Among its provisions were the building of machine-tool and motor-repair workshops; residential quarters for workers; cotton-ginning, hemp and jute mills; wine and champagne factories; schools, libraries and clubs; new buildings for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Public Library, the National Museum and the State Theatre; the improvement and extension of sewerage and the erection of statues to M.V. Frunze, the poet Tokombaev and other notables. In the Pervomaiskii district six kindergartens, a ten-year school and eleven higher educational establishments (VUZ) and specialized secondary schools (tekhnikum) were to be built, and in the Sverdlov district a first-aid station, a tuberculosis hospital and two nurseries.

Today Frunze covers an area of seven square kilometres. In its situation and arrangement it bears some resemblance to Alma-Ata: both towns are laid out on a rectangular plan and slope down towards the north: their tree-lined main streets run at right angles and parallel to the mountain ridges rising to the south.

That much has already been accomplished in Frunze is evident. In the Proletarsk district of the town, where the principal industrial undertakings of Frunze are situated, large blocks of flats, schools and nurseries are going up, new streets are being laid out and the population is growing. At the corner of Stalin and Belinskii Streets, the new quarters of the Kirgiz State Planning Institute nears completion, and hardly the future building of the Frunze Town Council is under construction. Further along the street stands Dom Khudozhnika (House of the Artist), one of the finest and newest buildings in the capital; behind are the new Ministries of Agriculture, Meat and Milk Industry, and others. Buildings are also going up around Soviet Square and buses now turn down Molodaya Gvardiya, formerly Athashinsk, Street. Only a few years ago, claims Sovetskaya Kirgizia, this was a wasteland; now there is a boulevard bordered by many-storeyed blocks of flats. Big stores with attractive displays and various official and communal buildings have transformed the appearance of a once dirty and neglected

street. Elsewhere in the district, a cinema, an Institute of Banking and Accountancy, a hostel for the workers of the cotton-weaving factory, and the enormous shell of the future trolley-bus depot have completely altered the skyline of this part of the town. Anyone revisiting the area after several years' absence would find it unrecognizable, the paper notes with satisfaction.

The appearance of the town centre too has undergone a change. Here are now grouped the main government buildings surrounded by broad courtyards, lawns and fountains. A statue of Stalin dominates the scene. Considerable work has also been done on the development of the Ortosai, a stony waste to the south of the town; here trees are to be planted and the area is to become part of the green belt around Frunze.

At the current session of the Frunze Town Council, the representative of the political committee, Comrade Koibagrov, stated that in 1953, 70,000 sq. metres of street surface were asphalted and paved; 9½ km. of water mains were laid; the electric network was extended by 26 km.; 11.8 km. of streets were lit and more than 3 km. of trolley-bus cables were slung. There are now over sixty medical establishments. In the Pervomaiskii district a ten-year school and two kindergartens have been opened and flats erected covering an area of 14,000 sq. metres. In 1954, the electrification of the town and outskirts is to be further extended, and it is planned to have 36 km. of streets lit. Already both sides of Lenin and Pioneer Streets have lights.

All this, however, represents but one side of the picture, for it is pointed out that only 79 per cent of the construction plan for the capital was carried out in 1952, and 83.1 per cent in 1953, and that only 69 per cent of the target for the building of flats has been achieved. Many of the projects, it seems, continue to hang fire and constructions begun several years ago are still unfinished. This state of affairs is greatly deplored in the press, which criticizes the Kirgiz Planning Office for indifferent functioning and for the lack of proper official supervision. At present, building goes on in a haphazard fashion and there is not a single completed district or street. The town is straggling and covers an unnecessarily large area. The absence of any detailed designs for even the main streets has resulted in a scatter of buildings with neither harmony nor unity. This was stressed in a recent article: "One should not start building without having first formed a clear idea of the general appearance of the street. Yet one has only to look at Toktogul, Dungan and Pioneer Streets to realize the absence of any architectural unity. All the buildings are alike, no attention has been paid to the spaces between them nor to the size and shape of the courtyards."

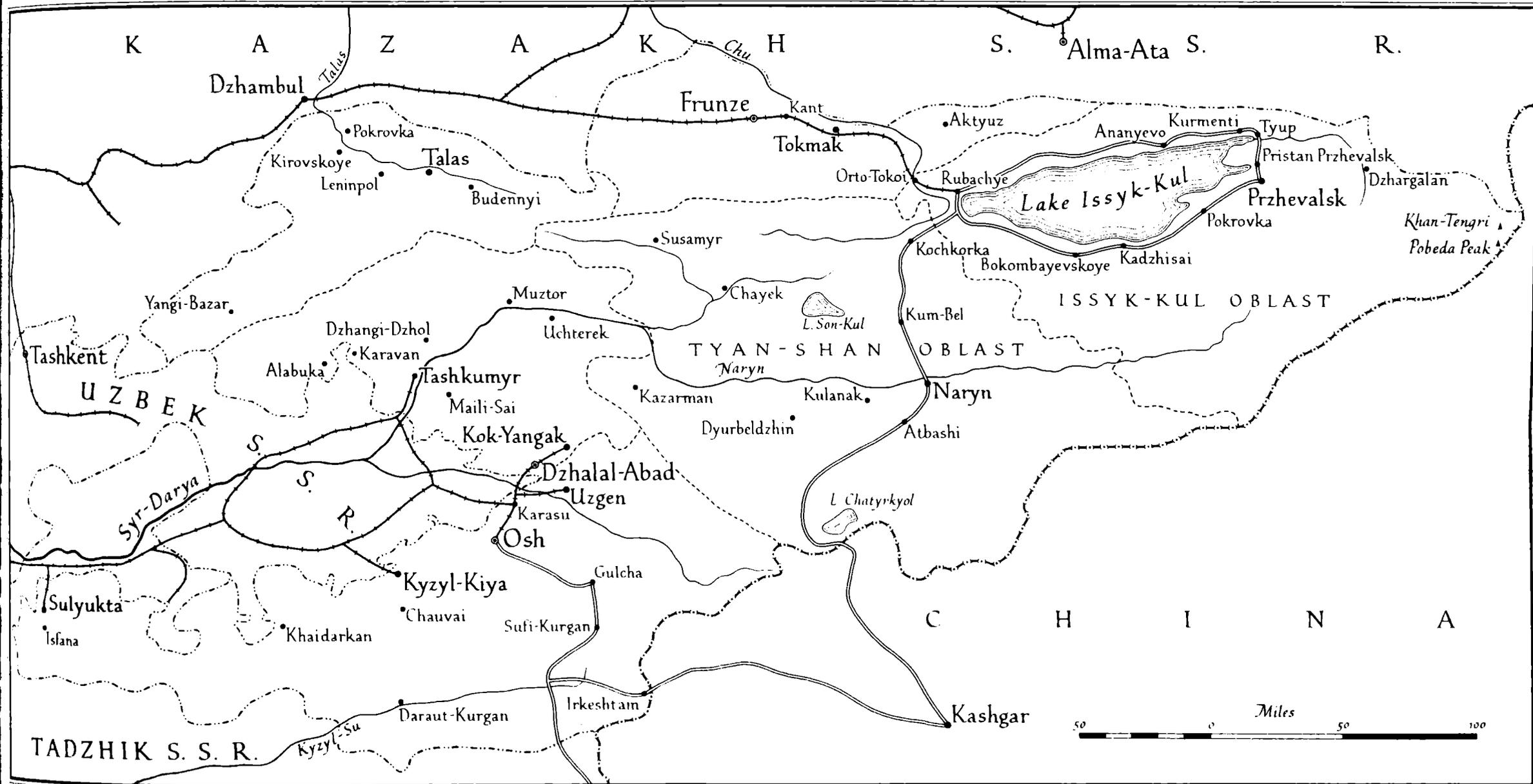
Streets

The streets of Frunze, it appears, are unsatisfactory not only for their lack of design. They are poorly lit and many of the existing lamps do not burn. Traffic lights smashed a long time ago have been left unreplaced for months; and in Sovetskaya Street the traffic control booth stands with broken windows, a warped door and peeling paint. Dzerzhinskii Street which, in the words of one writer, is "the front door of the town . . . greets the visitor to Frunze with ruins and mean dwellings." This street, which joins the Station Square with the town centre, is 100 metres wide and has a tree-lined central alley. "It could," continues the writer, "be made into one of the finest streets in the town, but the roadway is unswept and the aryks (small irrigation canals) choked with dry leaves and other rubbish. Near the fence surrounding a building site the pavement is covered with earth and clay, and it is cracked and grooved elsewhere. Not far away hot water sluices down from the roof of a building. In front of the Neurological Clinic, cleaners hang out their rags and washing, and the ugly concrete ornaments cracked from frost are falling to pieces. A well-equipped shop opened in a new building at one end of the street is practically inaccessible in wet weather, as the space in front of it has not been asphalted and mud lies thick all around." In certain seasons Kuibyshev and Gogol Streets are also said to be impassable both to traffic and pedestrians. Repeated requests to the Chief Engineer, Comrade Gashev, for remedial measures has so far brought forth only the reply: "Do it yourself." This, it seems, has had its consequences. According to press reports, ". . . there has now appeared in the town under the very eyes of the police and officials of the Town Council, a new category of people, the 'bridge-builders'! These enterprising people bring planks to all the impassable street crossings and other places where foot-bridges are lacking, and for an appropriate fee allow pedestrians to use these improvised bridges. Only by paying tribute can one get for instance from the Voroshilovskoye settlement to Stalin Street. . . On Sundays a strange sight presents itself on the road leading to the market. Over a stream are a number of planks by which stand the 'collectors', queues stretch on either side of them."

This "disgraceful state of affairs" is the theme of many articles and satirical sketches in the press. It is hoped, however, that the resolutions adopted on 20th March 1954 by the executive committee of the Town Council will provide a much-needed corrective. These resolutions which came into force on 5th May require the heads of all organizations and enterprises, the directors of educational institutions, "town commandants" and householders to carry out the following:

1. To have the pavements and roadways of earthen, paved and asphalted streets cleaned as far as the middle of the street everyday between 2 a.m. and 6 a.m., and to look after the lawns,

KIRGIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



aryks and yards around their buildings. To see that the cleanliness of the streets is maintained throughout the day and that only water from the aryks is used for the spraying of lawns and streets.

2. In winter to have the streets cleared of snow and ice and the pavements sprinkled with sand.
3. To have the rubbish collected during the day, put into garbage bins and taken, with the snow and ice, outside the town boundaries to a dumping ground to be assigned for the purpose by the Town Council.
4. To build more sanitary installations (e.g. public conveniences) and where necessary to repair the existing ones, to organize the timely removal of all garbage to the appointed dumping grounds and regularly to disinfect the sanitary installations and cattle-pens.
5. To maintain fences and gates in good order and to see that house number plates are properly affixed.
6. To have houses painted in colours approved by the town architect.
7. The upkeep of public parks, the stadium, bus-stops and car parks, Station Square and marketplaces to be made the responsibility of the appropriate administration.
8. To require the Transport Administration to carry out repairs to bus-stops, provide benches for waiting passengers, put up signposts, and to see to the cleanliness of the buses.
9. The Town Council to be responsible for the cleanliness of the main boulevards and squares.
10. To forbid and make it a punishable offence:
 - a) To sweep rubbish and empty garbage bins and slops into the irrigation canals, to wash dishes or linen, or to dip cattle in the aryks, or to pour salt water from ice cream stands into them.
 - b) To dig within the town boundaries for clay, stone, sand or gravel.
 - c) To obstruct pavements and traffic alleys with building materials or to start building without first putting up a protective fence.

- d) To strew the pavements with ashes.
 - e) To graze cattle in the streets and parks of the town.
 - f) To erect without the permission of the appropriate authority kiosks, stalls, hawker's stands or to park barrows in the streets.
11. The heads of the various enterprises, establishments and organizations to be made responsible for the recruitment of cleaning staff. The number of cleaners to be determined by the area to be cleaned, viz. - 2,500 sq. metres of paved surface, and 3,000 sq. metres of asphalt surface for each cleaner.
12. Anyone not carrying out these resolutions will be subject to a fine of one hundred rubles.
13. The enforcement of these regulations to rest with the police, the Anti-Epidemic Station and the Chief Architect.

Public amenities

Judging by press reports, the public amenities of Frunze leave much to be desired. There is a crying need in the town for children's playing-fields. At present children spend the whole day in dirty yards or dusty streets. The grounds attached to most of the schools are bare and have the aspect of wasteland. The number of shops is also insufficient: the people living in one district often have to travel to another part of the town for a loaf of bread. In a letter to Sovetskaya Kirgizia, a group of citizens living in Molodaya Gvardiya Street in the northern part of the town put this point clearly: "Although a number of large blocks of flats which could easily accommodate shops have been built along our street, there are no grocers here, nor any shops selling manufactured goods apart from a stall at the corner of Kaganovich and Timiryazev Streets. But even at this stall the sale of bread is not properly organized and to buy groceries and other essentials we have to go to the town centre. This, however, is not always easy as there are as yet no buses running between our district and the town centre." The difficulties experienced by shoppers is the subject of frequent comment in the press. It appears that "there is only one hardware shop in the town. This shop is patronized not only by townsfolk but also by people from the surrounding settlements and villages Of late many articles have come on to the market in increasing numbers, and refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, electric heaters, etc. are more readily available, yet in this shop the selection of goods is restricted and the quality poor. In the furniture department, a divan labelled 'best quality' had greasy stains and was badly sprung. Who," asks the writer, "would want such a divan?" Also difficult to obtain are coat-hangers and simple kitchen utensils such as fish-slices, draining spoons, and half-litre mugs. These articles, it seems, are not

included in the production plan of the Frunze Krasnyi Metallist Plant which manufactures aluminium kitchen ware. Clothing presents another problem: to buy a suit of a particular cut and cloth is difficult as often the jacket is of one size and the trousers or skirt of another, and sometimes they are said to be moth-eaten.

Eating out in Frunze sets its own problems: "There is hardly a place where one can have a cheap and quick meal. In most restaurants and snack-bars the menus are restricted, prices are high and service deficient." A recent letter to Sovetskaya Kirgizia gives the following account: "Not long ago, during our lunch-hour my friend and I went into a snack-bar in Dzerzhinskii Street. Business was brisk. In a dingy room, grouped round two stained tables sat the customers on rickety stools. The counter hand in answer to our request for something to eat offered us boiled meat and horse-radish on condition that we had vodka or wine or beer with it. For tea she advised us to go to another snack-bar. We went round to eight snack-bars in the Sverdlov district, but the same conditions applied there. . . . We finally succeeded in getting a cup of sugarless tea at the buffet of the Ministry of Culture. The waitress here told us that the tea was brewed on her own initiative but that the directorate would not allow the dining-room sugar to be used. If," the writer concludes, "the snack-bars supplied coffee, tea, milk, cream, cocoa, omelettes, sausages and similar hot foods and drinks they would greatly increase their turnover and above all give greater satisfaction to their customers."

Drinking water constitutes a serious problem, for it has to be brought to the town in underground pipes from Baityskii reservoir, and the supply, it seems, is both irregular and insufficient. Drainage in the town is unsatisfactory. Many of the pipes are broken and water washes away foundations and ruins plaster and walls. As a result new buildings after several months are said to acquire "an unenviable appearance". Again, although over the past ten years the population of Frunze has increased, the number of bath-houses has remained the same. To get into one nowadays is difficult; often it is necessary to queue for quite a long time. Conditions in the bath-houses it seems, have worsened and the dressing rooms are filthy. The No. 1 Dispensary is conspicuous for its unsanitary condition: the area around it is a heap of garbage and the building itself is dirty. In the washing section it is draughty and often there is no running hot or cold water.

Electrification is still far from complete with the result that a number of streets are still not lit and many electric street-clocks do not function, nor is any attempt made to see that those in working order keep correct time.

Public transport

Frunze transport grows every year. In 1951 the first trolley-bus line was laid and since then the fleet of buses has been doubled. Two new lines were laid in 1953 and a third is in the process of construction along Pioneer Street. On the other hand, although roads from Frunze lead to all parts of Kirgizia, Frunze transport only serves a small area outside the town and not even all of the districts within the town boundaries. There are, however, regular services to Tokmak, Bystrovka, Przhevsk and to the villages Kalininskoe, Kyzyl-Asker Voroshilovskoe and Stalinskoe. Bus services begin at 6 a.m. The total number of runs per day made by buses in the town is 240, and by buses plying between Frunze and the outlying districts - 180. A report published on 26th February 1953 stated that in 1952, 15 m. passengers were carried by Frunze transport, but that because of the poor condition of the roads and of many of the vehicles (in 1953 only two thirds of the available machines were put into service) 1,338 travel hours were lost. The buses, it seems, are poorly provided with spares and tyres, and because of the condition of the roads become prematurely worn out. The repair of buses is difficult as after the division of the motor depot into a passenger and a freight section, the passenger section was left without workshops.

The organization of public transport is also unsatisfactory. "It is difficult," writes a correspondent on 27th February 1954, "to find out which bus goes where. Bus-stop signs and indicator boards are scarce and where they do exist, the lettering is so small as to be practically indecipherable even by daylight. . . . No one," he goes on, "directs the traffic and as a result near bus-stops there is generally a traffic jam. Is it really difficult," he asks, "to bring order?"

Many of the Frunze buses drive excessively fast, the drivers often refusing to pull up at a bus-stop if there are only one or two passengers waiting. The reason for this is that drivers have no fixed rate of pay but are paid according to the number of runs they make per day.

Apart from buses and trolley-buses there is a large fleet of taxis in Frunze. These, however, have no meters and passengers are therefore obliged to pay what the chauffeurs demand which is often excessive. Thus for instance, to go from the corner of Pioneer Street to the Dinamo store, taxi drivers charge anything from three to ten rubles. In the words of one writer, "state-owned cars are thus turned into sources of personal income for the drivers." The complaint is also made that too few of the drivers and other officials of the Transport Administration are natives.

Frunze as an industrial centre

Frunze is now one of the principal industrial centres of Central

Asia. Since 1927 industrial plants have been built almost yearly: a tannery in 1929, a sawmill in 1930, a meat kombinat in 1931, a distillery and brewery in 1932, furniture, cloth, liqueur, tobacco and sewing-machine plants in 1933, a metal works in 1935 and a second tannery in 1939. Since the war, hemp and jute mills, textile plants machine-building plants manufacturing agricultural implements and the Voroshilov hydroelectric station have been built.

Today in Frunze are concentrated undertakings for the processing of practically the whole of the agricultural produce of the Chu Valley; apart from this, Frunze produces a variety of articles from canned foods and wines to furniture and bricks. In 1950 the output of the heavy industries, it was claimed, was forty-five times greater than that of pre-revolutionary days. In 1953 the industries of Frunze fulfilled the annual plans by 102 per cent and forty enterprises completed their programme ahead of schedule.

Frunze as a cultural centre

Frunze is also the hub of the cultural and artistic life of Kirgizia. Here is situated the State University, founded in 1951, and comprising five faculties, of history, philology, physics and mathematics, biology, and geography and geology. In addition, there are also several other higher educational institutes. The Pedagogic Institute founded during the first Five-Year Plan, has now seven faculties and trains teachers for both Russian and Kirgiz schools. The Skryabin Agricultural Institute founded in 1933, is today the most important in Kirgizia; it has agronomical, sericultural, veterinary and zootechnical departments. The Medical Institute opened in 1939 has both training and research departments. Besides these, there are a number of experimental stations where problems connected with the development of the natural resources, economy and culture of the republic are being "assiduously investigated". In Frunze is also situated the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences which in 1943 was affiliated to the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in Moscow.

Frunze possesses a State Publishing House, the Chernyshevskii State Public Library with a stock of $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. books, a regional museum, and an art gallery. A school of arts and crafts and a school of music and ballet play an important role in developing latent talents and fostering local art. Two State Theatres present opera, ballet and drama by the leading Russian and Kirgiz playwrights and composers. There are as well seven cinemas where Russian, Kirgiz and foreign films may be seen. The Kirgiz State Philharmonic Orchestra also contributes to the cultural life of the town with frequent concerts. It is said to have laid a solid foundation for the development and perfection of native music.

Future prospects

Although conditions in Frunze as described in this article are far from satisfactory, it should be remembered that the Soviet press tends to overstress both achievements and failings and this may at times result in a somewhat exaggerated and distorted picture. The geographical position of Frunze should also be borne in mind: although the Chu Valley and Frunze oblast cover only 7.6 per cent of the whole territory of Kirgizia, it is the most densely populated area of the republic and of vital importance agriculturally and industrially. Most of the principal industrial undertakings and nearly a third of the total agricultural output of the republic is concentrated in this area, which is capable of yet further and extensive exploitation. The completion of the Chu Valley irrigation project (see Central Asian Review Vol. II, No. 2) will greatly increase the agricultural potential of the valley and the supply of electric power to Frunze and the neighbouring areas. Thus, whatever the present shortcomings and delays, Frunze is likely to grow still further both in size and importance in the years to come.

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K I R G I Z I A

THE DUNGAN AND UIGHUR
NATIONAL MINORITIES

Introduction - I. The Dungans - Distribution - Theories of their origin - Distribution in China - Language and alphabet - Scholastic achievements - Way of life - II. The Uighurs - History and distribution - Language and ancient alphabet - Modern linguistics and new alphabet - Schools for Uighurs - Higher education.

The Uighurs and Dungans are two distinct national minorities living chiefly in the eastern territories of the Kazakh and Kirgiz republics, though they are also to be found in much smaller numbers in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan. The common feature which unites them is that they both come originally from China, having migrated to Russia from Sinkiang at the time of the rebellion against the Manchus in the seventies and eighties of the last century.

I. The Dungans

The history of the Dungans is easier to follow than that of the Uighurs, who belong to an ethnic group of some complexity. The Dungans are descended from Turkish-speaking Muslim settlers in Kansu, parts of Shensi and Ningsia, and are of the Mongol race. They differ, however, both from the Chinese, among whom they formerly lived, and from the Mongols of Outer Mongolia, from whom they became detached at an early date, in being ardent Muslims.

Distribution

Those who migrated to Russia settled as compact groups of cultivators mostly in four districts of Semirechye, an administrative unit of what was then called Russian Turkestan, now part of Kazakhstan, avoiding only for some reason the Kopal and Lepsinsk areas. Their number at the time of the 1897 census did not exceed 14,130, or 1.43 per cent of the total population of Semirechye. A small group of Dungans migrated further west to the Fergana Valley (1,640 in all), and 509 of them turned up in what was then called the Syr-Darya administrative district. The total number of Dungan immigrants was, in 1897, 16,279 or 0.30 of the

population of Russian Turkestan. It is of note that no attempt was made by them to settle in the khanates or emirates of Central Asia.

During their short sojourn in Russia, the Dungans have suffered little extraneous pressure and have been able, it is claimed, not only to retain their own language, religion and some of their customs and ways of life, but to reach a state of prosperity unusually high for the native population of Eastern Kazakhstan. At present the Dungan community in the USSR still numbers under 25,000.

Theories of their origin

An article in Sovetskaya Etnografiya of 1954, on the origins of the Dungans, discusses the various theories of their origin. One, that they are of common stock with the Uighurs, is held to be impossible because of the fact that the Dungans use Chinese characters in their ordinary writing, and Arabic script only for their sacred books, which differs from the practice of the Uighurs. A second theory assumes that Dungans did not migrate to China but are an aboriginal Chinese Mongol race who became converted to Islam. This is not upheld by recent research. A third theory of a common origin for Chinese and Dungans is advocated by the Muslim leader Ma-Khun-Kui, the president of the provincial government in Ningsia under Kuomintang, but is not borne out by historical facts.

The theory in favour is that the Dungan people are Muslims who migrated to China from Persia, Arabia and Central Asia. They formed part of a Mongol army composed of subject tribes, which had as its object the conquest of China and the destruction of the Sung dynasty. This army numbered in all some twenty or thirty different tribes. The Dungans formed the largest section of the armies on the Chinese western border, their number being estimated by Chinese historians at from two to three million men. Among these were armourers, engineers, officials and craftsmen. There are even references to a Dungan fleet. Mention is also made of Dungan civil servants, scholars and technicians serving the Mongol emperors in various Chinese provinces.

Distribution in China

After the Mongol conquest of China, the Dungans spread rapidly with the invading armies over the whole country. At the downfall of the Sung dynasty in 1279, some Dungan troops were left in the Chinese plain for garrison duties while others were stationed along the coastal regions. The north-west provinces, near the borders of Persia and Arabia, were the first to be conquered and the Dungans penetrated there in a continuous stream, which explains the presence today of so many of them in the provinces of Sinkiang, Kansu, Shensi, Ningsia and Chinghai. Under the Yuen dynasty, Dungans penetrated to all parts of China.

The so-called "Chinese Muslims", consisting of Dungan soldiers, aristocrats, officials, scholars and technicians, merchants and "ordinary people", as they increased in numbers gradually formed the Dungan people. These original immigrants to China were joined by some Turkic elements from Central Asia, and a certain amount of intermarriage with Chinese women took place. A number of Mongols who turned Muslim, as well as some Persians and Arabs already settled in China before the Yuen period, also mixed with the Dungans there. The Dungans are thus seen to be the product of a mixture of people from Persia, Arabia, Central Asia and elsewhere, in addition to Chinese, Mongolian and other elements.

The article goes on to state that the Dungans form one of the largest minority groups in China, estimated by Soviet specialists at from seven to eight million inhabitants. They live along the main Kashgar-Peiping road, but are mostly concentrated in the Kansu, Shensi and Sinkiang provinces. Owing to their "weak territorial consolidation", it has not been possible to accept them as a nation, but, with the creation of the Chinese Peoples' Republic, their national rights have been recognized and their first two national raions organized in north-west China.

Dungan language and alphabet

The spoken language of the Dungans living in the USSR, evolved from the Kansu and Shensi dialects of Chinese, contains a smaller number of Arabic words than the language of the Sinkiang Dungans and differs somewhat from it in phonetics, morphology and syntax. Up to 1927 the Dungans of the USSR had no written language; the first alphabet to be drafted for them in Soviet times was based on the Arabic script. This was, however, rejected in 1927 at a conference of native and Russian linguists, who finally brought out a latinized alphabet in 1932. In 1937, new regulations were made for dealing with the Dungan orthography and it was decided that their alphabet should be based on the Russian one, in accordance with the general policy of russianizing the scripts of national entities.

The general rules and principles governing the new script have only recently been approved in detail. There has been no question of contradictory dialectical usage, as the decision was made from the start to accept the Kansu dialect, using Shensi deviations only occasionally.

In May 1953 at a gathering in Frunze of the Kirgiz branch of the Moscow Academy of Sciences, a hundred Dungan, Kirgiz, Kazakh, Uighur and Russian specialists met to discuss, mainly the language problems confronting the Dungans. A prominent part in these discussions was taken by A. Kalimov, a young Dungan linguist, who read a paper on the principles of the new alphabet and the rules governing its orthography.

In line with the general trend of Russian practice, no attempt was made to insist on too close a phonetic transcription, which might have imperilled the universal use of the new alphabet by the Dungans. The Conference hailed the decisions taken as an outstanding example of the achievements of the Communist Party in Kirgizia in its dealings with national minorities.

Scholastic achievements

Much is being made of the scientific achievements of a few young Dungan historians, especially of the young Dungan orientalist, Sushanlo, who joined the preparatory class of the State Pedagogical Institute at Frunze in 1935 and graduated from there in 1941. Sushanlo studied as a post-graduate student at the Institute of Oriental Languages of the USSR Academy of Sciences, at which he had access not only to the orthodox works of the leading Marxist classical writers, but to those of the Chinese revolutionary leader, Mao, in their original text - a task not too difficult for a Dungan scholar. Later, Sushanlo worked among the archives of Leningrad, Alma-Ata and Frunze with their invaluable collection of orientalia. As a result of his researches, he published a dissertation on the "Dungan rebellion in north-west China in the second half of the nineteenth century and the part played in it by Bai Yan Hu". This article, which deals with the struggle of the Chinese and their own national minorities in China against the Manchus, sets out to prove that the rebellion was an anti-Manchu peasant rising and paved the way for the successful national struggle for freedom, now attained by the coming to power of the Chinese Communists.

Sushanlo remains, however, an exception, for even a cursory study of available data on educational facilities among the national minorities makes it clear that the schools are not in a position to mass-produce the type of student for which the universities are clamouring.

Way of life

In their homeland the Dungans were mostly agriculturalists and brought to Russian Central Asia the knowledge of rice cultivation, fruit and vegetable growing and the production of opium, the latter forming a vital commercial asset to them at the present day. Opium was first made known in eastern Asia by the Arabs as a medicine, and since the eighteenth century has been widely grown as a narcotic. It was first introduced into Semirechye in 1916 by both Uighur and Dungan cultivators, who brought with them from the Chinese, the pioneers of opium growing, a high level of technical skill in its production.

The Soviet press readily concedes that the Dungans possess great agricultural skill. Practically all their settlements, it is claimed, are now provided with electric power, and they rank first in their districts as producers of rice, opium and cotton. It is stressed that

the Dungans, after their migration to Russia, soon acquired more progressive ideas in their everyday life, and gave up, for example, the harmful practice of binding the breasts and feet of their women.

The Dungans in their early days in Russia owned their land on a communal basis. Communist historians state that abuses soon appeared and malpractices which resulted in inequalities of wealth and growth of the kulak class. Collective ownership persisted only in name.

It is of some interest that the Dungans coming to Russia made it their habit to settle in compact groups of population, even within city boundaries. This was made possible by the considerable amount of land made available to settlers.

II. The Uighurs

History and distribution

The press of today has more to say about the Uighurs, a people representing the most easterly branch of the Turkic tribes. At the present time the Uighurs form the predominant part of the population of Eastern Turkestan, i.e., of the Chinese province of Sinkiang, and a few Uighurs are settled in the basin of the Ili river where they are known as Taranchi.

It is difficult to define the ethnic origin of the Uighurs. Whatever they are, they are certainly not Chinese Uzbeks as an authority on the geography of the USSR recently asserted. It is, however, well established that in the ninth century they were driven by tribes of Kirgiz origin from the sources of the Yenisei river. Outside the USSR they number several millions and even in Soviet Central Asia are much more widespread than the Dungans. They live in compact groups in the east of the Alma-Ata oblast and to a lesser extent in Andizhan, Fergana and in parts of the Kirgiz republic.

According to the 1939 census, the number of Uighurs in Uzbekistan amounted to 50,600 or 0.8 of the 6,271,300 inhabitants of that republic. Many of them are settled in the Andizhan oblast and, together with the Dungans, are established in Kazakhstan in the Alma-Ata and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts. Uighur settlements are also to be found among Uzbek and Tadzhik enclaves in the south of Kirgizia, those of Dungans in the Chu valley and in the vicinity of Przhevalsk and Osh.

A recent book written by M. Kabirov, dealing with their migration into Russia, has been violently criticized on the grounds of its distortion of the facts and of the incomplete consideration given by the author to the involved international situation of the sixties and

seventies of the last century. He has also failed to stress the predatory policies of the "British colonizers" of those days, and their design for the conquest of Eastern Turkestan. At the same time the author praised the national policies of the feudal khanates and emirates. The book was considered so weak ideologically that it had to be returned to the author for drastic revision in line with party politics. The department concerned with Uighur-Dungan culture at the Kirgiz Academy was particularly blamed for not taking the trouble to discuss the thesis before publication.

Language and ancient alphabet

From the linguistic and cultural point of view the Uighurs are closer to the Uzbeks than to any other ethnic group in Central Asia, though in their language there are fewer Persian and Arabic elements. They are Sunni Muslims and according to Soviet experts, their beliefs retain traces of a primitive animism.

The ancient Uighur script is supposed to be derived either from Aramaic or from the script used in Sogdiana, the ancient province corresponding to the modern districts of Samarkand and Bukhara. It is said to have been used as the court script of the Golden Horde from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century and to have survived to some extent until the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries. With the spread of Islam, the original Uighur script was supplanted by the Arabic alphabet. Modern Uighur, within the USSR, is represented by two basic dialects: the Ili dialect used in Kazakhstan and the Kashgar-Yarkend dialect spoken in Uzbekistan.

Modern linguistics and the new alphabet

Lately much attention has been paid to Uighur linguistics and to the general level of education among Uighurs in rural districts. Five years ago, a department of Uighur-Dungan culture at the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR was formed where much study has been done in the field of linguistics. New textbooks for elementary and secondary schools for the study of the Uighur language and literature have been produced and various schools for Uighurs exist in Kazakhstan. Young Uighur scientists are stated to be working on a number of problems in connection with history, language and literature of their country.

In this connection, the Dungan-Uighur section of the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences has also received reinforcements from Moscow and Leningrad for the purpose of compiling a Uighur-Russian dictionary. At the same time all traces of "Marrism" in Kirgiz, Uighur and Kazak dialects are to be ruthlessly eliminated.

In 1947 a decree issued by the Presidium of the Soviet of the Kazakh Republic marked a major departure from past practice: the Uighur alphabet was to be no longer based on Latin but on Russian characters in response, it was claimed, to the demand of a large number of Uighur kolkhoz workers, industrial labourers and local intelligentsia. This new alphabet was to be composed of 41 characters, 33 taken from Russian and 8 devised to represent sounds peculiar to Uighur phonetics. The change-over was to take place progressively in the schools; in the case of primary schools and the lower forms of the secondary schools by 1947, but not till 1948 in the seven-year and the middle schools. The native press was to adopt the new alphabet in 1947.

Schools for Uighurs

Much attention is now being paid to the Uighur schools. In the Alma-Ata oblast, the number of schools is expanding rapidly though as yet not enough attention is given to instruction in the senior forms. In five Alma-Ata raions Uighur children are taught in their own language at the Uighur primary schools and very exceptionally up to the seventh form. In most cases, after completing their fourth form, Uighur children are transferred to Russian or Kazakh schools on account of the lack of any middle school in which the entire curriculum is taught in Uighur. In the so-called Uighurski raion, however, there are six Uighur seven-year schools, but not a single ten-year one. In some Kazakh schools Uighur children can be taught in their own language up to the seventh form and are then transferred to the two leading Uighur schools at the Bolshe-Aksu or Bolshe-Ketmen Uighur settlements.

There is not a single Teachers' Institute which qualifies instructors to teach children of the fifth to seventh classes in Uighur schools and the only available instruction for teachers of primary schools is at the Panfilov and Turgen Teachers' Institute. Thus, it seems, that the whole problem of teaching Uighur children in senior classes in their own language is still awaiting solution.

Even at the Aksu and Ketmen schools, instruction is not on a high level, and twenty girl graduates from Bolshe-Ketmen recently failed in entrance tests to a Teachers' Institute in Russian, Kazakh and a foreign language examination. At the large Ketmen school for 450 Uighur kolkhoz children, Russian is not taught at all in the senior classes, as the Russian teacher, who was appointed some time ago, failed to turn up. For several years in the higher forms of this school there has been only one Russian text-book for the use of thirty to forty pupils and the library is poorly stocked, without even a Mayakovski on its shelves. At the Bolshe-Aksu school, with accommodation for 900 pupils, there are no Russian textbooks for the fifth and sixth forms, and the rules of grammar have to be written on a blackboard, causing considerable waste of time

Other reports stress the lack of textbooks in the Kazakh schools open to Uighurs, though large numbers of Uighur children attend these schools. Moreover, in the lower forms, Kazakh and Russian teachers are hampered by their ignorance of Uighur. Altogether Uighur children have considerable difficulties to overcome in the course of their education: they are supposed to have a thorough knowledge of the Kazakh language in the eighth to the tenth form, though this is practically impossible for them. The middle schools do not always teach foreign languages, and graduates from the Selo Dubun and other schools have been known to reach their eighth form without knowing even the rudiments of any foreign language.

Uighur children must study four languages: Uighur up to the seventh form, Kazakh, Russian and another foreign language from the eighth form till their graduation. The result has been a scanty knowledge of all four languages and has caused the eighth form to be crowded with pupils attending the same form for the second year.

The obvious solution - to continue instruction in Uighur throughout the middle school - is made impossible by the lack of qualified teachers. Moreover, the Uighur students with their limited knowledge of Russian or Kazakh would in such circumstances find it very difficult to qualify for the higher educational establishments.

To extend the number of boarding schools is proposed as a solution, but accommodation in these is limited. In the Bolshe-Ketmen school only 80 out of 120 applicants can be admitted and at the Bolshe-Aksu only 120 out of 200.

Deficiencies are also to be noted in school buildings and equipment. In the Aksu school, desks have not been repaired, and three children share a desk intended for two. Ventilation is inadequate and in one class-room a ceiling crumbled recently after heavy rain. Diagrams and visual aids for the study of physics and chemistry are lacking and in general there is a shortage of teachers for foreign languages and mathematics. Many teachers are very young and unqualified; at the Chundzha school a German master turned up recently with practically no knowledge of the commonest German words. For some schools no headmasters can be found with suitable qualifications.

Up till now, in fact, the schools in the Uighur raion have been badly neglected.

Higher education

In contrast with this rather gloomy picture of the school situation there are glowing reports of Uighur youth freely mixing at Alma-Ata with Kazakhs, Uzbeks and Russians, both in and out of class. At the Kazakh State University more than twenty Uighurs are studying journalism, biology and chemistry, while others are attending the mining, medical and veterinary institutes. Still others are to be found in the VUZ

of Moscow, Leningrad, Tashkent and Frunze and there are even ten post-graduate students. A woman Uighur student has recently delivered a thesis on the "Public and Family Life of Uighur women in Kazakhstan", which is the second ethnographic work on the Uighurs to appear. Her opponent was the celebrated Professor A. Bernstam, at one time a deviationist.

It therefore seems that, given the necessary educational facilities, Uighur students are able to hold their own in competition with students of Kazakh and even of Russian nationality.

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TURKMENISTAN

THE KARA - KUM CANAL PROJECT

Importance of water - Early surveys - The project - Constructional Technique - Organization and progress - Kara-Kum desert today and tomorrow.

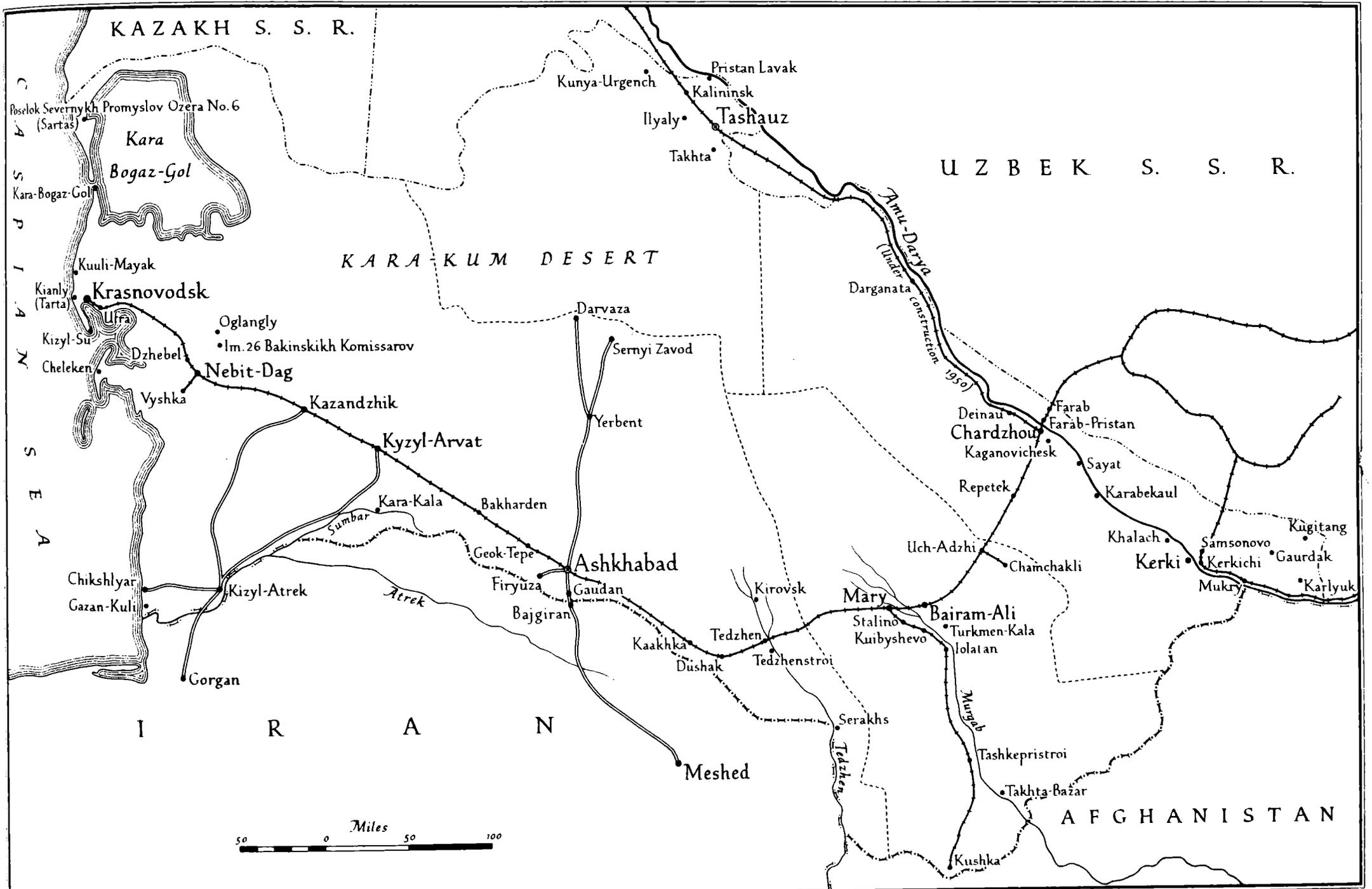
When it is recalled that nine-tenths of the Turkmen SSR is occupied by the Kara-Kum desert, an arid expanse of undulating hillocks of shifting sand and saksaul, the immense importance of the Kara-Kum canal and its very great irrigational potentialities will be readily appreciated. In 1946, when the trace of the canal now under construction was finally delineated and approved, a Soviet journalist described the part played by water in the daily life of Turkmenistan in the following words:

"Water is of paramount importance to the Turkmen. It figures in all Turkmen history and legend. Water has given rise to wars and has enriched or destroyed whole nations. Water was a standard in the relationships among people, and it was part of a bride's dowry. . . . Before the Revolution, water in Turkmenia was divided among the various clans, each of which had its own aryk or irrigation canal. The biggest water owners were the Bai or feudal lords. According to clan usage, bachelors, childless couples and widows had no right to own water. Water was measured by time; fifteen minutes of water from the aryk once in twelve days was the quota for the average soil tiller, while some of the very poor were permitted not more than four minutes once in sixteen days. With the advent of the Soviet system, the water supply became the property of the whole people."

Early surveys

Projects for irrigating the Kara-Kum have been under discussion and survey by the Soviet authorities since 1925. The first proposals envisaged the alignment of a new canal along the Darya Lyk, the supposed ancient bed of the Amu-Darya, and the diversion of the waters of that river to the Caspian Sea. This project and a somewhat later modification of it were, however, both rejected on account both of the prohibitive cost in time and money and of the almost insuperable technical difficulties involved - one of which, the traversing of the Sarykamysh depression and the filling in of its three hundred cubic kilometres with water,

TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



KAZAKH S. S. R.

UZBEK S. S. R.

KARAKUM DESERT

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AFGHANISTAN



would require anything, it was estimated, from five to seventeen years.

Nevertheless, the original surveys were by no means fruitless, for they proved that, apart from the technical difficulties involved, a comprehensive irrigation of the Kara-Kum desert could not be achieved by the construction of a single canal across the northern stretches and that a canal across the south-eastern portion, utilizing the old river beds of the Kelif Uzboi and Balkh rivers, was by far the more practical proposition.

A number of different projects was elaborated by various Russian experts, but of them only two - the main Turkmen canal and the Kara-Kum canal - were adopted. Of these, the former was to cross the north-western part of the Kara-Kum desert from the Amu-Darya along the edge of the Sarykamysh depression and the ancient bed of the Western Uzboi to the Caspian Sea - a total distance of 1100 kilometres; and the latter was to follow the alignment of the Kara-Kum canal as it is now being constructed.

Between 1951 and the first half of 1953 great publicity was given by the Soviet press to the main Turkmen canal; but since the middle of 1953, no further mention of it has been made. Whether this complete silence is due to a temporary suspension of operations, or whether the vast project has proved to be impracticable and has been abandoned, is not yet known. The south-eastern project, the Kara-Kum canal, on the other hand, is now being actively pressed forward and press references to the progress of the work are both numerous and frequent.

The Project

The purpose of this vast project is to link, by canalization, the waters of the Amu-Darya with those of the Murgab, the Tedzhen and a number of other smaller rivers flowing down from the Kopet Dag mountains, and thus to form a comprehensive network of waterways for the irrigation of the southern raions of the Turkmen SSR.

Starting from the village of Bassaga on the left bank of the Amu-Darya and some miles upstream of Kerki, the canal will run in an almost straight line from east to west, passing in the vicinity of the towns of Mary and Tedzhen, then turning slightly north-westwards along the foot of the Kopet Dag mountains, through Ashkhabad to its terminal at Bakharden. When completed, the canal will be some 950 kilometres in length, its depth will be 4 to 4.5 metres, and it will have a bed width of 50 and a surface width of 150 metres.

Construction is envisaged in three stages:-

1. Amu-Darya - Mary.
2. Mary - Tedzhen.
3. Tedzhen - Bakharden.

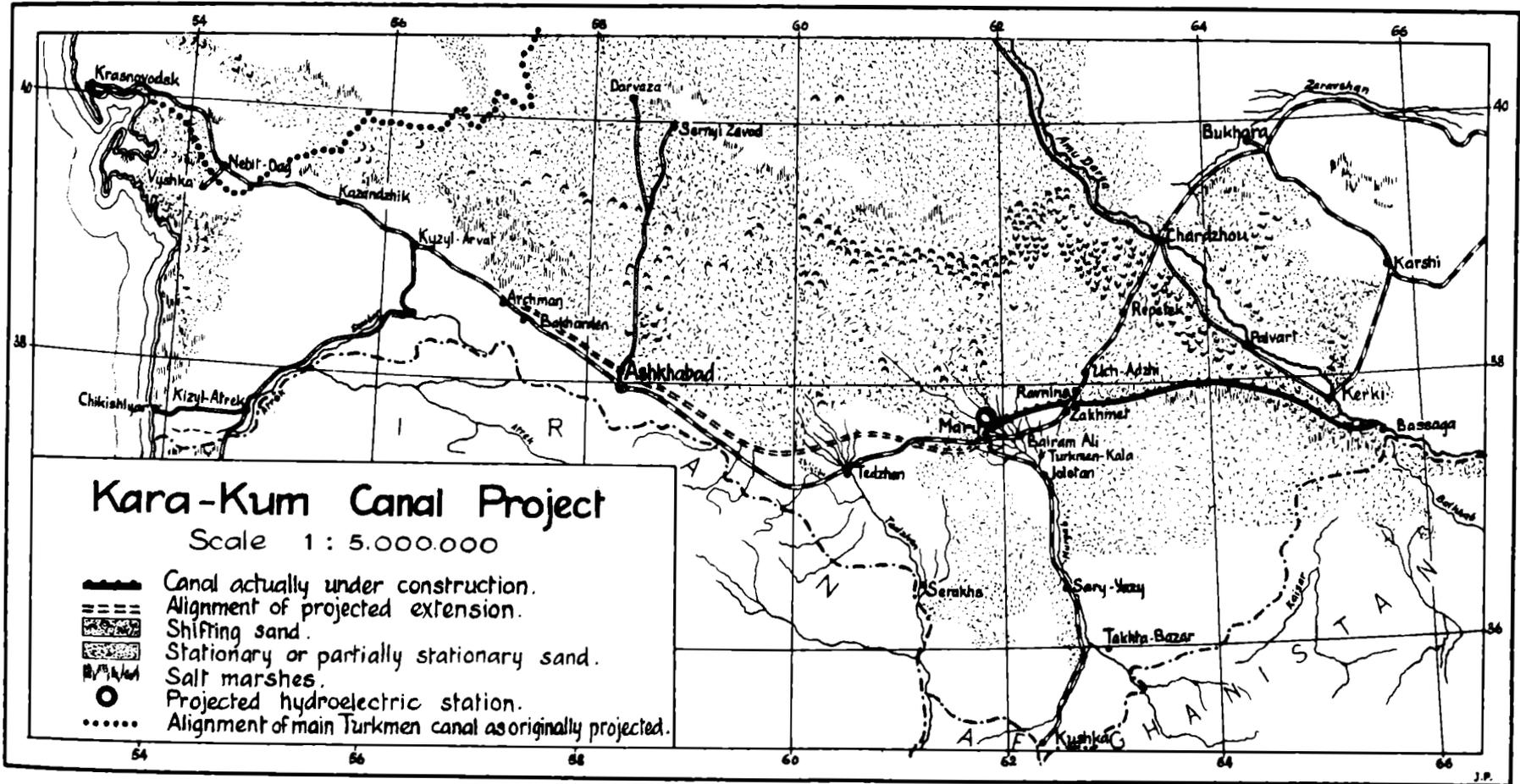
For the initial 44 kilometres of its length, the first sector utilizes the Bassaga - Kerki canal (completed in 1929) and the Uzboi-Kelif canal (1931), which are being widened and deepened to the requisite dimensions; thence for a further 70 kilometres it follows the ancient bed of the Kelif-Uzboi river, where a reservoir covering 82 square kilometres and with a capacity of 350 m. cubic metres of water is to be constructed. The canal will then thrust due west through 213 kilometres of desert, across the Chardzhou - Mary railway line into the arid regions of the Bairam-Ali and Mary districts and join the river Murgab at the Egri Gussar dam, a little downstream of Mary itself. The alignment of the second and third sectors is comparatively straightforward; it follows in close proximity to the railway and requires no further detailed elaboration.

The flow of water from the Amu-Darya through the canal will follow naturally, and no expensive dams, pumping stations or other artificial means of propulsion will be required. As the canal will, however, be used for navigation as well as for irrigation purposes, a number of sluices and locks will be constructed along it.

Storage of water will be ensured by the construction of a number of large reservoirs at selected points: in addition to the Kelif-Uzboi reservoir mentioned above, a great reservoir, to hold a thousand million cubic metres of water, and a hydroelectric power-station are to be constructed "somewhere near the middle" of the first sector; another, destined to be "the largest water reservoir in Turkmenistan", will be built at Sary Yazy on the Murgab river; the Iolatan and Indu-Kush dams have already been enlarged, reinforced and re-built, and the Tedzhen and Sary Yabluch reservoirs will be completed by the end of this year.

Final approval to the project was given towards the end of 1946, and it was originally intended that work on the first sector should commence in 1947 and be completed by the end of 1951. This, obviously, has proved to be impracticable. When, in fact, construction was eventually started is not quite clear; but the project is now said to be in full swing, and from the fact that by May 1954 only 100 kilometres of the first sector had been completed, it is obvious that the delay in commencing operations must have been considerable.

The intervening period was not, however, one of complete inactivity, and a very considerable amount of preliminary survey and preparatory work, found to be essential before construction could begin, was carried out. In May 1947 a reconnaissance party of the Geological Department of Turkmenistan, under the leadership of the engineer, Rybakov, crossed the south-eastern Kara-Kum by car from west to east, starting from the railway station of Zakhmet and following the projected alignment of the canal throughout its 420 kilometre length to Bassaga. While the primary



object of Rybakov's expedition was to test the feasibility of crossing the drifting sand dunes of the desert by motor transport - a feat hitherto regarded by experienced explorers as impossible - it carried out at the same time a comprehensive search for wells and other possible sources of water supply for the geological survey parties which were to follow in the summer, and it also checked the preliminary survey work done in the past along the alignment of the future canal.

The successful accomplishment of the primary object was regarded as being of the greatest importance to the future work of construction; his trail, Rybakov considered, could readily be improved by construction gangs and the use of mechanical transport would greatly facilitate the carrying of essential equipment and supplies. Rybakov's expedition was followed a few months later by four parties with the tasks of continuing the geological survey and starting boring operations.

Again, in March 1948 it was reported that some 250 specialists of the Turkmen Geological Department were supervising hydro-geological investigations along the whole length of the first sector, and that hydro-geological stations for the study of the sub-soil waters had been set up both in the Murgab basin and along the course of the canal.

From all this it would appear that the tentative dates envisaged at the end of 1946 were probably a piece of departmental optimism, and that a vast amount of preliminary survey and preparation has had to be completed before the actual construction could profitably be commenced. The current target date for the completion of the whole canal is now set for the end of 1958.

Constructional technique

The "flowing" method of construction (i.e. the admission of water to the canal progressively as it is excavated) has been preferred to the "dry" excavation method. The latter admittedly has the advantage that work can be carried on simultaneously at any number of places along the whole length of the canal; but against this advantage, the "dry cut" method calls for ancillary services which, in the terrain to be traversed, would be extremely difficult to organize; a road or railway would have to be constructed as a supply line; workers' settlements would have to be built at regular intervals and special arrangements made for their water supply; the construction of a road or railway parallel, and in close proximity, to the canal would necessitate the clearance of all vegetation, which helps to bind the soil and would thus increase the dangers and difficulties caused by the presence of shifting sand on the immediate canal banks; and this shifting sand would, in its turn, greatly complicate the planting of protective belts of young trees along the canal.

With the "flowing" method all these difficulties are avoided; supplies and equipment can be brought up by water along the length of canal already constructed; workmen can be billeted on board the 3-ton barges which advance simultaneously with the progress of the canal; and the question of a special water supply for them does not arise.

The whole process of construction is entirely mechanized, and manual labour has been reduced to a minimum - a fact which both reduces the cost of the project and simplifies the whole organization. Firstly, small suction dredgers are employed to cut a narrow, preliminary canal; these are followed by large dredgers, supplied with current by floating power-stations, which gradually widen and deepen the canal to the desired dimensions; and supplementary to these main mechanical implements are a number of others - self-propelled excavators, bulldozers, scrapers and the like.

Organization and progress

The work in hand on the first sector was commenced simultaneously from each end of the sector. As already mentioned, 100 kilometres had been constructed by May 1954; it is estimated that the completion of the sector will involve the excavation of 76 m. cubic metres of earth and the laying of 25,000 cubic metres of reinforced concrete.

Work from the Mary end of the sector has reached the 365th kilometre mark (i.e. 365 kilometres from Bassaga), and on 12th May it was reported in the press that the first 25 kilometres of the canal from the Mary end had been excavated and had now reached the Molotov-Vekil agricultural artel of the Bazar raion; that along the next 25 kilometre stretch in the Bairam-Ali area two OM-202 excavators, 18 scrapers and 11 bulldozers were at work, and that, farther east, from Zakhmet railway station, 4 electric excavators, powered by an electric train, and 14 Diesel excavators were engaged on the cutting of the next 15 kilometres.

Nevertheless, the slow progress of the project as a whole has been frequently and severely criticized in the Soviet press; numerous complaints have appeared, describing the lack of efficiency and supervision on the part of local executives, the failure to make full use of the mechanical equipment available, the chaotic state of the supply and transport services, and the inadequate arrangements made for the accommodation, supply, comfort and welfare of the personnel.

In April 1954, the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union published a joint directive entitled "The Future Development of Cotton-Growing in Turkmen SSR for 1954-58", in which very considerable space was devoted

to the Kara-Kum canal project. The criticisms voiced in the press were reiterated in the official review; but in addition to the customary exhortations to greater and more efficient efforts, the directive announced that, to ensure an acceleration of the work of construction, further reinforcements in both technical personnel and mechanical equipment would immediately be made. From the scope and magnitude of the new measures envisaged, it is obvious that the Soviet authorities are determined both to overhaul the whole organization and thus ensure a planned and more methodical progress, and to press forward the completion of the project with the maximum possible speed. The Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR has been directed to send at once 40 irrigation engineers, 10 mechanical engineers, 300 master-masons and 350 master-carpenters trained in the FZO schools and other technical colleges; the recruitment of 11,000 Turkmen labourers in 1954 has been sanctioned; the approval has been given to the foundation of schools for the training of skilled mechanics; and, in an endeavour to ensure direct, constant and adequate supervision, responsibility for the efficient prosecution of the project has been placed upon the Communist Party executives of the Mary and Charzhou oblasts. The Ministry of Geology of the USSR has been directed to start at once, on the basis of the geological and hydrological studies of the soil and sub-soil waters already carried out, and to complete by 1956, a hydro-geological 1:100,000 survey map of the whole areas to be irrigated by the Kara-Kum canal network, including the 300,000 hectares situated in the Murgab oasis and the 300,000 hectares of the Tedzhen oasis.

As regards additional mechanical equipment, 2 powerful self-propelled excavators, a number of electro-suction dredgers and large hydraulic dredgers, drag-lines and other equipment were delivered to the canal zone in May, and on 24th April it was announced that the Ministry of Agriculture would place the following additional equipment at the disposal of the project in the immediate future: a number of power generators and steam-turbine power-stations, a floating power-station and a 4,000 kilowatt electric power train, 20 KDM-46 tractor engines, 2 Sormovets Diesel soil-suction dredgers, 4 100-35 suction dredgers, 294 tractors, 39 excavators, 41 scrapers, 32 bulldozers, 16 graders, 229 lorries, 33 mobile mechanical repair workshops, 33 fuel lorries and a considerable quantity of agricultural machinery of all kinds. The absorption of these very considerable additional forces, both human and mechanical, it is hoped, cannot but result in marked and rapid progress by the project in hand.

The Kara-Kum desert today and tomorrow

The extent to which, by slow and arduous labour, the wilderness of the Kara-Kum desert of today has already been rendered productive is perhaps even more remarkable than the changes which the completion of the irrigation network will bring. Apart from cotton-growing in those areas which already possess the requisite water facilities, rearing of

sheep, goats and camels on a very considerable scale flourishes in the desert. In the south-eastern portion, situated for the most part in the vicinity of the railway line in the settlements of Kalaikor, Krasnoye Znamya, Ravnina and Uch-Adzhi, fifteen sovkhoses control 7 m. hectares of grazing land suitable for the rearing of Karakul sheep; two sovkhoses are engaged in the rearing of camels, and there is a large number of kolkhoz livestock farms, each having anything from ten to twenty-five thousand sheep and goats apiece.

The requisite water has hitherto been obtained from many hundreds of artesian wells, laboriously dug by hand for the purpose, and during the last decade alone over 5,000 such wells have been bored in this fashion. In 1953, however, the KT'sK 25 - a mechanical borer mounted on a lorry and hence extremely mobile - was brought into operation and has greatly facilitated and accelerated the process; in eight hours this machine can sink a 30-foot shaft - a task which requires a month of manual labour. Further, there is a number of state pedigree livestock farms undertaking experiments for increasing fertility and improving the breed of numerous varieties of sheep; and finally, the rich sulphur deposits have been under exploitation for the past twenty years and constitute one of the main sources of sulphur supply to Soviet industry.

When the Kara-Kum canal project is completed, its arteries will be supplied with water by the Amu-Darya at the rate of 350 cubic metres per second, and a great change will come over the south-eastern desert. The irrigation of the 600,000 hectares of the Tedzhen and Murgab oases will be greatly improved and expanded, and a further 500,000 hectares of arid desert will be transformed into rich and fertile land.

Of primary importance is the increase in cotton-growing, and it is estimated by the Soviet authorities that cotton production will rise to 405,000 tons of cotton in 1955 and to 621,000 tons in 1958. Some idea of the envisaged expansion can be gathered from the progressive measures which the Soviet authorities anticipate will be required to take full advantage of it. In the newly irrigated areas, 10 machine and tractor stations will be created between 1956 and 1958; between 1954 and 1956, 35 repair shops, 70 tractor garages and 70 combined harvester and cotton-picking machine depots are to be built; and 5 new cotton mills and 34 cotton-storage depots will be erected in Turkmenistan between 1956 and 1958.

The expansion of sheep and other animal rearing will also be very great, and new kolkhozes are to be set up throughout the canal area.

Apart from these very solid economic advances, many benefits will accrue in the field of social amenities; thanks to the canal, the towns, villages and settlements in its vicinity will gradually be furnished

with modern systems of water supply and sanitation; the green protection belts on both banks will gradually be expanded into gardens, orchards and vineyards; roads, railways, bridges and telephone lines will greatly facilitate transport and communications, while water supply to the existing railroad - hitherto a costly and difficult operation - will in future present no problem.

At present the population of the Kara-Kum desert is very sparse and is concentrated in the oases of the Amu-Darya, Murgab and Tedzhen rivers and along the railway line; but with the completion of the irrigation project large migrations into the newly irrigated areas will undoubtedly take place, and this will ensure a sufficiency of labour for the rapid development of both cotton growing and sheep and other animal breeding.

To summarize, the Kara-Kum project appears to be entering upon a stage when work towards its completion will be both methodical and rapid; and the completed work promises both to make a very valuable contribution to Soviet economy, and to raise greatly the standard of living and the social amenities of the population of Turkmenistan.

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K A Z A K H S T A N

U S H K A N : A N A N C I E N T K A Z A K H N E C R O P O L I S

During 1952, the architectural department of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR made an expedition to Ushkan. The following is an abridged translation of M.M. Mendikulov's resume (published in Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR No. 12. 1953) of the report made by N.T. Sauranbayev, a member of the expedition.

The ancient beit - graveyard - of Ushkan is situated some twenty kilometres to the south of the Munaili oilfield and in the vicinity of the old caravan route from the lower reaches of the river Emba to the Mangistau peninsula and Khiva; built on the gentle slopes of a hillock and running north and south, it is rectangular in shape and is bounded on the north-western side by the great salt marsh of Toltur-Tuz.

The first mention of Ushkan occurs in 1762 in Topografiya Orenburgskoi Gubernii by P.I. Rychkov; it is again mentioned by A. Levshin in his Opisanie kirgiz-kazachikh ili kirgiz-kaisatzhikh ord i stepei, published in 1832, in which the author draws attention to the ruins of an ancient settlement.

According to popular tradition, the settlement was founded by Ushkan-ata, one of the Muslim missionaries who introduced Islam into Kazakhstan, and, as is the case with every holy aulie, he is credited with a number of miracles. Here, for example, he is said with one blow of his staff to have produced an inexhaustible spring, whose abundant waters quenched the thirst of all living beings in the desert surrounding. In this legend clothed in religious garb is reflected the very essence of the struggle of a people battling for their lives with the eternal and harsh conditions of the desert. According to the statements of the older inhabitants, there once existed a lake, fed by a spring which has since dried up. At one time the vicinity was a favourite halting place for nomad auls, and the water was ample both for the needs of their herds and, with the assistance of a primitive form of irrigation, for the cultivation of the adjoining fields. Some fifty years ago, the spring failed, and the camping grounds were abandoned. Now, numerous wells have been drilled and, after a period of discontinuation, agriculture once more flourishes in the district.

The Ushkan necropolis contains a vast number of monuments, consisting of massive dome-shaped mausoleums, sarcophagi (sagana-tam), and carved stone pillars (kulup-tas); the more ancient among them have crumbled into shapeless ruins, but those attributed to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are well-preserved.

The tomb of Ushkan-ata is found on a small hillock in the southwestern part of the graveyard and is surmounted by a wooden pole; originally a small mosque stood in the vicinity, but was destroyed during the Civil War. In the south-east corner are a number of large dome-shaped mausoleums, built in the eighteenth century of brick, and although they have suffered considerably from exposure, enough remains to show that they were designed in the style of the Kazakh kiiz-ui (felt hut).

The northern part of the graveyard is occupied by a more modern cemetery, surrounded by a low mud wall and containing a number of somewhat primitive kulup-tas of roughly hewn wood and stone, and some inscribed sarcophagi, among which that of Aibasanov is worthy of note. Without exception these sagana-tam are constructed in the form of a roofless parallelepiped, the front and rear walls of which are somewhat higher than those at the sides, with the object, apparently, of emphasising their architectural significance. The sagana-tam examined was constructed at the beginning of the twentieth century of stone of a pleasing light yellow shade. Rectangular in shape, with sides measuring 2.60 by 4.36 metres, it has no foundations, but is mounted on a solid base consisting of two superimposed slabs, 32 and 10 centimetres thick respectively. The walls are composed of solid blocks of stone of diverse sizes, closely fitted together in two parallel rows, as a protection against damp; the space between the inner and outer walls is filled with clay bricks and rubble, and in some instances stays have been used to support and strengthen the walls.

The principal facade faces south and consists of an elevated parapet with modest portals protruding slightly beyond the level of the walls and adorned with cornices. Both interior and exterior walls are highly polished and devoid of any trace of ornamentation.

The predominant type of memorial at Ushkan are the magnificent kulup-tas, which are remarkable for the variety of their design and the superbly decorative quality of the carved stone which adorns them. There are many hundreds of them, representing a wide span of time and they are of exceptional historical and artistic value; not a few of them would certainly be worthy acquisitions for the museums of the republic.

Archeological research has so far not definitely established the origin of these kulup-tas. It is known, however, that the numerous

Turkic tribes which inhabited Kazakhstan prior to the Arab conquest were in the habit of erecting kurgans - memorial hummocks surmounted by a tomb and surrounded with stone statues, either of some divinity or of some well-known warrior. The obelisks of the Turanic khans usually bore an obituary notice carved on the stone, and were surrounded by stone effigies of the enemies they had slain. Ruybruck, who passed through the Kipchak steppes in the middle of the thirteenth century, reports that the Kipchaks "placed stone idols on the kurgans in honour of their dead". Ruzbekhan, a writer of the sixteenth century, says: "Among the Kazakhs there are still to be found some remnants of pagan customs, as, for example, the veneration of idols - a practice which is contrary to the tenets of the Muslim religion."

It is probable that, with the adoption of the Muslim faith, which forbids the fashioning of statuary in the form of any living being, these sculptures were gradually modified, until they assumed the form now found in the kulup-tas. This theory is substantiated by the thesis of Ch. Ch. Valikhanov: referring to the survival of Shamanism among the Kazakhs and its incorporation into the Muslim religion, he writes: ". . . these statues, and particularly such idols as represented, for example, the Dzhayagachi, or gods of the earth, were completely forgotten, presumably because, with the spread of the Muslim faith, such idols had become an abomination in the eyes of the Muslim." Moreover, a comparative study of the kulup-tas of various epochs, the upper portions of which undoubtedly bear a resemblance to what may once have been a human head, lend additional support to the theory; a straight answer to the problem is given by V.A. Mustafin, who in a paper read before a Turkestan archeological society in 1898 said: "Some of the less ancient stone babs (i.e. statues) are undoubtedly of Turkic construction. Some of these Turkic tribes adhere to this day to the custom of adorning their tombs with clay statuary, and this custom, apparently, has transferred itself to the Kirgiz in the form of the so-called kulup-tas."

The more recent of the kulup-tas usually take the form of individual columns, consisting of three distinct parts - the pedestal in the form of a broad plinth; the trunk, adorned as a rule with carving in flat relief; and the sculptured crown. The actual design and the relative dimensions of these three sections do not appear to conform to any specific architectural pattern, but follow rather the wishes of those who commissioned them and the taste of the craftsman who constructed them.

One of the distinguishing features of the Ushkan kulup-tas is the complicated design of the topmost, sculptured portion, which often consists of two or three tiers of figurative design; some of them form part of the column itself and terminate in a semisphere or in a geometric figure such as a truncated pyramid or a trapezium; circles, rhomboids or triangles are used as decorative motives, while others

bear traditional Kazakh tribal signs - tamgi - such as the figure: , the cross and dipper: , domestic utensils, arms and the traditional elements of tribal ornamentation - the ramshorn (koshkar-muiiz), camel-foot (tue-taban), birdswing (kus-kanat), and others.

Larger dimensions and greater variety of colour are further characteristics of the Ushkan kulup-tas; bigger than those found elsewhere, they vary in height from 2.5 to 3.7 metres, and the colours include brown, light and dark blue, turquoise and burgundy.

By the resemblance of the basic elements of their composition, the uniformity of their stylistic features and the character of their decorative motives, the Ushkan kulup-tas can be divided into three groups. The first group consists of monuments erected in the second half of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries, and the other two groups of monuments in the latter half of the nineteenth and the first quarter of the twentieth centuries. Of these, it has been established that the majority of the monuments erected during the latter years of the nineteenth and the early decades of the twentieth centuries are the work of two indigenous master-craftsmen, the brothers Eleusin and Elbusin Egesinov.

To summarize, the kulup-tas originated from stone statues (balbal) which gradually came to be used as funereal ornamentation, firstly among the ancient Turkic tribes of Kazakhstan, then among the Kipchaks and the Kazakhs. The gradual metamorphosis of the kulup-tas to their present form occurred as the result of the extension of the Muslim religion during - according to Ruzbekhan - the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Ushkan monuments erected during the eighteenth and nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are remarkable examples of popular, artistic creation and faithfully reflect the material and spiritual culture of the Kazakh people at various periods of their history.

K A Z A K H S T A N

THE NEW DRIVE FOR GRAIN

The following is a survey based on the material available in Soviet publications about the new drive to raise cereal production in Kazakhstan.

The plan to raise agricultural production generally was first launched by Krushchew in September 1953; in February of this year, however, the emphasis was turned to grain, and efforts were largely directed towards Kazakhstan. The drive for grain is an all-Union project and it is of interest that the emphasis is on the reclamation and exploitation of virgin and fallow lands rather than on the stepping-up of production on land already under cultivation.

As is customary in Soviet reporting on new projects, enthusiasm for the plan is to some extent tempered by the prominence given to difficulties, and to past and present failures in political and technical organization and in the application of scientific knowledge and equipment. The existence of these difficulties and failures cannot be doubted, but it is probable that the emphasis laid on them is intended to provide a stimulus for dynamic action rather than to suggest that they are likely to prove insuperable. By May 1954 there was a noticeable increase in the reports of progress received from various regions.

I. The Plan and its Background - Need for more grain - Agriculture in Kazakhstan before the February drive - Work of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences - Targets for wheat production - II. The Problems: Men, Materials, Transport- Local supply of qualified men - Training of local recruits - Women on the mechanized farm - Manpower from outside - Amenities and schools for immigrants - Materials: mechanical equipment - Fertilizers - Transport: railway facilities and needs - Roads - III. Execution: Progress reports from Seven Oblasts - Aktyubinsk - Akmolinsk - East-Kazakhstan - Kokchetav-Kustanai - North-Kazakhstan - Pavlodar - Conclusions.

I. The Plan and its BackgroundNeed for more grain

In his maiden speech as First Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet

Union last September, Krushchev announced a new policy. Agriculture was now to receive first priority in Soviet economic planning and all emphasis was to be on food production. Particular attention was drawn to the decline in livestock, to the inadequacy of the MTS and to the shortage of trained technicians on the land. Grain production was to be greatly increased, and Kazakhstan, along with other undeveloped areas of the Soviet Union, was pointed out as an area where possibilities existed for ploughing up hitherto virgin or neglected lands.

The Soviet Union's need to improve its grain position has been shown clearly in an article in the April number of Zemledeliye which alleged that serious mistakes had been made in the past in allocating agricultural lands to different classes of crops. Between 1940 and 1953 the total area under crops throughout the Union rose by 6.8 million hectares, while the area under grain cultivation fell by 3.8 million hectares. A big mistake had been made in reducing the area under grain in the Ukraine, the Northern Caucasus and the central black-earth belt, the more so as the change from cereals was often to fodder and grass plants producing very low yields - often no more than 10 to 12 centners per hectare. The concern expressed in the article suggests that a major grain shortage was feared, if it was not already felt.

In the months following the September announcement, steps were taken throughout the Union to send help both in the form of men and of machinery to MTS and MZhS, in order to stop the drift away from the land and to bring about greater efficiency in general. On existing farm lands production was to be intensified by the increased use of fertilizers and other up-to-date methods.

In February, however, there came a new announcement. The drive for more food was now to be focussed almost entirely on grain, and to accomplish this, millions of hectares of virgin land in Kazakhstan and parts of Siberia were to be put under the plough. At the same time as this announcement came the appointment of Ponomarenko, a leading member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and Minister of Culture of the USSR since March 1953, as First Secretary of the Kazakh Communist Party in the place of the now dismissed Shayakhmetov. Kazakhstan was obviously to be the centre of the attention of the whole Union.

Agriculture in Kazakhstan before the February drive

Kazakhstan is equal in size to a third of the United States but the greater part of its vast territory is desert or semi-desert. Livestock-breeding has long been the traditional means of livelihood of the Kazakh, but in the more fertile northern and south-eastern areas agriculture has been practised chiefly by settlers from Russia and the Ukraine. Kazakhstan can be divided into three main agricultural

areas: in the black-earth zone of the north and north-east, grain cultivation and dairy farming predominate; in the dry steppe and desert zones of the centre and south-west, tillage is impossible and semi-nomadic livestock rearing is the main industry; in the fertile valleys of the south and south-east the warm climate and extensive irrigation make possible the cultivation of a great variety of food and industrial crops.

Even in the more fertile regions, farm productivity in Kazakhstan is low by Russian standards and there would, it seems, be scope for better yields by intensification. In January of this year Kazakhstanskaya Pravda published an article by the chairman of the Stalin kolkhoz of the Taldy Kurgan oblast of Kazakhstan. This kolkhoz had been engaged in a "socialist competition" with its namesake in the Moscow oblast of the RSFSR. Both these kolkhozes were using modern agricultural machinery on a large scale and the Kazakh kolkhoz was in no way at a disadvantage compared to its Russian counterpart and was considered rich by local standards. Yet in 1953 the Russian farm earned 3,610 rubles per hectare while the Kazakh farm earned only 640 rubles, and, in spite of the fact that 3,000 of the 8,260 hectares of the Kazakh kolkhoz were sown to wheat, production indexes except for sheep and meat were far lower than those of the Moscow farm. The chairman of the Kazakh farm concluded his article by saying that because of the vast land reserves of his kolkhoz there was no incentive to intensify cultivation; outputs were planned from the kolkhoz as a whole and not hectare by hectare as in the Russian kolkhoz; but, with a new approach and more intensive methods, enormous possibilities for raising output seem to exist.

Work of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences

In January of this year, Kunayev, President of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences outlined the yearly programme for the Academy's scientific work. The Geological Institute was to prepare a hydro-geological map of the Guryev oblast and of the sub-soil waters in Dzhezkazgan; the Chemical Institute was to examine and tabulate the effects of a new "thermo-phosphate" fertilizer which was under experiment at forty-three experimental stations; the Soil Institute was to send out experts to study soil amelioration in the Karaganda and Dzhezkazgan areas and in the Caspian lowlands. It was also to experiment with "bacterial fertilizers"; the Botanical Institute was to study the fodder resources of part of the Alma-Ata oblast and the Mangyshlak area. Besides this, work was to be undertaken on some quite new subjects such as the planning of settlements for agricultural workers, research on building materials in regions subject to seismic disturbances, the location of new fodder resources, and the preparation of a soil map of the republic. Work in fact was to be spread over the whole republic and was to be in line with the policy announced in the previous September of raising agricultural

production in general, rather than to be concentrated on the wheat lands of the north.

In March, however, came a radical change of plan. The newly appointed Ponomarenko, addressing a three-day session of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, strongly criticized it for neglecting to help the MTS and sovkhoses of the new lands. Its work was too abstract and all attention must now be given to accelerating the pace of reclamation of the new lands. In April, the Kazakh Academy announced its new plans: 315 working parties were to be sent immediately to survey the possibilities of wheat growing in the Akmolinsk, Pavlodar and Kustanai oblasts. A soil map of the North-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav and Kustanai oblasts was to be prepared at once; experiments with "bacterial fertilizers" were to be carried out on the new lands; expeditions were also to be sent to experiment with the growing of wheat on saline soils, with its resistance to drought and its cultivation on non-irrigated lands.

To help in the giant new tasks, the Ministry of Sovkhoses of the RSFSR moved the entire staffs of its regional offices at Rostov-on-Don, Astrakhan and Saratov to Kazakhstan. In addition, scientists and equipment from many other Union institutions are being sent to help. The new drive in fact necessitates men and materials which are obviously beyond the resources of Kazakhstan, and it has thus become an all-Union responsibility.

Targets for wheat production

In the course of the next two years, 6,300,000 hectares of virgin and neglected lands are to be brought under the plough. This total exceeds by one million hectares the total area of land brought under the plough in the course of the last forty years. Ninety-two new sovkhoses are to be established on the state land reserves in the Akmolinsk, Kokchetav, North-Kazakhstan and Kustanai oblasts; their boundaries have already been defined, and eighty-five are said to be already in existence. The target for the new sovkhoses is to plough 2,195,000 hectares, of which 800,000 are to be ploughed already this year and by 1955 it is hoped that a million hectares will be sown to hard wheat. Many new MTS are to be established and 54,000 tractors are to be sent to the new sovkhoses and MTS. The whole task is to be treated as a military operation and particular importance is attached to the role of the directors of the MTS who are responsible not only for the supply of machinery to the sovkhoses and kolkhozes, but also for the education of their personnel in the Party spirit, without which, it is thought, the tremendous new tasks cannot be accomplished.

II. The Problems: Men, Materials, Transport

Local supply of qualified men

Since the September announcement, great efforts have been made in Kazakhstan both to train more agricultural technicians and to send available experts away from their city posts back to the land. In recent months following the new virgin land plan this drive has been intensified.

To find workers for the new wheatlands it will be necessary not only to employ workers from the kolkhozes and towns of Kazakhstan, but also to recruit thousands of workers from outside. It has been suggested that a special trust should be set up to control the recruitment, distribution and management of labour.

Shayakhmetov since his dismissal has been severely criticized for failing to get experts and technicians who could help on the farms back to the land. Of 5,000 specialists who should have been sent back to the land following the September announcement, only 3,389 had actually gone by February.

It was stated early last year that, for want of qualified operators, tractors and combines could not be fully used. For three years running the MTS of the wheat-growing oblasts of Kustanai, North-Kazakhstan, East-Kazakhstan and Taldy-Kurgan had for this reason failed to deliver their wheat quotas. Not only must the qualifications of workers be improved but steps must be taken to keep them on the land. Fewer than half the specialist jobs in agriculture in Kazakhstan are held by properly qualified men, for most of these - officials, engineers, agronomists - try to stay in the cities. It was reported in December that of 3,500 agronomists and zoo-technicians who should have gone to rural areas, only 3,083 had been selected by November, and few had actually arrived. Industry had yielded only 18 per cent of the technical staff it was expected to contribute, and recruitment prospects seemed very low in Karaganda, East Kazakhstan, South Kazakhstan, Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk. 10,747 diesel tractor operators and 3,475 combine drivers and mechanics were still needed in December.

The shortage of qualified staff is marked. In Semipalatinsk (which has good training schools) of 226 engineers, only four have university degrees, 22 secondary school certificates, and 200 only practical experience, some being quite illiterate. Of 441 MTS directors in office last December, 84 had university degrees, 222 were from secondary schools, and the others had no special qualifications. Only 24 of 336 kolkhoz chairmen in Pavlodar, West Kazakhstan and Semipalatinsk oblasts are experts, many are quite inefficient and even dishonest.

Training of local recruits

Kazakh "Schools of Mechanization" for training tractor drivers, mechanics and other staff are not always equal to their task. The twenty-year-old Pavlodar school, for example, has no S-80 or DT-54 tractors for demonstration, is short of 15 teachers and foremen-instructors while the present staff are not up to the necessary standard. At the Selo-Irtyshkoye school in the same oblast the same shortage compels the available staff to work ten hours a day while text books have to be shared by five students. The school lacks KD-35 and KhtZ-7 tractors and its premises are badly heated. The two mechanics' schools in the Akmolinsk oblast lack equipment for field training and bad conditions lead to many desertions by students. Bad canteen and boarding arrangements are a fairly general complaint, the Dzhambul school can board only 80 of its 500 students, while its dining room only seats twenty at a time. At this school only three of the already short staff of 15 have university qualifications, and at times the staff cannot draw their pay or the students their grants for three months owing to administrative arrears. Karaganda's well-advertised "mechanization school", open to trainees from other oblasts, only had 380 students on the opening day, and of these 100 have since gone home.

These specimen complaints illustrate the problems to be faced. The target is to train 6,000 tractor drivers with at least a fitter's qualifications; 4,000 operators for attached and self-propelled combines; and 3,000 drivers for wheeled tractors. The training drive, however, started late in October and in some oblasts recruiting has reached only 60 per cent of the target figure.

Women on the mechanized farm

There are great possibilities, it is thought, of recruitment among women, so many of whom handled farm machinery during the war. In Kazakhstan women now form 40.4 per cent of the industrial workers and 60 per cent of the agricultural workers, but hardly any women in agriculture do work requiring technical knowledge or mechanical skill. Ten years ago over 26,000 women worked as tractor or combine operators and as tractor "brigade" foremen; now under 2,000 are nominally on the rolls of MTS and MZh stations. In January a conference was held to consider the re-employment of women, and in February Nurumbaeva, Deputy Chairman of Ministers, said that, at the end of the war, 14,000 women were operating agricultural machines, of whom over 5,000 were tractor "brigade" foremen. But nowadays with their menfolk making good money, or for family reasons, they were apparently not interested in the work.

Manpower from outside

The new plan calls for a big intake of skilled hands from the RSFSR

and the Ukraine. Last February Karibdzhanov, Minister of Agriculture, said that 16,000 men and women from the two republics were expected to arrive in Kazakhstan and would have to be properly housed.

In December, Aktyubinsk reported arrivals of high-grade technicians including a party from Kuibyshev consisting largely of MTS directors, foremen, chief engineers and works managers. That month Uralsk received a large party of trained hands from Stalingrad. Moscow has sent three parties. The Ukraine sent West-Kazakhstan 100 foremen of tractor units from Kirovograd and 50 foremen and tractor drivers from Odessa, and also sent Kustanai a batch of Komsomoltsy. These young Communists are considered an important infusion of indoctrinated workers.

One April report says 30,000 young people had arrived so far, while another claims the arrival of 10,000 technicians. The total of men and women under training was given at the same time as 36,000.

Amenities and schools for immigrants

Inevitably the newcomers have to be housed and as inevitably complaints arise. Caravan trailers are to be seen in the fields. In March the Union Ministry of Timber and Paper Industries sent several pre-fabricated houses, some divisible into four flats each, others for use as hostels. In the first half of 1954, 2,000 houses were to be sent as well as many large tents, community radios, etc. The Proletari works at Kerch (Crimea) are supplying domestic electric equipment and wiring and the Zhukov works at Bryansk are providing 1,000 boilers for communal kitchens.

But everywhere in the new lands people complain of housing shortages and of the lack of essential supplies. Dzhaksy station, for example, has no bakery. Esil sends its flour 50 km. to be baked; in winter the bread comes back frozen and inedible.

An important demand is that for schools, which also shows how far the influx is a permanent migration of complete family groups. The pioneering touch is contained in Kustanai's demand for 16 new schools with all the estimates worked out roughly on a single sheet of paper, leaving a number of details to be settled. Kokchetav oblast will get 25 seven-year schools, each for 160 children, and 150 flats for teachers in the new lands. The population at some MTS stations here has trebled, and in several large sovkhoses standard type schools for 280 pupils each are to be opened.

Materials: mechanical equipment

For some time past many types of farm vehicle have been sent to Kazakhstan. The agricultural magazine Zemledeliye said lately that

by 1954 the MT stations of the Soviet Union would have a total of a million tractors. In the last quarter of 1953 the farms of the Union received 42,000 tractors (averaging 15 h.p.), over 11,000 combine harvesters, and 22,000 tractor-drawn seed-drills. This year the new wheatlands of the Altai region, Siberia and Kazakhstan are to get 120,000 tractors and 10,000 combines. The Seventh Party Conference at Alma-Ata were told last February that Kazakhstan would get 39,000 tractors for MT stations and 14,800 for sovkhozes, the omission of reference to kolkhozes suggesting that Party policy in the republic now favours large estates with easily transferable labour rather than kolkhozes, whose workers cannot be so easily controlled.

The vehicles are arriving fast enough, at times quicker than the receiving areas can put them into service and organize their maintenance. By 15th March Stalingrad had sent 450 tractors to Kokchetav, 180 to West-Kazakhstan and scores to Aktyubinsk and Akmolinsk along with spare parts. By late January the first 27 of 700 caterpillar S-80 tractors had reached Kustanai from Chelyabinsk. Multiple tractor ploughs for deep-soil tilling were arriving from Rostov-on-Don and Rubtsovsk. The Gorki automobile plant is sending the modern GAZ 69.

The republic itself is apparently not acquitting itself well in the matter of farm machines. Its own agricultural machinery plant (Kazselmash) has been under construction for twelve years and still cannot produce the simplest type of machine. As already stated this was one of the reasons given for Shaiyakhmetov's fall.

Worse still, the good material that is coming in from other areas is not fully used or even properly looked after. In March, Petro-pavlovsk station was unable to cope with the incoming material and the yard was packed with machines, parts of prefabricated houses and other goods awaiting their consignees. Rail freights are often dumped alongside embankments at Akmolinsk, Atbasar and Esil to speed unloading and avoid congestion of platforms, and much damage is caused thereby.

Throughout the new lands good quality, new machines are not being used fully for lack of operators. Misuse often wrecks costly vehicles and at times a vehicle which breaks down a few kilometres from an estate headquarters is left to rust in the open. Mobile repair workshops - of which supplies are expected - will help to avoid this and remedy the shortage of MTS repair facilities.

Fertilizers

The main producers of chemical fertilizers in the north of Kazakhstan, the Aktyubinsk Chemical Kombinat, is doing well, but its main source of raw materials at Kara-Tau has been inefficient. The super-phosphates division at Aktyubinsk has raised output and solved problems

connected with germicidal sprays.

Transport: railway facilities and needs

The new lands of Kazakhstan will naturally require increased and improved transport facilities to handle the new traffic. An article in Vol. II No. 1 of Central Asian Review dealt to some extent with the existing railway system; lines serving the future granary of Russia are the Trans-Siberian in the north, which passes through the big Petropavlovsk junction; the South Siberian, which passes through Kustanai and Akmolinsk, and then along the newest section to Pavlodar; and the Trans-Kazakhstan line which goes to the south from Petropavlovsk.

At the Seventh Party Conference in February reference was made not only to delays in moving freight in the north, but also to a high accident-rate - a significant admission as the Soviet press rarely refers to accidents. Press complaints suggest that maintenance has been neglected and that the whole system lacks facilities for dealing with heavy traffic.

Thus the important Petropavlovsk goods yard has no warehouse suitable for storing grain. The same is true of the grain-disposal station of Mamlyutka, where also sleepers and old switches need to be replaced. Roads to sidings at other stations are in disrepair, and at Bulayevo even the scales for bulk weighing are out of order. At Petropavlovsk repairs are needed to the approaches to the sidings at the elevator. Arrangements at the collecting railheads to gather the harvest are generally incomplete.

Roads

The entire network of roads in the new lands will need attention. Over hundreds of kilometres of mud tracks will have to be replaced by raised, dry-surfaced roads to ensure continuous access to the new lands from MTS, grain elevators and collection centres. Elsewhere major repairs will be needed; already the spring thaw has caused much trouble in the delivery of machinery over the damaged mud roads of the steppe.

Much work is being done, but most of it will not be finished in time for this harvest. The Akmolinsk Road Construction Station last year started on the Akmolinsk-Astrakhanka mud road and completed 20 km. of embankment of which 10 km. were gravelled. In the West-Kazakhstan, Aktyubinsk and Pavlodar oblasts new road construction stations have been set up. Eight new road transport bases have been opened in the Kokchetav, Akmolinsk and Pavlodar oblasts.

Handling facilities need to be improved. There is a shortage of elevators, of damp proof warehouses and sheds. At the Uritsk grain collecting centre unloading is done wholly by hand.

Trucks

This year 1,500 new trucks and passenger vehicles are to be put into service. There has recently been a rise of 20 per cent in the number of trucks, but they are not fully used. Last autumn one truck had to handle 8.2 tons of freight a day to deal with the harvest, but the Union transport supply organization had not adapted many trucks to carry grain in bulk. Daily road coverage by trucks should be 300 km. In some places where MT stations cannot effect repairs, vehicles are cannibalized for their parts to be used as spares.

A number of cases of maladministration in the use of trucks are quoted in the Press. For instance, last December the manager of a branch of the Taldy-Kurgan Oblast Road Transport Trust, which has an important part to play in the transport of grain, received orders to help the cotton-growers of South-Kazakhstan. He promptly sent 60 trucks from Sarkand and Andreyevka (North of Taldy-Kurgan) to Chimkent. After covering 1,500 km. the officer in charge of this detachment was informed that the trucks were no longer needed. The Cotton Trust declined to pay for the cost of this useless journey or to provide the personnel with food or accommodation. After two weeks of idleness, 20 trucks were sent to Keless raion and ten to the Chimkent cotton-ginners. Later, the remaining 30 trucks were sent on to Arys whence, after a week of doing nothing, they returned to their base.

Motor fuel

The supply of petrol, diesel oil and lubricants to newly developed areas is a further problem. In March it was stated that sixteen new fuel supply stations are to be built this year. Gangs of trained workers have come from Moscow with a wagon load of equipment, and local oil tank assembly gangs are to be formed in Alma-Ata. In March it was also stated that 300 new oil tankers were being put on the roads and 400 filling pumps. Local branches of the Glavneftsbyt (the main oil distributors) are to be equipped to provide fuels uninterruptedly so that the road transport system can afford as much relief as possible to the railways. How much has to be done can be gathered from the fact that Alma-Ata, the capital, had only one filling station in February, and that cars wait for hours for their tanks to be filled.

III. Execution: Progress Reports of Seven Oblasts

At this early stage such progress reports as have come in merit brief mention in summarized form, but should not be the basis of hasty judgement.

Aktyubinsk

Two-year target: 725,00 ha. of new land. Last spring's tilling

and sowing target was given in March as 115,000 ha.; later moderated to 30,000. Work in some districts is very slow. Aktyubinsk MTS in April only tilled 175 ha. new land; Rodnikovskaya even less. Excessive rain made ploughing difficult. On 28th April rigorous control and the use of tractors for 20 hours a day was recommended.

Akmolinsk

Two-year target: 1,325,000 ha. This summer half a million ha. to be tilled for the 1955 sowing. Oblast to have 26 new sovkhoses, but much early work not done. In late spring many farms and MTS had not all the fuel they needed and had not prepared seed for sowing. Much work on irrigation and artesian wells to be done. Seven water reservoirs (20,000 cubic metres each) built. This summer 30 deep artesian wells to be sunk with help of gangs from Groznyi and Baku oilfields.

East-Kazakhstan

This year 80,000 ha. to be tilled, mostly for hard wheat. Much virgin soil and fallow land already tilled by kolkhozes of Zaisan and Tarbagatai raions on irrigated lands, bringing tillage and settlement close to the Chinese border. Oblast's new lands, being mostly on slopes, require special tillage and sowing methods. Training going fairly well: 400 local men attend MT schools. Tractors and machines for clearing bush have been obtained.

Kokchetav

Two-year target: 1,300,000 ha. Of this the kolkhozes' share is 700,000, showing that kolkhozes are strongly placed for development. Kolkhozes served by Chkalov MTS have 50,000 ha. of virgin soil, mostly black earth. Target for 1953 to be raised by 200,000 ha. so that by 1955 cultivated area will be 1 m. ha. These kolkhozes to raise their cultivated areas by 40 per cent. 24 grain sovkhoses to be formed. The oblast road system is inadequate; the telephone system has deteriorated (two MTS and 80 kolkhozes without telephones).

Kustanai

This year's tillage target, 1 m. ha. 135,000 ha. were due for sowing last spring, but 1953 results were discouraging - wheat on Tangush kolkhoz failed totally; on Karl Marx kolkhoz wheat on 50 ha. did not ripen and on 80 ha. was lying in the fields. This was ascribed to late sowing in May; earlier sowing is advised.

North-Kazakhstan

In May it was said that 12 new sovkhoses were established to till 233,000 ha. in 1954, of which 10,150 were for spring sowing. They have received 114 new tractors. New sites have received 240 wagon loads of prefabricated components and caravan trailers have arrived. Generally the oblast shows low efficiency and mechanization - at Zarya Kommunizma kolkhoz of Oktyabrski raion, with over 6,000 ha. under wheat, about 300,000 poods of grain had to be winnowed and handled manually. But some kolkhozes do well - Put Lenina raised 30 centners of wheat per ha.

Pavlodar

Two-year target: 750,000 or 770,000 ha. Last spring 70,000 ha. were to be sown with wheat. Detailed survey maps were made by February, but shortage of 2,600 tractor operators causes misgivings. Little is done about it; MTS are reluctant even to release untrained men and have sent for training only 108 men instead of 420.

Conclusions

The reports published so far show many of the consequences of hasty planning and failure to coordinate work on all fronts. Thus without detailed soil maps of the north it is hard to find the right sites for tilling before the snows have gone; if the thaw shows a tract to be waterless, it is too late to start drilling wells and men and machines already there are left idle for a long time before they can be moved.

The complaints of bureaucratic muddles and inefficiency are frequent, but considerable progress is claimed and on 29th May the Press hailed the completion of ploughing of the millionth hectare of virgin soil in Kazakhstan and said that kolkhozes and sovkhoses had completed their sowing plans on the new lands. The Izobilny sovkhos (Akmolinsk oblast) is held up as a model of progress. The workers' kollektiv at Stepnyak town had offered to send 400 men to help. A special gang was sent to Eremen-Tau to collect components of 80 prefabricated houses. The sovkhos hoped to till 20,000 of its 100,000 ha. this year. Eight oblasts not included in the wheat plan have caught the prevailing enthusiasm and have ploughed up and sown 160,000 ha. of new land.

Sources

Central Asian Press.



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
Kazakhstan.

The area covered in this Review embraces the five S.S.R. of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan. According to Soviet classification "Central Asia" (Srednyaya Aziya) comprises only the first four of these, Kazakhstan being regarded as a separate area.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with
St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group.

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. II. No. 4.
1954.

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3. and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

The CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW is published quarterly by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with the Soviet Affairs Study Group of St. Antony's College, Oxford. It aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current political, social and material developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as they are reflected in Soviet publications.

The selection of material is designed to represent positive achievements and shortcomings in the same proportion and with the same degree of emphasis as they are represented in the Soviet press and other Soviet publications. Explanations and background material are added where these seem to be necessary.

The Review is normally divided into six sections, one for each republic and one containing articles of a more general scope. Each of the five sections dealing with the republics contains material arranged under one or more of the following headings: Agriculture, Industry, Communications, Public Works and Services, and Political and Cultural Affairs. Subjects are only treated when a sufficient amount of relevant material is available.

The maps of the five republics, the Fergana Valley and the Altai Region have been specially drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre by the Royal Geographical Society whose assistance is gratefully acknowledged. These maps have been to some extent based on those contained in Shabad's Geography of the USSR, but additional details and some alterations have been incorporated.

The spelling of place-names corresponds in general with the system followed in Phillips Record Atlas (1952 Edition), namely, an approximate transliteration from the original Russian used in Soviet maps.

The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post free. The price of single copies is Seven Shillings and Sixpence.

Distributing Agents:

Messrs. Luzac & Co. Ltd.
46, Great Russell Street,
London, W.C.1.

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THE ENIGMA OF THE MAIN TURKMEN CANAL

A new book has recently appeared on Turkmenistan. Published by the Academy of Sciences, it is, in the words of the author Z.G. Freikin, a study of "the economic and geographic characteristics of the Turkmen SSR." The book is divided into two parts, the first containing chapters on the natural conditions and resources of the republic, its population, and its economy, while the second part is devoted to a detailed description of the republic oblast by oblast. In the whole of the book there is no mention of the Main Turkmen Canal project.

The plan for the construction of the Main Turkmen Canal was announced on 12th September 1950 by the Council of Ministers of the USSR. The canal was to run from Takhia-Tash on the Amu-Darya to Krasnovodsk on the shores of the Caspian with a branch running south-westwards to join the Sumbar river. The whole of northern and western Turkmenistan would thus be supplied with water and a large part of the Kara-Kum desert made fertile. This project - larger than any other canal project in the world - was to be completed between 1951 and 1957.

The 1950 announcement came after many years of scientific research and discussion on the problem of using the Amu-Darya to irrigate the Kara-Kum desert. Since 1925, when the subject was first raised, there appear to have been two main schools of thought; firstly, that by making use of the ancient river beds of the Darya Lyk and the Western Uzboi, the waters of the Amu-Darya could be diverted to the Caspian across the northern part of Turkmenistan, and secondly, that through the Kelif Uzboi the waters of the Amu-Darya could be linked with the Murgab and Tedzhen rivers and so irrigate a large area of southern Turkmenistan.

The first proposition - later to be embodied in the Main Turkmen Canal scheme - presented many difficulties. The Sarykamysh depression would either have to be filled with water - a process which might take anything up to twenty years - or to be circumvented. Various existing irrigation canals in the Tashauz area would have to be traversed. The projected alignment of the canal passed through the oil-producing area round Nebit-Dag, and it was feared that the presence of the canal might cause flooding of the oilfields. There was also the difficulty of the Amu-Darya, which in recent years has been perceptibly changing its course eastwards. It was feared too that the new canal would cause the level of the Aral Sea to fall dangerously low. Finally, the construction of the canal would involve the bringing of men, materials and equipment to a little-developed area and their functioning under extreme desert conditions; the canal, for almost the whole of its length, would pass through barren, waterless areas. On the other hand the advantages from such a canal would be enormous; the whole of the wasteland of northern

Turkmenistan would be turned into a fertile region, and by planting belts of trees along the canal the climatic conditions of the whole area would be changed. Water would be brought to Krasnovodsk and the oil towns of Kum-Dag and Nebit-Dag, which rely to a great extent on water brought to them by rail or sea. Moreover, cultivation in the rich sub-tropical south-western corner of Turkmenistan would be greatly increased.

At first the difficulties were, however, considered to outweigh the advantages, and in the years following 1925 the plan for the irrigation of the northern Kara-Kum was shelved in favour of the second proposition - the linking of the Amu-Darya with the Murgab and Tedzhen rivers by the Great Kara-Kum Canal. In 1929 the Bassaga-Kerki canal was completed and the surplus waters from the canal were allowed to pass into the Kelif Uzboi. In this way by 1931 the waters of the Amu-Darya had penetrated sixty-five kilometres into the southern Kara-Kum. In 1940 the decision was announced to build the Great Kara-Kum Canal which would make use of the Kelif Uzboi to draw the waters of the Amu-Darya to the oases of Mary and Tedzhen. This project was held up by the war, but in 1946 it was announced that work on the canal would be started immediately and that the project would be completed by 1951. There was no news in the press, however, about the project until April 1954, since when work is said to be in full swing. (See C.A.R Vol. II, No.3).

In the meantime, the plan for the northern canal, though shelved, was not forgotten. In 1948 an expedition organized by the Institute of Geology of the Academy of Sciences made a detailed exploration of the Western Uzboi and came to the conclusion that the construction of a canal bringing the waters of the Amu-Darya to the Caspian through the Western Uzboi was a possibility, but that work on this huge project should begin only after the completion of the Great Kara-Kum Canal.

The announcement of September 1950 thus came as a reversal of policy. All attention was now to be paid to the Main Turkmen Canal project, and though the Great Kara-Kum Canal was not abandoned it nevertheless fell into second place. Great publicity was given to the Main Turkmen Canal scheme and many popular scientific books appeared on the subject. One such book The Main Turkmen Canal Amu-Darya - Krasnovodsk (1952) published by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR was by the same Z.G. Freikin whose book on Turkmenistan has appeared this year. The project was important enough to merit a separate article in the new Soviet Encyclopaedia (1952). Throughout 1951, 1952 and the early part of 1953 detailed accounts were given in the all-Union and Central Asian press of the preparatory work on the scheme. On 28th February 1953 the feeder canal was completed and a special ceremony to celebrate this event was held on 1st March at Takhia-Tash; work was now to start on the main canal itself. (See C.A.R Vol. I, No.1). Progress reports continued during March, but since the beginning of April 1953 the Main Turkmen Canal scheme has had no mention at all in the Soviet press.

Since the spring of 1953, Z.G. Freikin's book, The Turkmen SSR is the first book on Turkmenistan to appear, and it seems besides to be the first serious geographical book on Turkmenistan to be published in Soviet times. Skosyrev's book Turkmenistan published in 1948 is more in the nature of a travelogue. Apart from its omission of the Main Turkmen Canal scheme the new book is interesting for a number of features. Although printed in March 1954, the book was sent to the publishers in April 1953; publishing was thus delayed for nearly a year. In the bibliography given at the end over a hundred books are mentioned, only two of which - a book on the geographic zones of the USSR, and an article on the history of Central Asia - were published later than 1950. The vast majority of the items were published before the war, and there is no mention of the books published between 1951 and 1953 on the Main Turkmen Canal project. While having no mention of the Main Turkmen Canal, the book briefly touches on the Kara-Kum Canal project but dismisses it as a project decided on before the war and which the war prevented from being realized. An apology for the startling omission of the Main Turkmen Canal may perhaps be seen in the author's foreword, written in December 1953: ". . . Socialist construction and the growth of scientific research in the Turkmen SSR is moving, especially in the last few years, at an extraordinary speed. In connection with this the author could not, within the framework of the present publication, describe with equal thoroughness all natural and economic aspects of the republic "

Whatever the causes, it is evident that for the present the Main Turkmen Canal scheme has dropped out of all Soviet publications. It may be that, like the Great Kara-Kum Canal project, it will lie fallow for a number of years only to be taken up again with renewed vigour, or it may be that the scheme has been finally abandoned. From the first, it seems that the scheme met with opposition on scientific grounds, and possibly also on economic and political grounds. It may be significant that the curtain fell over the project so soon after the change of government of the USSR. But the reasons for the postponement or abandonment of the Main Turkmen Canal project can only be a matter for conjecture, and the whole subject serves as an example of the difficulty of accurate reporting on Soviet affairs, particularly in Central Asia.

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I S L A M I C S T U D I E S I N R U S S I A

P A R T I

Ocherki istorii izucheniya Islama v SSSR. (An Outline of the History of Islamic Studies in the USSR) by N. A. Smirnov. 275 pp. The Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Moscow. 1954.

The appearance of the first comprehensive account of Islamic studies as pursued both in imperial Russia and in the USSR is of some importance to students of Islam in general and of Islamic affairs in Tsarist and Soviet Russia in particular.

The pre- and post-revolutionary periods are treated by Mr. Smirnov at approximately equal length, and the principal works as well as the theoretical and political approach of each period are examined in considerable detail. The book describes many works produced in both periods, which are little known to, or at any rate seldom referred to by, Western writers on Islam; and it pays unwonted tribute to many pre-revolutionary writers and scholars who, in spite of their inevitably "bourgeois" standpoint, collected valuable factual and critical material with which, in the author's opinion, Soviet scholars can ill afford to dispense. The author lays repeated emphasis on the fundamentally hostile attitude of the present regime towards Islam as a religion, and also as constituting an unrepresentative and reactionary culture artificially developed and exploited both by native "ruling classes" and by Russian and foreign "imperialists".

The bibliographical value of the book is considerable, but the author specifically renounces any claim to provide a bibliography of Russian works on Islam. Indeed, no bibliographical note is appended, and the brief index is merely of the names of the principal writers mentioned in the text.

The present analysis is designed to indicate the general scope of the book. It is not in any sense a critical review, and all the opinions expressed are either those of the author or of the writers and others whom he quotes. The first part of the analysis deals with the first half of the book relating to pre-revolutionary studies. The second part, which will appear in the next issue of Central Asian Review deals with post-revolutionary studies (1918-1950).

Author's preface

In the teaching of Marxism-Leninism great importance is attached to the exposure of the social function of religion as part of the "superstructure" of class society, and the pronouncements made by Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin on the subject of Islam point to the need for Soviet scholars to subject to critical examination everything written on the subject in Russia both before and after the Revolution. "The study of Islam conducted by the Russian bourgeoisie covered a great deal of ground and has bequeathed many works containing a rich store of factual material and many valuable observations and conclusions of genuine scientific significance. One aim of the present work is therefore the selection of what is of interest to Soviet historical science in its task of demonstrating the social function of Islam in the history of the peoples of the East and of combatting its survivals in our country."

Lenin emphasized the importance of studying the works of "bourgeois" writers on religion, but considered them to be impregnated with prejudice and subservience to "bourgeois ideology". This applies to the majority of "bourgeois" students of Islam, whose works are "characterized by complete ignorance of the material and economic basis of the historical process and by an endeavour to explain the origins and spread of Islam by the activities of prominent personalities to explain them only as the result of a struggle in the realm of ideas."

The second aim of the book is "to expound the new element introduced into the Soviet study of Islam, to describe its achievements and also the main points in which it differs from its bourgeois counterpart, that is, in its methodology and in the definition of its aims." "On the basis of Marxist-Leninist theory Soviet scholars are able to expose all the unscientific and idealistic theories of foreign bourgeois students of Islam and at the same time to detect the errors which have found their way into the works of certain Soviet historians and philosophers dealing with questions relating to Islam."

In the period following the Revolution the counter-revolutionary forces united with "reactionary religious elements" in their fight against the Soviet regime. In defining the Party's aim of destroying the link between these two forces, Lenin insisted on the need for the widest possible scientific anti-religious propaganda. "At the same time," he said, "care must be taken to avoid giving offence to the feelings of believers, for this might merely strengthen their religious fanaticism." In these circumstances, the publication of books explaining the origin of religion and unmasking the "pseudo-scientific" character of "bourgeois" writings on the subject was - and still is - a matter of prime importance.

The "imperialists", and most of all the "American monopolists", still use religion as a means of justifying their racial and "anti-human" policy, directed as this is against "peace, democracy, culture and progress." In the East they make great play with such organizations as the Egyptian Muslim Brotherhood. "The Muslim hierarchy in many countries of the non-Soviet Orient live at peace with the colonial regime."

It is the duty of all Soviet historians to spare no effort in laying bare these principles and designs of "imperialism", and to wage unceasing war against the survivals of capitalism represented by Islam, survivals which, in the words of Malenkov at the XIXth Party Session, "will not die out of themselves, are very much alive and may grow." According to Stalin, "the Party cannot be neutral towards religion and will conduct anti-religious propaganda against each and every religious prejudice."

The author explains that in compiling the first part he has relied mostly on books and has had only occasional recourse to periodicals. He has, however, made a thorough examination of the articles, notes and reviews on the subject written by "the revolutionary democrats", who played an important part in developing Russian social thought. In the second part he has drawn extensively on magazine material as well as on books.

Chapter I

Material on Islam in Written Russian Records of the Feudal Period

(A) Information about Islam in ancient Russia (11th-13th centuries)

The earliest information about the East which reached the Russian people relates to the Kiev period and was compiled not only from Greek writings but also from descriptions of travellers and as a result of the direct intercourse between the Russian people and their nomad neighbours. The influence of the Christian church being paramount at that time, interest was largely concentrated on the Islamic and Jewish religions as possible rivals of Christianity.

For details of Russian chronicles referring to Islam during this period reference is made to Krachkovskii's book Outline of the History of Russian-Arabic Studies (1950). These chronicles were concerned principally with the morals, customs and beliefs of eastern peoples and included some critical accounts of the prophet Muhammad, then known as "Bokhmich" or "Bakhmet". Foreign travel by Russians virtually came to an end during the Mongol invasion of the thirteenth century.

(B) Information about Islam in the Russian chronicles of the 14th-15th centuries

The wars between the Russian people and the Mongols and nomads, who often fought under the banner of Islam, greatly increased the interest taken by the Russians in the Muslim religion. This interest increased still further after the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. The history written during this period reflected "the ideology of the ruling class", the formation of which had been strongly influenced by "the clerical element".

During the fourteenth century eastern travel was renewed in spite of the conquest of the Balkans and Constantinople by the Turks. Most of the travellers were merchants, the principal of them being Atanasii Nikitin whose book Travels beyond Three Seas (edition published by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in 1948) is a work of great importance.

At the end of the fifteenth century a large number of translations from foreign languages on the subject of Islam began to appear. These included descriptions of the Holy Cities of Mecca and Medina and of the life of Muhammad.

(C) Material about Islam in Russian literature from the end of the 15th to the first half of the 18th centuries

During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the Russian State entered into direct trade and diplomatic relations with the Ottoman Empire and with the Safavid rulers of Azerbaijan and Persia; attempts were also made to establish friendly relations with the Mogul Empire in India. Interest in Islamic countries correspondingly increased, and to the accounts of travellers were added the reports of diplomatic envoys. A considerable amount of source material is contained in the Complete Collection of Russian Chronicles including particularly the so-called Russkii Khronograf. The subjects treated in the latter include the life and exploits of Timur and the early history of the Turks. In some of the chronicles reference is made to two prophets - "Moamed" and "Bakhmet" as if they were separate persons.

During the seventeenth century, the aggressive policy pursued by Turkey against Russia caused the Russians to pay particular attention to the study of the religion and characteristics of their enemy. Much of the literature written during this period is therefore concerned with Islam as practised in the Turkish Empire.

"Long before Peter I, whose name is generally associated with the development of Russian knowledge about the East, descriptions of Islam can be found in chronicles, travel literature and other works based on Russian as well as foreign sources These works reflect the

interest of the ruling classes and the Church, and tend to criticize Muslim beliefs as 'false' and as opposed to the 'truth' of the Christian religion. Nevertheless, they in no sense advocate intolerance or demand the persecution or destruction of Islam, widespread as it was among the many people which constituted the Russian State."

The stimulus given by Peter I to oriental and Islamic studies was considerable. In 1702 a special school was established for the study of eastern languages. The first translation of the Koran was produced and other works such as Dmitri Kantemir's The System and Structure of the Muhammedan Religion (Petersburg, 1722) were compiled by royal command. The religious mission established in Peking as a consequence of the treaty with China in 1689 carried out extensive research into the practice of Islam in the western and southern provinces of China "and the scientific and practical value of their work has by no means been exhausted."

(D) The study of Islam in the second half of the 18th and the first half of the 19th centuries

From the second half of the eighteenth century the feudal system in Russia began to experience a crisis. A bourgeoisie and an intelligentsia emerged and this gave a fillip to the development of social and political life. The foundations of the materialist tradition were laid by Lomonosov and Radishchev, the latter paying particular attention to the peoples of the East. Although all writing on Islam was still powerfully influenced by the Church, there were some instances of "progressive" thought. In 1769, for example, a professor of philosophy, Anichkov, developed the notion that "the combination in a single person of temporal and spiritual power is a sign not of heavenly grace, but of the age of barbarism." The "progressive" trend in oriental studies increased still further after the victory of 1812, particularly among university youth. This trend was stimulated by the eastern campaigns and by the annexation of Georgia, Azerbaijan and eastern Armenia. Notable works were those of Bronevskii on the Caucasus, Khanykov on the Khanate of Bukhara (1843) and of Bichurin on the peoples inhabiting Central Asia in ancient times (1851). There was a decline in "progressive" thought during the oppressive reign of Nicholas I, when the work of orientalists clearly reflected "the official point of view" and "the convictions of the clerical element". The Imitations of the Koran written by Pushkin when in exile was the first literary production which introduced Russian people to the Koran.

The works of Professor Berezin are singled out for special attention. Although Berezin recognized Islam as an obstacle to progress, he failed to appreciate the political significance of Muridism, that is the movement developed by Shamil in the Caucasus. He wrongly regarded Muridism as something opposed to Islam and failed to understand that it was "encouraged by Turkey and Britain". In common with other contemporary writers

he missed the essential point of Muridism which was its "reactionary character" and the extent to which it resulted in the extinction of the individual and the entire subjection of the murid to his imam and ultimately to the Khalif, that is, the Sultan of Turkey. Nevertheless, all these writers provide a rich store of factual material which well repays study.

The anti-religious attitude developed by the "revolutionary democrats", Belinskii, Herzen, Chernyshevskii, Dobrolyubov and Pisarev between 1840 and 1860 is treated in detail. Of these it was Dobrolyubov who was principally concerned with Islam. In his critical review of Washington Irving's Life of Mahomet he developed the theory that "it is not personality which is the mainspring of historical events." In an article entitled "The Significance of our recent Action in the Caucasus" Dobrolyubov described Muridism in a way "much more accurate and more penetrating than the works of several Soviet historians." In particular, Dobrolyubov considered that "Muridism was in no sense a new religion. It was the Islamic doctrine which had long been known to the mountaineers (of the Caucasus) but which until then had not been practised by them." In the conclusion of this article he declares that "from the facts which the history of the Caucasus recalls to us it is clear that it was not the fortuitous appearance of personalities like Shamil, nor even the strict doctrine of Muridism which caused the revolt of the mountaineers against the Russians. The basic reason was the hatred of Russian domination."

Of great importance are the works of the Azataijani, Mirza Fathali Akhundov (1812-1878), who came out strongly against Islam and its clogging effect on progress, and in favour of the Russian connection. Another outstanding figure was Chokan Valikhanov (1835-1865), a Kazakh educated in Omsk, who began to criticize the role of Islam in Central Asia before it came under Tsarist control. Another Kazakh critic of Islam was Ibrahim Altynsarin (1841-1889).

"In their scientific importance, Dobrolyubov's works on eastern themes, and the pronouncements of other revolutionary democrats, including Akhundov, are immeasurably superior to the works of many noted European and American orientalist and specialists on Islam written during the same period."

The great significance of the works of Dobrolyubov and Akhundov consists in the fact that in Russian scientific literature they mark the first new approach to the solution of the problem of the origin of Islam as a religion.

Chapter II

The Study of Islam in the Capitalist Period (1860-1890)

(A) K. Marx and F. Engels on Islam

In this brief section some account is given of the references to Islam found in the works of Marx and Engels. Their conclusions are summed up in a quotation from Engel's work An introduction to the history of early Christianity. "Islam is a religion adapted to the inhabitants of the East and particularly to the Arabs, that is to say, on one hand to the town-dwellers occupied in trade and industry, and on the other to the nomad Bedouin. But in this lies the embryo of periodically recurring clashes. The town-dwellers grow rich, abandon themselves to luxury and become negligent in the observance of 'the law'. The Bedouins, on the other hand, are poor and in consequence of their poverty, are strict in the observance of the moral code, and regard these riches and luxuries with hatred and disgust. They then unite under the leadership of some prophet (Mahdi) in order to punish the traitors, to re-establish respect for the ceremonies and the true faith, and by way of retribution to acquire for themselves the wealth of dissidents. Naturally, after about a hundred years they are discovered in exactly the same position as were formerly the dissidents; a new clarification of the faith becomes necessary, a new prophet arises, and the game begins afresh Obscured by the panoply of religion, all these movements merely arise from economic causes. But even when the movements are victorious they leave untouched the previous economic conditions."

Marx and Engels attributed "the exploitation" of religion by the "bourgeoisie" to the fact that religion suggested to the toiling masses the inevitable existence of a ruling and enslaving class and promised those who fell under its yoke a reward in heaven for their sufferings on earth.

(B) The study of Islam 1860-1890

The development of capitalism and the accentuation of class differences had their effect on Russian culture and scholarship, and also on Russian oriental studies. Although the government directed these studies along channels which would further the interest of Tsarism and its colonial policy, and relied upon "idealistic" philosophy and religion, Russian scholarship nevertheless evinced a "progressive" tendency based on a solid materialist tradition. Many of the works produced in this period displayed an acquaintance with Marxism. Since, however, the government feared and discouraged "the culture of the people," writers who strove towards a better understanding of oriental peoples were dissuaded from studying the contemporary East and its political, economic and cultural problems. Many of them displayed a prejudiced and

hostile attitude towards eastern peoples professing Islam, and regarded them as being a lower order. "They seldom took into account the fact that Islam had not retained the form which it had assumed between the seventh and ninth centuries but had followed a tortuous process of adapting itself to the requirements of feudal class rule in the countries of the East."

The principal works of such eminent Russian orientalists as Grigorev, Kazembek, Rozen, Sablukov, Tornau, Pozdneyev, Segal and Zhukovskii are described. In general, the merits of these works lie in the factual material which the writers collected in the course of their studies and travels rather than in any "scientific" light which they threw on the political and social functions of Islam. A book by the "philosopher and mystic" Vladimir Solovyev entitled Mahomet, his life and religious teaching is found to be without any factual merit and indeed wholly pernicious. This work, which was favourably received by "the reactionary classes", was based throughout on a "blind faith in God" and in the divine mission of the Prophet. "It was hostile to the materialist explanation of religion and could thus have only the most harmful effect on the study of Islam". The opinion expressed by Academician Bartold that Solovyev's is "the best biography of Muhammed in the Russian language" was an error due to the "idealistic" standpoint from which Bartold regarded the historical process.

As examples of "the tendentious literature which was deprived of any scientific importance and which served as an instrument of the policy of russification conducted by Tsarism among eastern peoples" the titles are quoted of the twenty-one collections and the twenty-five separate publications which appeared between 1853 to 1898 under the auspices of the "missionary and anti-Muslim department" of the Kazan Religious Academy.

Although during the second half of the nineteenth century "bourgeois" scholars, equipped as they were with an excellent knowledge of eastern languages and mediaeval history, made an important contribution on problems relating to Islam and its various sects, their works are marred by their religious and "idealistic" approach and by their "metaphysical" view of nature. This attitude and these views were vigorously opposed by the "progressive" element represented by the "revolutionary democrats". In general it must be admitted that "in the theoretical field, Russian oriental studies relating to the history of the East, and more particularly to Islam, lagged seriously behind the general level of Russian science."

Chapter III

The Study of Islam during the Period of Imperialism (1895-1917)

The first part of this chapter is taken up with an exposition of the teaching and pronouncements of Lenin and Stalin on the subject of religion and national culture. Their teaching consistently emphasized the need for an unrelenting fight against established religions and for the development of "those undeveloped elements of democratic and socialist culture which exist in every national culture in the same way as in every nation there are exploited masses whose living conditions inevitably give birth to democratic and socialist ideology." At the same time Lenin is quoted as saying that "the atheist propaganda of social democracy must be subordinated to its basic task - the development of the class war of the exploited masses against the exploiters."

"For eastern peoples, who are still under the yoke of their feudal rulers, landowners and bourgeoisie and of the Muslim religion which supports them, these pronouncements of Lenin are of the first importance. They underline with special force and conviction the role of clericalism as a tried instrument in the hands of the exploiting classes."

During the "imperialist period", the wars conducted by the Tsarist regime against the movement for national liberation are generally reflected in Russian "bourgeois" historiography. The literature dealing with Islam falls broadly speaking into two groups: to the first group belong the works of such writers as Ostroumov, Cherevanskii and Tsvetkov, who adhered to the "monarchic and reactionary camp" supported by the government and the Church; they were first and foremost active supporters of the colonial regime and were closely connected with missionary circles. To the second group belong such writers as Rozen, Bartold, Zhukovskii and Mednikov. These were scholars who represented the "so-called academic orientalism" and occupied a "non-political" position. They shared the philosophical and historical conceptions "typical of the liberal-bourgeois idealistic historians."

As regards the works of the second group of writers, the most striking feature is their misunderstanding of "the objective regularity of the historical process, their representation of the state as a force standing above all classes, their complete ignorance of the position of the peoples' masses and the class war, and their incorrect presentation of the role of Islam and of religious figures in the history of eastern peoples." In spite of this, many of their works, and especially those of Bartold, contain evidence of profound scholarship, as well as a vast store of factual material which throws light on a number of matters relating to Islam, and especially to its various sects. Of particular value to Soviet historians is the bibliographical work produced by Bartold, Krymskii, and Krachkovskii. The work of Krachkovskii,

however, has the defect common to many "bourgeois" writers of tending to concentrate on the work of foreign orientalists and of minimizing the importance of the work done by Russians.

Before considering the work of the political writers belonging to the first group, and also that of V.V. Bartold, the greatest of Russian orientalists, who straddled the "imperialist" and Soviet periods, the works of some of the writers in the second group are examined in detail. Although Rozen did not himself produce any great works on Islam apart from a telling criticism of the anti-Muslim literature emanating from the Religious Academy of Kazan, he inspired considerable creative activity in his brilliant pupils Mednikov, A.E. Shmidt, Shebunin and Krachkovskii. Those of their works described in detail include Shmidt's Outline of the History of Islam as a Religion which appeared in the magazine Mir Islama (The World of Islam), and the numerous books produced by Krymskii. The latter, in spite of his great erudition, was unable to determine the position of Islam in the historical destiny of the peoples of the East; and he was even less able to expose its "class significance". This was because for Krymskii, "religion was not an ideological superstructure with a clearly expressed class character, but a kind of force which stood above class and which served as almost the only standard of political, economic and cultural maturity of the people. For Krymskii there was not and could not be any social life for the people outside religion."

Of considerable interest is the literature on the Babis and Behais produced by such writers as Batyushkov, Umanets, Zhukovskii, and Bakulin. But some of these writers, and particularly Bakulin, failed to grasp that "there was a vast difference between the teaching of the Bab, which was clearly directed against the unjust feudal regime, and the teaching of Behaullah, which excluded every kind of political element from its preaching and advocated class-peace and an uncomplaining subordination to the authorities. Unaware that Babism and Behaism were two entirely different doctrines, Bakulin tried to prove that the murder of Shah Nasreddin could not have been the work of the Babis. After Bakulin's death, Zhukovskii collated and edited the material which Bakulin had collected on Behaism and which included a supposed autograph letter written by Kurret-al-Ain.

Another sect of Islam which attracted the attention of Russian orientalists was that of the Ismailis, notable writers on this subject being Bobrinskii and Semenov. In 1912 the latter published in Mir Islama an interesting article on the religious beliefs of the Ismailis of Shugnan.

Other works of outstanding importance were Kazanskii's Mysticism in Islam (Samarkand, 1906) and K. Smirnov's The Persians: An Outline of the Religion of Persia (Tiflis, 1915). Kazanskii concluded that

Dervishism constitutes the most negative phenomenon in the religious life of the people of the East; but this conclusion "did not permit him completely to expose Sufism, Dervishism, or Muridism which constitute not only the most repulsive and reactionary phenomena in the religious life of eastern peoples, hotbeds of vice, obscurantism and ignorance but an instrument of the social subjection of the masses which was directed by the more reactionary social forces." Smirnov's book contains a great deal of interesting material taken from Persian sources, but "his opinions on Islam and the Shariat are extremely primitive and demonstrate the extent to which he was influenced by foreign sources." Smirnov also produced a work entitled The Dervishes and their Political Role, which was published in the bulletin of the headquarters of the Caucasian Military District.

After the failure of the first Russian revolution of 1905, Tsarism mustered all its forces to meet the growing opposition of the Communist Party and the Russian proletariat. Much of the literature on Islam produced at this time reflected the official fear of the danger which was supposed to lie in wait for Russia from the direction of the awakening forces of Islam. An example of this official point of view is afforded by Cherevanskii's The World of Islam and its Awakening. In this book, "the author says that by Islam we must understand not some kind of independent religion, but merely a religious and political institution which lays claim to a universality not possessed by any other of the world's religions." Throughout he persists in regarding Islam as a religion inferior to Christianity and asserts that "so long as the Koran remains 'the sole educational guide in the world of Islam', no hope can be entertained of its awakening or of its sincere rapprochement with Christendom." Statements like this which conceal the "colonial designs of Tsarism" are typical of the literature on Islam reflecting "the ideology of the ruling circles during the imperialist period."

Another book of somewhat similar character is the four-volume work of Tsvetkov on Islamism. This book does, however, contain much interesting material compiled during the author's long sojourn in Central Asia.

An important representative "of the Tsarist colonial administration in Central Asia was N. T. Ostroumov who was a fervent promoter of the Tsarist policy directed towards the destruction of every vestige of nationhood among the non-Russian peoples, the suppression of their culture, the limitation of the development of their languages, the perpetuation of their ignorance, and finally, towards russianizing them to the greatest possible degree. . . . Ostroumov's numerous works on Islam published between 1912 and 1916 are characterized by his religious outlook, the absence of any critical approach to the literature which he used, his slight acquaintance with new scientific research, and his ignorance of original sources of material."

The works of "one of the most outstanding representatives of Russian bourgeois orientalism", Academician V.V. Bartold (1869-1930) are examined at considerable length. "His works on the history of the East, written both before and after the great October Socialist Revolution, are of very great interest and bear witness to the fact that in his person Russian orientalism possessed one of the most outstanding scholars of world stature." His vast erudition and experience enabled him to produce many works which are of lasting importance to Soviet students of Islamic subjects. "But although twelve years of Bartold's life were passed under the Soviet regime, and although during this time he worked honestly and unselfishly as a scholar, and created a whole series of works on the ancient history of many eastern peoples of the Soviet Union, he nevertheless was and remained a scholar of the bourgeois oriental school. Bartold perceived that peasant movements in the East often had a religious tinge; but he did not take into account the fact that this tinge was not at all due to the religious requirements of the peasants, for whom Islam served in the event merely as an emblem of their struggle against their task-masters. Far removed as he was from the materialist conception of history, Bartold did not regard Islam as a form of ideology and he did not depict it in the light of definite social relationships. He was thus unable to distinguish the class character of Islam, or the fact that it always and everywhere serves as an instrument of exploitation and coercion of the toiling masses. He did not attribute any importance to the fact that the ruling classes of eastern feudal society in all its historical phases, and also the ruling classes of Tsarist Russia, consistently supported Islam and the Muslim clerical element, and used them as an instrument with which to enslave the masses."

Bartold paid much attention to the "modernist" movement in the Muslim world. He held that this was directed on the one hand against European attacks on Islam and Muslim culture, and on the other, against the old-style believers who wished to conserve the mediaeval features of the Muslim way of life. "Even at the present time Bartold's researches into the relationship between the power of the Khalif and the Sultan are of great scientific importance. This is particularly true of his study of the 'provocational' intrigues of the pan-Islamic organization controlled by reactionary elements in eastern countries, which operates to the advantage of the American and British imperialists trying to turn the countries of the Near and Middle East into colonies."

One of the less well-known pre-revolutionary works of Bartold described in this chapter is his study of the Marvanid sect of Islam, which he based on Semenov's article on the religious beliefs of the Ismailis of Shugnan (mentioned above). (Description of Bartold's post-revolutionary works is reserved for the second half of the book.)

During the second half of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries a number of societies were formed in Russia with the object of promoting oriental study. But none of these met official requirements; and accordingly in 1900 the Imperial Oriental Institute was created with the declared object of "acquainting Russian society with the material needs and spiritual life of the East, and also of promoting closer relations between Russia and eastern countries." In 1912, this Institute produced the first number of a journal entitled Mir Islama (The World of Islam). The object of this journal, as defined by its first editor, Bartold, was strictly academic and as such failed to gain the approval of the authorities. One statesman declared that "if we need anything scientific, we can find it in foreign publications." In 1913 the editorship of Mir Islama was assumed by Pozdneyev and its academic character was largely obscured by its preoccupation with contemporary Islamic problems such as pan-Islamism and pan-Turanianism, which was considered more in line with official requirements. In 1915 Bartold started another journal entitled Musulmanskii Mir (The Muslim World) which reverted to the purely academic programme of Mir Islama by whose original staff it was principally controlled.

Other journals concerned with Islamic matters which appeared during this period were Vostochnyi Sbornik (Oriental Collection), of which only two issues appeared in 1913 and 1916, and Srednyaya Aziya (Central Asia) published in Tashkent in 1910.

In spite of its political, ideological and religious bias and many other limitations, "Russian bourgeois orientalism has bequeathed to Soviet historians much that is good. It brought to the front important specialists on Islamic affairs who created a whole series of useful works representing a valuable store of scientific material. These include in the first place works devoted to the study of Caucasian Muridism, Muslim sectarianism, in particular the sects of the Babis and Ismailis, works on Muslim law, and finally, research on the theocratic character of the temporal power of the Sultans and Khalifs. Works by Russian authors on Islam in China (P. Kafarov, V. Vasilyev), on Central Asia and the Caucasus constitute a great acquisition for the study of the history, way of life and religious beliefs of the people of the East.

"In all these works there is collected and arranged a vast store of factual material, and many particular problems of Islam are propounded and explained. They constitute a useful and indispensable store for Soviet science and can be made real use of by Soviet research workers provided these apply to them a strictly critical appreciation of the general theoretical conceptions arising out of the bourgeois-idealistic outlook of their authors."

TECHNICAL CROPS

Introduction - Bast crops - Opium poppy - Tobacco.

In Soviet terminology "technical crops" is a generic term for cotton, sugar-beet, bast crops, poppy and tobacco. In the present article reference will only be made to the last three.

Technical crops are grown in all the republics of Central Asia. But whereas considerable attention is devoted by the local press to the cultivation of cotton and sugar-beet, references to bast crops, poppies and tobacco are scanty and infrequent, and the little information that has appeared was mostly published at the end of 1953 in a few short articles almost entirely devoted to descriptions of agricultural methods.

The figures given, however, show that in Kazakhstan the area under technical crops increased threefold between 1913 and 1940, and that at present it covers five per cent of the total arable land of the republic. In Kirgizia, the cultivation of technical crops has, over the years, acquired increasing importance, and today, with horse-breeding, represents the two branches of Kirgiz agriculture which have an all-Union significance. In the period 1913-1950 the area under technical crops was extended by 300 per cent.

Bast crops

Jute, hemp and kenaf (*hibiscus cannabinus*) are grown in Central Asia, and of the three the most commonly grown appears to be kenaf. This is a one-year bast plant of the Malvaceae family; its stem is from three and a half to four metres high and has a diameter of eight to twenty millimetres at the base. The kenaf fibre, which is generally yellow or brown in colour, is from one to two metres in length and has a breaking strain of twenty-five to thirty kilograms. It is usually sown after grain crops or perennial grasses; several varieties, adapted to the soils and climatic conditions of the different areas of cultivation, are found in the Soviet Union.

The cultivation of kenaf in Central Asia dates from the middle of the nineteenth century. At present it is grown in various parts of the Soviet Union and especially in Kirgizia and Uzbekistan, the intention being to use it as a substitute for jute and so to obviate the need for imports. Today, after India, the Soviet Union claims to be the largest kenaf-growing country in the world.

Kenaf is grown for a number of purposes. The grains contain up to twenty per cent of oil which is used in the curing of leather and in soap and varnish manufacture. The stem serves as fodder, and the fibre goes to the making of canvas, ropes, fishing nets, insulating plates for the building industry, low-grade paper, and especially sugar bags; these, however, are said to be less durable than those made from jute.

In Kirgizia, kenaf, Indian hemp, and kendyr (a local fibre plant) are grown very largely in the Chu valley and to a small extent also in the Talass and Issyk-Kul valleys. Most of the processes involved in the cultivation and harvesting of kenaf are now mechanized, and fibre-processing plants exist in Frunze and Tokmak. A decorticator is used to separate the bast from the stem, and the fibre is extracted by special brake-scutching machines designed by N.N. Mishin. In 1953 a number of water reservoirs covering a total area of 40,000 sq. metres were used in the hope that a greater quantity of stems could be soaked at a time and thus speed up and increase delivery to the scutching machines. This hope, it seems, has been amply fulfilled as in the first half of 1953 the processing plants of the Kirgiz Lub Trust exceeded by 100,000 tons their output for the same period in 1952; moreover, the improvement in technique has resulted in a saving of over a million rubles.

In Uzbekistan the processing and cultivation of bast crops exhibit widely varying degrees of achievement. New jute and kenaf mills have gone into production at Chimbai, Dzhabai, Churchinsk and Verkhne-Chirchik; two mills are being built in Kara-Kalpakia and one at Dzhuma-Bazar in the Tashkent oblast. In spite of this, however, the area under bast crops in the republic as a whole is less than stipulated and yields are low. In the Verkhne-Chirchik, Nizhne-Chirchik, Dzhabai and Chimbai raions where the cultivation of bast crops is primarily concentrated, yields were only half the set norms in 1952 and were lower still in 1953. There are, however, exceptions: the Pravda kolkhoz in the Verkhne-Chirchik raion produced an average of eighty-five centners per hectare during 1952.

The causes behind the general state of low production were laid bare in an article which appeared on 27th June 1953. "The high prices paid by the government and new agricultural techniques can make the cultivation of bast crops a highly profitable line of kolkhoz production," wrote a correspondent, "but in order to succeed it must be carried out in conditions of specialization and strict observance of all the processes. On account of this many kolkhoz managers of the Dzhabai and Chimbai raions have adopted a recalcitrant attitude and are trying to oppose the cultivation of bast crops by growing cotton. Finding that the cultivation of bast crops was falling off and, in some cases, was completely neglected, the Samarkand oblast Party committee decided without the consent of the Uzbek Council of Ministers to plant cotton

in areas of the Dzhambai raion earmarked for bast crops. This in fact was done; but the people responsible went unpunished and were not even rebuked. On the lands where bast crops are still cultivated the work is carried out slowly and perfunctorily, and in five days only 300-400 hectares are tended. The threat to the jute and hemp plantations in the Dzhambai raion does not perturb either the workers or the raion officials; but the position is grave and unless strict and immediate measures are taken the Dzhambai mills will be short of raw materials in 1954."

That efforts are being made to raise the output of bast crops is obvious from a report of 14th February 1954: at a conference of agricultural representatives, it was stipulated that in future not less than thirty-six centners of jute stems, forty centners of kenaf and twelve centners of tobacco must be collected from every hectare under cultivation.

In Turkmenistan, according to press reports published in December 1953, the area under jute has grown by thirty per cent since 1952, but there has been no corresponding increase in gross yields which, in fact, have dropped considerably. Thus in 1951 the jute-growing kolkhozes of the republic fulfilled 74.4 per cent of the production plan, and in 1952 only 57.8 per cent. Conditions appeared to be particularly bad in the Sayatsk raion where even the leading kolkhozes such as the Kalinin fulfilled only 45 per cent of the plan whereas others achieved even less - the Telman kolkhoz 18 per cent and the Engels 17 per cent. The quality of the fibre was also extremely low and because of the poor prices paid many of the kolkhozes found themselves in financial difficulties.

Various explanations were put forward for the failure to reach the set targets. It was pointed out, for instance, that not enough workers were allotted to jute cultivation and as a result much of the work was done in a dilatory and haphazard manner, irrigation was irregularly carried out and different quality stems were all banded together and left lying in the fields so that they darkened and further depreciated in value. Another reason was the absence of any control by the kolkhoz management, and the lack of specialists to advise on problems arising from the cultivation of the plant. "None of this," wrote a correspondent, at the time, "seems to disturb the equanimity of the officials."

Conditions must, however, have improved for reports in March of this year stated that in the Tashauz raion yields were good and that in the artel Sotsializm, thirty-five centners of jute and thirty-six of kenaf per hectare were not uncommon. Moreover, a second jute mill was being built near the new Chardzhou - Urgench railway line, and it was hoped to start production by the beginning of 1955.

Opium poppy

The cultivation of the poppy plant for opium and opium alkaloids such as morphine, codeine and some three thousand other medicines, is a relatively new venture in the Soviet Union. In the past Russia depended to a large extent on the import of drugs from Germany and it was only during the First World War that the scarcity of opium derivatives for use at the front became so acute that immediate steps had to be taken to grow the poppy plant on a sufficiently large scale in those parts of Central Asia where suitable climatic conditions prevailed. In Kirgizia the cultivation of the opium poppy was first started in 1916 by the Uighurs and Dungans who had migrated thither from China bringing with them the age-old methods of poppy cultivation used by the Chinese. Soviet agronomists, however, regard both the methods and traditional tools of the Dungans as obsolete and wasteful. New methods have therefore been worked out by the Przhevalsk Experimental Station; it has been found, for instance, that irrigation through a system of furrows is more suitable than flooding the poppy field, and that the application of superphosphates in the form of granules results in a fifty to seventy-five per cent increase in crop yield. For the incision of the capsules special knives have been designed; each of these has several blades and a scraper.

At present the poppy is cultivated along the eastern shore of Lake Issyk-Kul, and at Dzhergalan on the Tyup river east of Przhevalsk. Lately it has been reported that poppy cultivation has been started in a number of kolkhozes of the Novo-Voznesensk raion. In the years immediately following the war and up to 1948, harvest yields of the poppy were very low. With the general adoption of the new techniques, however, yields have been increased. In April 1953, it was reported that in the Issyk-Kul area harvest yields have gone up by forty per cent since 1951, and that it is not uncommon to harvest 400,000 pods from one hectare. It is impossible to say, however, whether this increase is general, but improvement has obviously taken place. Planting is now done from selected seeds only, preference being given to the Tien Shan variety. This poppy has been evolved after considerable experimentation and is said to be many times as productive as other varieties and to have as many as thirty pods on one well-developed plant. On 21st August of this year it was reported in the press that the kolkhozes of the Issyk-Kul oblast had a large harvest and had overfulfilled the plan.

In Kazakhstan too, poppy cultivation holds an important place among technical crops and yields high profits. In the Red Banner kolkhoz of the Uighur raion, for instance, the poppy yield from twenty-one hectares gave a profit of 177,000 rubles.

Tobacco

Tobacco cultivation is the youngest of the technical crops grown in Kirgizia; all efforts are being made to extend production and tobacco growing receives considerable attention in the Five-Year Plans. There are now tobacco-processing plants at Osh and Frunze. The area of tobacco cultivation is increasing yearly and at present covers large sections of the Osh, Talass, and Dzhahalabad oblasts. In the Talass oblast, where 3,400 hectares are under tobacco, it is one of the leading branches of agriculture and accounts for sixty to eighty per cent of the profits derived from all plant growing. According to press reports attempts are now being made in this oblast to start tobacco cultivation in the mountain kolkhozes of the Budennyi raion.

After much experiment a series of methods of tobacco cultivation have been evolved which now seem to have been generally adopted. Seeds are dressed with copper sulphate or other fungicide, washed in running water, and then sown in seedbeds in hothouses in the second half of March. Seedbeds are made up of a layer of compost some forty to forty-five centimetres thick and covered over with eight to ten centimetres of earth. After germination the seedlings are top-dressed with a thin layer of sifted steam-sterilized manure, and transplanted. Transplanting generally begins at the end of April and continues until about 20th May. The soil is ploughed in early autumn. The ploughs used have coulter which form vertical cuts of not less than twenty-seven centimetres in depth. Seedlings are distributed along the ridges of the furrows at intervals of four and a half centimetres. After harvesting the leaves are dried on wooden racks. Five sorts of tobacco are made from the leaves, the first sort is said to be ten times as good as the last.

With the exception of the tobacco-growing kolkhozes in the Osh oblast, where the new techniques are said to be misused and in some cases totally ignored and where much of the work is still being done by hand, the results on the whole are good. Judging by the figures quoted, the new Five-Year Plan, which envisages a fivefold increase in gross yield and a sharp improvement in quality, is well on the way to being fulfilled. It is pointed out, for instance, that whereas in the Talass oblast the average yield was five centners per hectare in 1952, that is, less than half the set norm of 11.9 centners, in 1953 it was 12.5 centners, and that there were 4,400 centners more yellow aromatic tobacco than in 1952.

Of the individual kolkhozes, the Kalinin of the Kirov raion has come in for special praise. In this kolkhoz over 122 m. leaves were grown, sorted and dried in 1953, and the earnings of the workers ranged from 2,500 to 5,555 rubles. Another tobacco-growing centre singled out by the press is the sovkhos Kirgizia. Here the average yield was

20.5 centners per hectare in 1953. Increased yields are also reported from the Pokrovka, Leninopol, Naukat, and Yangi-Naukat raions. In 1953, one and a half times more first quality tobacco than stipulated was delivered to the tobacco-processing plants of the republic.

In Kazakhstan too tobacco growing is a profitable branch of agriculture, and yields and the resulting profits are constantly on the increase. Tobacco is cultivated in the southern oblasts of Kazakhstan particularly in the Alma-Ata, Dzhabul and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts. In comparison with 1941 the total area under tobacco is said to have gone up by twenty-six per cent by 1953. In 1952, the Lenin artel of the Enbekshi-Kazakh raion of the Alma-Ata oblast exceeded its delivery target by 106.6 per cent and its profits amounted to 233,000 rubles. In the Voroshilov kolkhoz of the Chilisk raion, profits amounted to 420,000 rubles.

On the other hand, considering the extension of the area under tobacco, yields as a whole are less than was hoped for, and in 1952, contrary to expectation, the government received less than twice the amount of tobacco it did in 1941. The reasons given are that the direction of the Ministry of Agriculture is faulty, that many kolkhoz managers underestimate the importance of this culture and that as a result, even the elementary requirements are ignored and the different processes involved in tobacco cultivation are often not carried out on time. Thus for instance, the sowing of seeds in hotbeds is done twenty days behind schedule and the transplanting a month late. Another reason is that few workers are allotted to tobacco cultivation: it has been established that for every two hectares five men are needed in order that the work may be properly carried out in accordance with the approved techniques. Yet in most of the agricultural artels, five workers are allotted to every four hectares, and in the Chilisk raion, the average is one worker for every two hectares.

At the Nineteenth Party Congress, it was laid down that in the current Five-Year Plan the gross yield of tobacco would have to be increased by 65 to 70 per cent. To approximate this figure it was stated that the Party cells and managerial boards of artels and kolkhozes must tighten their control and improve methods, and the average yield per hectare must be brought up to 13.2 centners.

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U Z B E K I S T A N

M E C H A N I C A L E N G I N E E R I N G I N D U S T R Y

Introduction - Agricultural machinery - Textile machinery - Machinery for the chemical industry - Other mechanical engineering plants - Future development.

Development of industry in Uzbekistan began with the first Five-Year Plan. In 1929 the construction of an engineering works was started at Tashkent, and this plant became the first in the Soviet Union to manufacture machinery for the cotton industry. In the years that followed a number of other industrial plants were established in Uzbekistan; these included a ball-bearing plant, an excavator works, and motor-repair workshops. By 1940 the total output of the mechanical engineering industry of Uzbekistan was said to be fifty times greater than that of 1913 and its value reached 170 m. rubles.

During the Second World War, as a result of the evacuation of many industrial plants from the western regions of the USSR which were under German occupation, the industries of Uzbekistan were greatly expanded. Many new large plants were formed and most of the existing ones received additional machinery and equipment from the evacuated industries.

Today there are over three hundred metallurgical and engineering factories in Uzbekistan ranging in importance from small repair workshops to very large mechanical engineering plants. Two thirds of the factories of Uzbekistan are situated in Tashkent or in the Tashkent oblast; here too are found the Uzbek Metallurgical Works (see C.A.R Vol. II, No. 3) the main supplier of iron and steel to the industries of Central Asia. The planned further expansion of this plant will, it is hoped, lead to a corresponding expansion in the mechanical engineering industries.

The largest of the mechanical engineering plants of Uzbekistan are directly controlled by the central ministries of the USSR. Thus the Union Ministry of Mechanical Engineering controls the Tashtekstil-mash works, the Sredazkhimmash, Tashselmash, Uzbekselmash, Chirchik-selmash, Tashkhlopkomash, Krasnii Dvigatel and the ball-bearing factories; the Union Ministry of Transport Engineering controls the Podyemnik, the excavator, and the Stroimashina factories; the Union

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Ministry of Power Stations and the Electrical Industry controls the Electro-technical works, and so on. Other smaller industries of Uzbekistan come under the corresponding local ministry.

Agricultural machinery

As Uzbekistan is the most important cotton-producing area of the USSR, it is not surprising that much of the republic's mechanical engineering is concentrated on the production of machinery for the cotton industry. The Voroshilov Tashselmash works (i.e. Voroshilov Tashkent Agricultural Machinery works) - the biggest plant in Central Asia - produces machinery for cotton cultivation and the cotton industry on a large scale. Cotton-ginning equipment and other specialized machinery are sent to all parts of the Soviet Union; cotton-picking and cotton-batting machines from this plant are used in Central Asia, Kazakhstan, and in Azerbaidzhan; specialized cotton-ginning machinery is sent to the cotton-ginning mills of Melitopol and Khartsisk in the Ukraine.

In spite of the fact, however, that many thousands of SKh-48M, SKhM-48M and SKhT-48M cotton-picking machines are produced by this plant, output is considered unsatisfactory. In 1953 the plant started production of the new improved SKhT-48M machine; but the production of these machines, so badly needed for the cotton fields of Central Asia, was much delayed during the first months of 1953 when for many months only forty per cent of the monthly output target was achieved, and less than two-thirds of the target for the first eight months of 1953 was fulfilled. In all, in 1953 the works fell short of target by failing to produce several hundred of the SKhT-48M cotton-pickers, and early in 1954 it was reported to be still behind its output quota for these machines.

Various reasons are given for the failings of this plant. Machine tools, it seems, are not used to their full advantage; there are frequent suspensions of operations in the workshops; and loading and unloading processes are not sufficiently mechanized. Another important reason for poor output is the practice of shturmovshchina or shock-work: at the Tashselmash works, according to reports, almost three-quarters of the monthly output is obtained during the last ten days of the month. Workers thus take things easy for the first twenty days and make up for it in the last ten. There is much talk about the struggle against this practice, but so far no practical measures have been taken. It is considered the duty of the local Communist Party to remedy all such defects.

The complaint is also made that the mechanical engineering industry of Uzbekistan is wasteful in its use of raw material. Thus, according to an article in Planovoye Khozyaistvo of 1954, 348 tons of wasted metal were found in the yards and workshops of the Tashselmash

in 1953, including iron sheets, rolled steel and other scrap. The same complaint is made of the Frunze Uzbekselmash works (i.e. the Frunze Uzbek Agricultural Machinery works) also situated in Tashkent. Thus in the seed-drill workshop there is an exceptionally high proportion of rejects which often reach thirty to forty per cent of output. In 1953 130 tons of wasted wire, sheet iron and other metals were found at the Uzbekselmash, and indeed, the average percentage of waste of raw materials still reaches 2.5 per cent of the value of the gross output of this plant.

The Uzbekselmash appears to be constantly behind its output target: in 1952 the works did not achieve the target, and though the position improved in 1953 only 93 per cent of the output target for that year was achieved. The manufacture of spare parts for agricultural machinery and tractors was also behind schedule early in 1954, and during 1953 and 1954 the complaint was made that a considerable number of machines ordered were not delivered on time.

There are many explanations for these shortcomings: because the Uzbekselmash is late in sending its orders for metal to the Glavmetzbyt (i.e. Main Metal Supply Agency) supplies of raw material are irregularly delivered; machine tools are seldom used to their full capacity and sometimes only to less than half their capacity; there is a lack of skilled workers in the foundry, and, as in the Tashselmash works, shock-work makes for irregular and insufficient output. Added to all these factors, the management is said to be inefficient and negligent and the Party organization careless and irresponsible. It should not be forgotten, however, that the Uzbekselmash is an important plant producing among other things cotton-sowing machines, tractor pollinators, sprayers and special machines for tree planting, and that its products are sent all over Central Asia and to the Ukraine.

Another important factory is the Chirchikselmash (i.e. Chirchik Agricultural Machinery works) situated at Chirchik. This plant manufactures cultivators, sprayers, pollinators, tractor-propelled seed-drills, and excavators, as well as other agricultural machinery. Many of its products are sent to the Ukraine. At present a cultivator of new design which hoes the soil at the same time as it spreads mineral fertilizer is being produced here. Early in 1953, however, 2,600 units of this new N-Ku-2 machine were scheduled to be produced and not a single one was ever delivered. In other ways too the Chirchikselmash was behind its target during 1953; the output of GZh, S-18 and PPO-25 machines was below plan. Early in 1954, however, the production situation began to improve at Chirchik, and spare parts for tractors and other machines are now being produced here.

Textile machinery

After agricultural machinery, one of the most important products of the mechanical engineering industry of Uzbekistan is machinery for the textile industry. The two largest textile undertakings in Uzbekistan, the Tashkent Textile Kombinat and the Fergana Textile Kombinat, are supplied with machinery by the Tashtekstil mash works (i.e. Tashkent Textile Machinery works) which specializes in the construction of fly-frames, ringspinning frames and other machines for the textile industry. The products of this plant are also sent all over the Soviet Union, to Poland, China and other "People's Democracies". But despite the fact that machines built by the Tashtekstil mash have a widespread demand the plant did not fulfil its output programme in 1953 and in 1954 was still reported to be behind schedule. Many spinning looms and coarse linen weaving looms on order have not been delivered by the plant. As a result of poor organization of work, inadequate utilization of the available machine tools and the insufficient mechanization of working processes, labour productivity has not risen according to plan. Wastage of material, it appears, is excessive, and in 1954 over thirty tons of tin-plate, black sheet, wire and iron were found at the plant.

Machinery for the chemical industry

The Sredazkhimmash works (i.e. Central Asian Chemical Machinery works) at Chirchik is an important plant producing pumps, compressors and other equipment for the chemical industry. Output at this plant is on the increase, and in 1953 the production quota was exceeded and a large quantity of machinery in addition to the planned amount was delivered. The situation continues to be favourable in 1954; the plant is at present producing three new types of compressors, and manufactures much equipment for the Ministry of Industrial and Consumer Goods and Foodstuffs, including special refrigerating installations for the fishing industry.

In spite of this satisfactory situation, however, a number of shortcomings were reported from Sredazkhimmash in 1953 and early 1954. It appears that only about half the machine tools are used to their full capacity and that production costs in 1953 exceeded the planned amount by four million rubles. The lack of qualified personnel is another difficulty; the local Party authorities are blamed for neglecting to see that the qualifications of engineers and technicians are improved. The criticism is also heard that too few women - and fewer still of native origin - are given the chance to rise to responsible positions at Chirchik. Besides which, according to Pravda Vostoka, a number of unreliable people have infiltrated themselves into the various industrial undertakings. This year, however, six hundred workers of the Sredazkhimmash are taking part

in a "socialist competition": they are pledged to increase output by several million rubles in 1954 as compared to the 1953 output, to save sixty tons of metal and to introduce two hundred rational improvements in working processes.

Other mechanical engineering plants

In addition to the branches of mechanical engineering industry described above, a number of other plants exist in Uzbekistan. In Tashkent the Podyemnik works manufactures cranes of various designs and capacities. These are sent to other industrial and transport undertakings all over the USSR; the Ekskavator works produces large numbers of various types of excavators which are employed on building and irrigation projects in Central Asia. Recently, a mining engineering works was built at Tashkent to supply cutting machines, conveyors, electric locomotives and other mining equipment to the fast expanding coal industry of Central Asia; the existing factory making mining equipment, the Ilyich works, was reconstructed and enlarged after the Second World War. Also at Tashkent are several factories making electrical equipment, and several repair plants: the Kaganovich transport mechanical engineering works repairs locomotives and wagons; the Tashkent Motor-Repair plant, formerly a small workshop is now a large industrial undertaking grouping motor repair, machine tool repair, mechanical and electrical equipment shops and a foundry. It also has facilities for repairing D-54 Diesel engines. The Avtotraktordetal works (i.e. Auto Tractor Spare Part works), run by the Ministry of Agriculture and Supply of the Uzbek SSR manufactures thirteen different types of spare parts for motor vehicles and tractors. In 1953, however, only eight out of the thirteen types of spares were being produced; this was due to the lack of precision instruments and other special tools, and to the shortage of raw materials.

There are two mechanical engineering plants at Andizhan. The Kommunar specializes in repairs to cotton-ginning equipment and also manufactures high-pressure hydro-pumps used for cotton pressing in the mills of Central Asia and Kazakhstan. The Strommashina works manufactures Diesel engines, pumps, and machines for levelling cotton fields; the plant did not achieve its output quota for spare parts, but production is generally satisfactory and in 1953 the plant over-fulfilled its production quota. Losses through waste, however, still remain high and labour productivity has not risen as planned. It is reported that the Party and trade-union organizations are not paying sufficient attention to the improvement of living conditions of the workers employed at Andizhan.

At Samarkand, the Krasnii Dvigatel works manufactures parts for tractors, and the other important plant of the town, the Kinap, produces apparatus for the cinema industry. At Kokand, the Bolshevik electro-

mechanical works manufactures and repairs certain types of equipment for the oil industry. Many other lesser undertakings exist in Uzbekistan, mostly concerned with repair work. In the rural areas the MTS and sovkhoses have their own repair shops and there are many local industries and cooperative workshops.

Future development

Since the end of the Second World War the mechanical engineering industry has expanded very considerably and is now the leading industry of Uzbekistan. The factories of the republic have been equipped with new machine tools, new complex machinery and automatic units. A considerable number of new machines are now being produced, with particular emphasis on machinery for cotton cultivation. Quality is being improved, labour productivity increased and working hours reduced by the introduction of high-speed cutting processes, high-frequency tempering and other improved techniques. The largest works now employ several thousand workers each.

Future development of the industry is envisaged along two lines: firstly the increased production of machinery already being manufactured, and secondly the development of new types of complex machinery, such as powerful excavators, scrapers, trench-diggers, trench-cleaners, deep pumps etc. The number of cotton-ginning machines to be produced is to be increased every year, as is the construction of field levelling machines. A number of new works are now under construction in the republic, and the industrialization of Uzbekistan is to be accelerated. Special attention is paid to the production of agricultural machinery and in particular of that used in the mechanization of cotton cultivation, which is the main branch of agriculture of Uzbekistan and one of the bases of the republic's economy.

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U Z B E K I S T A N

THE CONFERENCE OF HISTORIANS

Introduction - Prevalent errors - Interpretation of "nationalist" movements - Central Asia and Russia - Conference proceedings - Patriarchal feudal status of nomads - Formation of the Uzbek "bourgeois" nation - Pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism - 1916 rebellion - "Bourgeois" falsification of history - General conclusions.

In February 1954 a conference of historians was held in Tashkent to discuss problems affecting the study of the history of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan. Before the conference, on 16th January, a lengthy article in Pravda Vostoka enumerated some of the recurrent errors in the interpretation of the history of the peoples of Central Asia. Many historical problems, the article stressed, had not so far been finally elucidated, and individual historians continued to repeat grave ideological errors already condemned at the Tenth Plenary Session of the Uzbek Communist Party and at its Eleventh Conference.

Prevalent errors

One of these errors is to conduct research in each republic in isolation, and without coordination with the work of historians of other Central Asian and Union academic institutions. The history of the Uzbek people, for instance, is closely bound up with that of Central Asia as a whole and with the other Union republics. The paramount duty of Uzbek historians is therefore to make a comprehensive study of all that is common to the peoples of Central Asia and the Union as a whole, that is, the study of the struggle of the toiling masses of Central Asia towards freedom and of the progress of all the peoples of the Soviet Union, including the Uzbeks, in their march towards Communism.

There are also other vital problems which have not yet been fully or correctly studied, such as the proper classification of periods into which the history of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan should be divided, the study of the birth and development of a "bourgeois" society in Uzbekistan, the study of the "reactionary nature" of pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism (pan-Turanianism), of the feudal patriarchal system that once prevailed among the nomads of Central Asia and Kazakhstan, and last but not least the study of the 1916 rebellion in its true perspective.

The Pravda Vostoka article points out that the classification of periods as used in the second volume of the History of the peoples of Uzbekistan must be revised because it is, erroneously, based not on the various economic stages of Uzbekistan's development but on arbitrary chronological data such as the reigns of individual rulers. Further, insufficient attention is given to a definition of the specific characteristics of slavery in Central Asia. The absence of reliable written Uzbek records and the inadequate study of archaeological remains has so far made the approach to the study of slavery extremely unsatisfactory. The contributors to the first volume of the History of the Peoples of Uzbekistan, indeed, hold divergent views on the character of social relations based on slavery.

Generally speaking, many social and economic problems relating to the feudal period in Central Asia are not adequately studied, such as the development of agriculture, of irrigation and of feudal land laws. Again, not all available sources of material have yet been explored; thus while the valleys of Amu-Darya and of the lower reaches of the Zeravshan have yielded archaeological and historical data, many other regions of ancient agriculture such as the Fergana Valley and the present Tashkent and Samarkand oblasts have not yet been properly examined. In addition, historical records in foreign languages have not been thoroughly explored, and nothing has been done to make available important works compiled or written in the Middle Ages; there is no translation into Russian from the Arabic either of Biruni's famous historical treatises or of the work of Avicenna.

The interpretation of "nationalist" movements

The duty of historians, it is said, is to uproot the grave deviations in former interpretations of "nationalist" movements and to reveal the true roots of pan-Islamism, pan-Turkism and Dzhadidizm. The feudal monarchial Dzhetymhan movement in Fergana, and the Andizhan revolt of 1898 must no longer be defined as progressive national liberation movements, but as the outcome of reactionary tendencies. More penetrating research has to be done on the 1916 rebellion. Although this was in essence a popular liberation movement against the local agents of Tsarism and though in certain areas it assumed anti-feudal trends, it should never be forgotten or ignored that some of its aspects were reactionary. In the Tokmak and Przhevalsk areas, in Dzhinsk, Gurgen and in Tedzhen feudal clerical elements came to the fore with the active assistance of "foreign intelligence agents", and separatist tendencies had developed. The duty of historians is to analyse this movement from a Marxist point of view and not to retouch and gloss over its reactionary, feudal, clerical and "nationalist" aspects. Even greater problems confront historians in describing the Soviet period of Uzbekistan.

Central Asia and Russia

developments in Uzbekistan, and in particular of the evolution of "bourgeois" capitalist tendencies following the annexation of Central Asia by Russia. A tendency still persists to minimize the "progressive" character of this incorporation. In the second volume of the History of the Uzbek People, for instance, the "progressive" features of this event have hardly been touched upon, and the impact of the revolutionary forces of pre-revolutionary Russia on the peoples of Central Asia are inadequately dealt with. In short, the study and clarification of the enormous part played by the proletariat of Russia in the liberation of the peoples of Central Asia from "nationalist" and economic oppression have been neglected. A Marxist analysis of the Social, economic and cultural conditions would show that the incorporation helped to form the Uzbek people into a "bourgeois" nation, and would certainly reveal this stage in Uzbek history as a milestone on the way to Socialism.

Another article prior to the conference was written by Radzhapov, Rector of the Tadzhik State University, who reminded readers that the ties of friendship linking the peoples of Central Asia and the great Russian people dated from extreme antiquity. In the fourth century B.C. the ancient state of Khorezm had trade relations with the northern shores of the Black Sea, which later became the abode of Slav tribes. These direct contacts, and contacts through the Tatars, enriched the language of the Slav tribes of the present day Ukraine by a number of Tadzhik and Turkic words such as biryuza, izumrud, kavun, izyum, bazar, arshin, karavan, sarai, chubuk, atlass, kumach. In the fourteenth century merchants from Bukhara and Khiva traded at the fair of Nizhni Novgorod. In the sixteenth century, eight envoys with their followers visited Russian domains. In the eighteenth century, every five or six years trade envoys from Bukhara and Khiva visited Moscow, Petersburg, Orenburg and the towns of the Ukraine. In 1851 Marx wrote to Engels that it seemed Russia was to play a progressive part in the areas of the Black and Caspian Seas and in Central Asia. Today it is axiomatic that the incorporation furthered the most essential interests of the peoples of Central Asia since at the time they were threatened by West European "imperialists" and by the Afghan and Persian rulers. Indeed, they might easily have become a colonial protectorate of England. According to Marx, England in the sixties and seventies had lost its revolutionary impetus while Russia, in spite of Tsarism, had become a revolutionary force and was in the vanguard of the revolutionary movement in Europe.

Radzhapov goes on to point out that after the incorporation of Central Asia, slavery was abolished and an end made to the feudal wars from which the people suffered. The strengthening of economic ties with Russia brought "progressive" developments in the economic and social structure. This did not mean, of course any radical change in the way of life of the peoples of Central Asia. The basic feudal structure

remained unchanged and the colonial period which followed brought much hardship. It was only the October Revolution which brought "final liberation." Radzhapov's ultimate conclusion is that the present ties of friendship between the peoples of Central Asia and the great Russian people are deeply rooted in history.

The conference proceedings

There was extensive press coverage of the conference. The names of Tolstov, Sidorov, Dyakonov and other eminent historians were mentioned as participating. Those present included historians from the Azerbaidzhan SSR, the Tatar, Bashkir, and Dagestan ASSR, many local professors and teachers, Communist Party members and representatives of republican organizations. Among papers read was a report by Dr. Potapov on the patriarchal feudal status of the nomads of Central Asia and Kazakhstan. On 3rd February Gafurov submitted a paper on the reactionary character of pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism. On 2nd February a paper on the formation of the Uzbek "bourgeois" nation was read by Vakhobov and Nusupbekov. The same evening there was a paper on the 1916 rebellion. The final thesis for discussion was "On the correct definition of the historical periods in the life of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan."

The patriarchal feudal status of nomads

The conference refuted the theory that nomadic peoples, by the very nature of their economic relations, could not rise above a primitive communal structure of society. It was stressed that the economic foundations of a feudal society were based on landed property, that the nomads had passed through the same social and economic stages as other feudal societies, and that ownership of irrigation waters had had a great deal to do with the stratification of feudal relations. The idea (maintained by some of those attending the conference) that cattle and not land were the basis of the Central Asian feudal structure was strongly repudiated as not being in line with historical facts.

Formation of the Uzbek "bourgeois" nation

It was emphasized that the incorporation of Central Asia into Russia had a tremendous "progressive" influence. Under its impact "bourgeoisization" had been accelerated both in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan. At the same time it had brought about a growth of class consciousness and had led the Uzbeks to a rapprochement with the most revolutionary proletariat of those days, and also with Russian as distinct from Tsarist culture. There was some difference of opinion at the conference over the extent to which the formation of "bourgeois" nations had been completed by the time of the Revolution. The final conclusion was that both Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan in the short period after their annexation could not

have passed through a complete capitalist cycle in their economic and social development and that up to 1917 the final capitalist stage had not been reached by any of the peoples of Central Asia.

Pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism

Gafurov's report on the reactionary character of pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism met with little or no criticism. Most of those present at the conference agreed that this "reactionary racial ideology" was against the interests of the workers, and was launched and supported by international, especially American, "imperialists". It must not be forgotten, he said, that "imperialists" of all shades were trying their utmost to find in Central Asia elements through which they could carry out their aggressive plans. Rabid "nationalism" in Central Asia and Kazakhstan was bound up with pan-Islamism, pan-Turkism and pan-Iranianism. More stringent efforts would have to be made to unmask and eradicate all manifestations of this reactionary ideology. Serious errors could still be detected in historians' appraisals of the Dzhadid and Alash movements.

The 1916 rebellion

Gross errors and misrepresentations of historical facts had been allowed to mar the assessment of the 1916 rebellion. There were historians who considered the movement as totally reactionary. Others held it to be anti-colonial and ignored the fact that in certain regions it assumed a definitely reactionary character. Following a discussion the conference agreed that in most districts this movement had been of a revolutionary nature because it was directed against Tsarism and against the feudal bai rulers. Only in a few districts had it become a totally reactionary anti-Russian movement.

"Bourgeois" falsification of history

It was demonstrated at the conference that Soviet historical science had unmasked such "bourgeois" misrepresentations and falsifications of history as the conception of a basic difference in the development of the East and the West, and of the inherent backwardness of the peoples of the East. The laws governing the evolution of peoples were held to be the same throughout the world. It had been conclusively established for instance, that between the sixth century B.C. and the fifth century A.D. the economic system which predominated in Central Asia was based on slavery and in the sixth century A.D. slavery gave way to feudalism.

General conclusions

In his concluding remarks Zakhidov, President of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, acknowledged that the session had done much to improve historical research on Central Asia and Kazakhstan. It had brought

together scholars from Central Asia and the rest of the Soviet Union and had demonstrated the growth of scientific establishments in Central Asia. It was agreed that the next conference should be devoted to discussions on the Soviet period in the history of Central Asia and Kazakhstan.

The Tashkent conference of historians is clearly designed to influence historical research in Uzbekistan and bring it more in line with orthodox trends of historical thought. Its main objective seems to have been to eradicate the tendencies of a number of Uzbek writers to "idealize" the history and the cultural attainments of their people, to minimize manifestations of class struggle, and to represent certain movements in the past as "national" and thus opposed not only to Tsarism but also to Russia. Such tendencies are now declared to be a veiled form of "bourgeois nationalism". Some Uzbek historians have been slow to acknowledge the benefits which incorporation in Russia has brought to the Central Asian peoples. For instance, in a treatise on the economic policies of Tsarism in Central Asia, Aminov made no mention of the direct influence of Russian revolutionary thought on the Uzbeks. The study of the Basmach movement of 1918-1924, a movement described as being led by feudal counter-revolutionary elements organized by Turkish emissaries and backed by "Anglo-American imperialists," has been interpreted as a more or less popular movement without any emphasis on the part played by foreigners. And the "clandestine participation in the movement of the Dzhadid Mladobukhara clique" has so far not been fully unmasked.

There are already signs, however, of a more orthodox approach to these problems. On 31st March, Rustamov, a Doctor of History, was to defend a thesis on "British aggression along the frontiers of the Pamirs and Sinkiang at the end of the last century" at the Institute of History and Archaeology of the Academy. In May, articles on the subject of pan-Islamism continued to appear recommending the utmost vigilance and paying tribute to the great Russian people for shielding Uzbekistan from all external threats. A collection of articles under the heading "Everlasting Friendship" was recently published by the Uzbek Academy Publishing House, and included an article on the historical foundation of Russo-Uzbek friendship.

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T A D Z H I K I S T A N

S T A L I N A B A D - T H E N E W C A P I T A L

Introduction - The old village of Dyushambe - Construction before the first Five-Year Plan - Growth of population - Plan for development - Progress in construction today - Housing - Sanitation - Industry - Education and cultural activities - Conclusion.

In all Soviet publications great emphasis is laid on the striking appearance and the fine architecture of Stalinabad. Its wide, straight streets divide the town into regular squares forming the districts and are bordered by tall trees, whose branches transform many of the avenues into green tunnels offering protection against the hot rays of the sun. The streets run parallel from north to south and from east to west. The main avenues lead to the four exits of the town: the Tashkent road going north, the Ura-Tyube road leading into the Vakhsh Valley, the Termez road running west, and the New Pamir road leading east. The principal street of the city, Lenin Street, divides Stalinabad into two parts and all routes leading into the town cross Lenin Street at some point. Lenin Street crosses the town from south to north, and many smaller streets at right angles to it link the mountain terraces to the Dyushambe-Darya river.

The city lies in the middle of the Gissar Valley at 68°33' east and 38°34' north, the centre of Stalinabad being 824 metres above sea level. It is well protected by mountains from the winds. In summer the temperature rises to 40° centigrade, and in winter it falls to 20° below zero; the average annual temperature for the area is about 14°.

The old village of Dyushambe

It was in 1929 that the small village of Dyushambe was renamed Stalinabad and became the capital of the Tadzhik SSR. A Russian traveller, B.N. Litvinov, described Dyushambe in 1894 as "a poor Gissar town, spreading along the Varzob and consisting of not more than five hundred homesteads, populated mainly by Tadzhiks. Poor clay-walled huts are scattered among lovely orchards; the houses are covered with cane-ridged roofs. In the centre, near the half-ruined fort, the houses are somewhat cleaner but not a single brick building exists in the whole town."

Once the summer residence of the Gissar beks, Dyushambe was reduced almost to ruins by 1924 as a result of local unrest and the activities of marauding bands. Instead of the five hundred homesteads of 1894, by 1924 the town had only forty-two houses and about 260 inhabitants. Only four of the small houses had wooden floors; water was transported in goat skins and the "lovely orchards" mentioned by Litvinov had vanished altogether.

Construction before the first Five-Year Plan

The construction of the future capital of the Tadzhik SSR - or "the kishlak of people's commissars" as it was then called - was started at Dyushambe in 1924 on an almost empty site. In that year a home for war-orphans was opened and a small printing-press set up. On 15th March 1925 the first number of a Tadzhik newspaper was printed, and on the same day the Tadzhik People's Republic was proclaimed.

All equipment and supplies had to be brought to Dyushambe by camel. A canteen, a hostel and a dispensary were opened and then a small hospital and three primary schools. Many Russians came to work on the building of the new town and in 1926 a Russian four-year primary school was built and a ten-month teachers' training school was opened.

In the same year the construction of a 78 kw. diesel-electric power-station was started, and in 1927 a soap factory, a flour mill, and a dairy produce factory were completed. Dyushambe had by then about 5,600 inhabitants and many new houses and roads had been built. Specialists in all subjects came to study local conditions. Malaria still swept the town and jackals and wild boars roamed the surrounding countryside; during the rainy season camels floundered and were even drowned in the mud. By 1928 the first nineteen tractors had come to Dyushambe, the first planes landed on the small airfield and the town was linked with Termez by railway.

In 1929, Dyushambe was renamed Stalinabad, and the old village without water mains, electricity or pavements began its new life as the capital of the newly created Tadzhik SSR.

The growth of the population

Whereas Dyushambe in 1926 had only 5,607 inhabitants and a few primary schools, the 1939 census of the Stalinabad population showed 82,540 inhabitants, three higher education institutes, nine tekhnikums (specialized secondary schools) and four industrial professional training schools with a total of about 3,000 students. Counting secondary and primary schools, over 17,000 young people were being educated at Stalinabad in 1939. According to D.A. Chumichev, author of the book Stalinabad, by 1950 the population of Stalinabad

exceeded 100,000, or in other words, it had increased more than twenty times between 1926 and 1950.

The growth of the population during this period is shown in the following table:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Population</u>
1926	5,607
1928	16,000
1929	19,000
1930	24,000
1938	42,000
1939	82,540
1950	100,000

With the continuous industrial development and the progress of building work, the present population of Stalinabad may safely be estimated at about 150,000.

The plan for development

The general plan of town development allowed for the population of Stalinabad to reach about 100,000 by the end of the third Five-Year-Plan (1942). The southern part of the town was to be left for the construction of industrial undertakings. New metalled roads were to be laid and the railway line extended in this area. The original plan provided for building a meat-packing factory, the Stalinabad Textile Kombinat and a fruit cannery at a distance of a few kilometres from the main industrial district.

In the centre of the new capital, on the left bank, a number of government and municipal buildings were to be erected; in the northern hilly part of the town, adjacent to the Dyushambe-Darya river, educational institutions were built; here students were to live and work in pure air and among gardens. Finally, higher-up, nearer to the foothills, hospitals and clinics, medical schools and botanic gardens were planned. Green zones and belts were to be planted in every district of the new city.

Progress in construction today

The initial plan of construction was completed long ago and the town appears to be continually expanding. In 1953 building was greatly increased. A new public library, a Party school, and a number of other public buildings have been recently completed in the town, including the third hydroelectric power-station. The original diesel-electric power-station now has a capacity of 6,000 kw, and the Varzob hydroelectric station opened in 1937 has a capacity of 7,500. (See C. A. R Vol. II, No. 3)

Progress is not uniform, however, and construction of the second part of the Cotton Kombinat's blocks is very slow; the delay in the construction of municipal and cultural buildings (educational institutes, clubs, etc.) is blamed on the planning organizations who have not submitted detailed plans in time. Nor were any detailed plans for the construction of the many new buildings scheduled for 1954 ready early this year. Insufficient available credit similarly handicaps the development of municipal services. In 1953 the Council of Ministers of the republic approved various measures to be taken for the further improvement of the living conditions in the town, but most of the measures planned have not yet been put into effect. The reconstruction of the water mains is still pending a definite solution. Also a new goods station will have to be built, as the existing one cannot cope with all the incoming freight.

Tadzhikistan's present capital, however, looks very different from the town of twenty-five years ago; Stalinabad has become a large modern town. According to K. S. Butsan, Head of the Town Inspectorate of the Public Works State Control, the construction of a number of large new buildings is being carried out in various districts of Stalinabad. A large Dynamo stadium has been built; other smaller sports grounds were already overcrowded. An artificial Komsomolskoye Lake, surrounded by a belt of trees, is planned in the area of the new stadium. There are to be embankments in granite along the Dyushambe-Darya river and steps will lead down to the water. A new railway station is under construction as well as a new secondary school for 880 children. A number of industrial undertakings are also being built, among these are a footwear factory and several blocks of a new clothing factory situated in the Budyennyi and Ordzhonikidze districts of the town. Three-storied blocks of flats will also be built near the new factories.

Housing

In 1951 Stalinabad had more than 10,000 houses as against forty-two in 1924, and every year the number of houses is growing. In 1953, 100 m. rubles were allocated for the construction of municipal, administrative and residential buildings. Several new blocks with eighteen, twenty-four, and sixty flats each are to be constructed. This type of block is being built in the Lenin, Aini, Ordzhonikidze, Kommunisticheskaya and Komsomolskaya Streets. The erection of a block of a hundred flats is planned for the angle of Lenin and Komsomolskaya Streets, while another sixty-flat block is to be built at the corner of Lenin and Tyrdyev Streets.

During the first six months of 1953, the complaint was voiced that only 7,723 square metres, or 20.2 per cent of the annual building programme for housing accommodation was completed. "The irresponsible attitude of the directors of the brick factory, the Traktorodetal works, the cement works, the footwear factory" and of a number of other under-

takings and institutions was given in the press as the reason for this failure to fulfil quotas. Low quality of workmanship is also criticized. Sometimes impatient tenants move in to uncompleted houses.

Recently, a children's hostel with a hundred beds and a kindergarten for 140 children, adjacent to and part of the Teachers' Training Institute were completed. Seven blocks of twelve flats each were built. Two new hostels for the students of the Tadjik State University and of the industrial tekhnikum, and the main block of the building tekhnikum are under construction. Work has started on a House of Culture and new public baths.

Although Stalinabad is being built according to a "Socialist urban planning" scheme, most of the housing still consists of small adobe houses with one or two rooms. This type of house, occupied by Tadjik families, is mostly concentrated in the areas of the former kishlaks, which have now been included within the bounds of Stalinabad. Adobe one-storied houses are also found in the so-called "Unplanned" settlements situated on the outskirts of the new town.

Unlike the new Stalinabad, which is covered with gardens and tree-lined avenues, these small settlements have practically no gardens, and their narrow streets have no trees. The town districts in the areas of the old kishlaks have conserved their small orchards and vegetable gardens; but some of the new building sites in the hills, built by individuals, lack water and vegetation.

In the centre of Stalinabad large official and municipal buildings and apartment flats predominate. There are also comfortable houses for individual families in some central districts, but these are few and far between. As everywhere in Central Asia, here again there is a striking contrast between the traditional small adobe houses of the native people and the factories and blocks of hastily built flats belonging to the era of industrialization.

Many of the larger factories have settlements for their workers. The clothing factory is building four-storied blocks to accommodate many thousands of workers. Individual houses, cultural and medical institutions will cover a total area of thirteen hectares of the factory site. A kindergarten for 350 children and a creche for 260 babies, shops, public baths, and a laundry are all reported to be under construction.

Sanitation

Complaints are frequent in the Central Asian press on the unsatisfactory sanitary conditions in towns; this is also true of Stalinabad. The sanitation works are behind schedule; water mains and sewage systems are out of date and do not come up to the requirements of the

rapidly growing capital. Road building progresses, but very slowly. The local newspapers state that sanitary conditions are bad in the municipal public baths.

"In all districts of the town," says Kommunist Tadzhikistana, "the struggle for cleanliness is far from being adequate. The central streets are not regularly swept. The situation is even worse in the courtyards; normally only a few of these are kept clean. Most of the yard space is taken up with refuse; cess-pits are not emptied often enough. . . . The yard of the brewery and of the mechanized bakery, as well as those of a number of other undertakings, are covered with waste and rubbish. In winter the area is covered with mud, in summer - with dust. . . . The markets are not properly cleaned. The settlement at the Lower Varzob hydroelectric power-station is still unpaved. Many suburbs, bridges and individual houses have unsatisfactory sanitary conditions."

Industry

The following table gives a general idea of the rapid industrial development of Stalinabad:

	<u>Year</u>	<u>Factory</u>
<u>Dyushambe</u>	1926	Cotton-ginning mill
	1927	Flour mill
		Soap factory
		Dairy produce factory
<u>Stalinabad</u>	1930	Meat-canning <u>kombinat</u>
		Brick factory
	1932	Silk mill
	1933	Clothing factory
	1936	Tannery
		Extended cotton mill
		Footwear factory
	1937	Alabaster factory
		Mechanized bakery
	1938	Asphalt-concrete plant
		Brewery
	1939	Cement works
	1941	Stalinabad Textile <u>Kombinat</u>
1942	Spinning and Weaving mills	
45	Dye works, etc.	
50		

Until 1936 all the industrial undertakings of Stalinabad relied on local supplies of raw materials. The large cotton mill built in that year was later amalgamated with the Stalinabad Textile Kombinat, which in turn has been recently expanded by a number of new blocks.

Since the Second World War several new industries have been built; these include textile mills, a woollen mill, dairies, margarine and sweet factories, a glassware and a hardware factory. Several other industrial enterprises have been modernized and expanded. A macaroni shop has been started at the bakery, while at the brewery soft drinks are also now manufactured. The ceramic works manufacture sewers and pipes as well as pottery. A clothing factory built in 1953 is now being doubled in size.

One of the most important works of Stalinabad, the Avtotraktorodetal manufactures spares for cars, lorries and tractors which are sent all over the USSR and to the satellite countries. Another important plant is the Stalinabad Textile Kombinat which was started in 1942 to manufacture packing cloth for cotton bales. Three years later the spinning and weaving mills were brought into operation and the construction of several new workshops and the expansion of the old ones has continued since. In 1950 the dye works and trimming shops were completed, and between 1950 and 1955 it was planned to expand the factory still further. The Kombinat has its own thermal electric power-station, chemical laboratories, and pig-iron and non-ferrous metal foundries. In addition to the housing accommodation which has been built for the workers of the Kombinat along the entire length of Nizami Street, a settlement has grown up on the land belonging to the plant; this comprises a stadium, a professional training school, a clinic and a creche. Workers and technicians of the plant can buy their own two or three-roomed houses on a site beyond the river near the park.

Education and cultural activities

Stalinabad is the principal centre of education in the Tadzhik SSR: out of nine higher education institutions existing in the republic, five are situated in the capital. These include the Medical Institute, the Teachers' Training Institute, the Agricultural Institute, the Industrial Institute, and the Tadzhik State University which was founded in 1948 and has four faculties (Physics, Mathematics and Chemistry; Soil-Geology and Geography; Biology; and History and Philology, with a department of oriental languages.)

There are in addition thirteen specialized secondary schools (tekhnikums) at Stalinabad out of a total of thirty such schools in the Tadzhik SSR. These train technicians for industry and other branches of the national economy. Thirty secondary and primary schools complete the present educational system of the capital.

New buildings for Geological, Agricultural and Industrial Institutes are now under construction as is a new secondary school which is to be equipped with laboratories and workshops. The Tadzhik academy of Sciences and several of its specialized research institutes are also to

have their own buildings.

Stalinabad has seven newspapers and six periodicals all published in the central press. The capital has film studios, cinemas, and a State Regional History Museum. The Tadzhik Opera and Ballet Theatre, the Tadzhik Dramatic Theatre, the Russian Dramatic Theatre, and the State Philharmonic Orchestra, together with several groups specializing in Tadzhik folksongs and dances, represent the artistic and cultural activities of the republic's capital.

Conclusion

Compared to that of other Central Asian towns, the development of Stalinabad appears to have been speedier and more systematic. This is probably due to the fact that Tadzhikistan, in Stalin's words, was to be a beacon to spread the light of Soviet Socialism over southern Asia; thus from the earliest days Stalinabad received greater attention than, for instance, Frunze, the capital of Kirgizia. (See C.A.R Vol. II, No. 3). It should also be borne in mind that the information on which this article is based is derived largely from D.A. Chumichev's book Stalinabad which was published in Moscow and thus directed towards readers of other Union republics and of other countries.

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K I R G I Z I A

R O A D S A N D R O A D T R A N S P O R T

Importance of roads in Kirgizia - Arterial roads - Efforts at improvement - Rural roads and bridges - Town roads - Labour - Service stations and road transport depots - Condition of vehicles - Efficiency of drivers - Conclusion.

Kirgizia is a mountainous country, and with the exception of the Chu and Talass Valleys and of that part of Kirgizia which lies in the Fergana Valley, most of the territory of the republic is over 6,000 feet above sea level. The interlocking mountain ranges running predominantly from west to east, which cover almost the entire country, make communications difficult in the extreme. The Chu Valley, however, is served by railway since the Pishpek section of the Turksib runs from Lugovaya junction through Frunze to the port of Rybachye on Lake Issyk-Kul; and the Kirgiz towns of the Fergana Valley are connected to the Fergana Valley railway system. These two districts however, have no direct connection by rail and to travel from Frunze in the Chu Valley to Dzhalsalabad in the Fergana Valley - a distance of some 150 miles as the crow flies - it is necessary to make a two-day journey through Tashkent and Leninabad. Roads are thus of the utmost importance and for almost the whole of Kirgizia they are the sole means of communication.

In 1951 the total mileage of railway lines in Kirgizia did not amount to over 368 kilometres whereas the total length of surfaced roads suitable for motor traffic was 1,643 kilometres. Although the length of surfaced roads has been rapidly increased - in 1928 there were only 25 kilometres of hard-surfaced roads - they appear to be still insufficient to meet the rapidly developing needs of the republic. Since 1940 the total load carried by road has increased ten times, and in the last twenty years the length of bus routes has increased twenty-seven times. Although the main arterial roads appear to be well kept and well surfaced, the condition of the minor roads leaves much to be desired.

Arterial roads

The main roads of Kirgizia are mostly those linking the republic with neighbouring republics and foreign countries. Thus the important Frunze-Rybachye-Naryn road leads to Kashgar in Sinkiang; the Frunze-Chaldovar road leads to Lugovaya junction and on to Dzhambul in Kazakhstan;

another important road also leads to Dzhabul from Talass; from Frunze a highway runs through Georgiyevka to Alma-Ata, the capital of Kazakhstan; and one of the most famous roads of the USSR, the Pamir highway, runs from Osh in Kirgizia to Khorog in the south of Tadzhikistan. The main internal roads of Kirgizia are the Issyk-Kul ring road and the Tashkumyr-Toktogul road of the Dzhahalabad oblast. In 1953 it was reported that a highway was being constructed from Sosnovka to Susamyr which would eventually be continued to Dzhahalabad and Osh; this road would be four times shorter than the present rail journey from Frunze to Osh.

Efforts at improvement

In 1953 greatly increased funds were allocated for road repair and construction in the budget of the republic. Criticisms, however, are heard that the available funds are not always fully utilized and that they are dissipated on minor projects. In the first seven months of 1953 only 46 per cent of the available money was used. The Kirgos-proekt is badly behind in providing plans for the new roads and there is a shortage of suitable lengths of timber. In spite of these drawbacks, however, work on the inter-raion rural roads is proceeding, although at a leisurely pace. Many temporary bridges and viaducts have been replaced by permanent structures and the mileage of hard-surfaced roads has increased to a considerable extent. Delays are frequently reported; thus the twenty-kilometre road from Frunze to Vorontsovka has been under repair for the last three years but to this day heaps of stone and rubble are strewn along its entire length, and the few by-passes constructed to facilitate traffic have been badly planned and are of little help in clearing traffic jams. Dzhahalabad and Talass oblasts are considered especially backward in road maintenance as construction gangs in these oblasts do not fully utilize the ample equipment with which they have been provided.

Attempts have also been made to modernize road traffic signals and signs. In the past all road signs were of one standard size but now road signs with a diameter of 50, 70, and 100 centimetres are to be introduced, the larger ones for roads on which greater speeds are allowed. New ways of illuminating them at night are also being introduced.

Rural roads and bridges

From year to year there has undoubtedly been an improvement in the maintenance of rural roads. But their upkeep is still often neglected, since kolkhoz managers are sometimes reluctant to provide the necessary labour. The manager of the kolkhoz Kommuna in the Issyk-Kul oblast recently even went so far as to say that his men were quite content to use the existing bridle roads and that those "interfering busy-bodies" who were out for better roads could themselves provide the labour for

their construction. In the Tyup raion road work has been completely neglected and up to June 1953 roads in this raion were quite unprepared to deal with the heavy harvest traffic.

The road from Selo Kalininskoye to Bystrovka has a hard surface and fruit trees have been planted on either side; large sums of money are annually spent on its upkeep. But trees recently planted are often trampled down by passing herds of cattle, and members of the Petrovak and Voroshilov MTS driving their tractors along the hard surface cut it up badly. Between Yangi-Aryl and the Molotov kolkhoz of the Kurshab raion of Osh, a distance of not over eight kilometres, no repair work has been done for a long time, and in the wet season the Kizyl Oktyabr kolkhoz cannot be reached from its raion centre. Roads are no better in the Tuleikin raion of Osh, and in general the roads of the Issyk-Kul and Osh oblasts are admitted to be badly neglected.

Improvements to the cattle tracks and minor roads leading to high mountain pastures are in hand in the Kara Kudzhur, Son-Kul and Aksai districts; here work done on inter-raion communications has been on a fairly large scale. The need for the improvement of cattle tracks and roads is most pressing. Up in the Kenes-Anarkhai winter-pasturing valleys cattle belonging to the Ivanov, Kant, and Chu and other raion kolkhozes had been found emaciated and half starved because of a shortage of fodder, although large stocks of baled hay and other fodder were stacked at the 83 siding of the Turksib only 120-150 kilometres distant but could not be reached in winter because of the bad roads. The fodder shortage in this area was so acute that trucks with hay had to be towed into the valley by caterpillar tractors. At one time, however, the combined efforts of three tractors from the Kant MTS could not pull the fodder trucks through. This admission was only made recently, although in 1952 Razzakov had stated for the Government that the oblast and inter-kolkhoz roads were being attended to and that roads to the winter and summer pastures would shortly be improved considerably.

Among bridges built last year was that over the Alabuga river in the Akhtalin raion, and another across the Kara Kudzhur. In the Kulanak raion a wooden suspension bridge has been thrown across the Naryn, connecting eight kolkhozes with their raion centre and replacing the former ferry service. Bridge construction, however, on the whole was slow. A bridge across the Alarcha has been under construction for two years but its approaches are to this day incompletely surfaced. This bridge showed signs of strain as soon as the first trucks had run over it.

Town roads

In many towns of the republic improvements have been achieved, the Road Construction Department having surfaced in Frunze 53,000 square metres of roads and pavements. Lenin Street is now well-surfaced and

part of the surfacing of the Toktogul Street is thought to have been completed in 1953. The Department has also erected a bridge across the Great Chu Canal at its intersection with Vostochnaya Street. The work of the Department has been greatly facilitated by the introduction of modern machinery at the Frunze Asphalt and Concrete Works, at which the first concrete mixer in Kirgizia, with a capacity of 240 tons per shift, has been introduced.

Roads on the approaches to Frunze itself and to its goods yards at Pishpek station are, however, in an intolerable condition. There is a short cut to the railway about one hundred metres long along which hundreds of tons of freight are carried daily, but this road in wet weather is hardly passable.

Labour

A great problem in Kirgizia is to procure labour for road work and to train permanent road-construction gangs. Kolkhozes are often reluctant to provide road workers, and such manual labour as is available is badly organized. It is deplored that the road construction stations do little to encourage Kirgiz native labour, and especially Kirgiz women, for permanent road-work. Among the permanent road-construction workers there are only a few Kirgiz who have been professionally trained.

To improve matters the month between 20th May and 20th June was set aside this year for intensive work on the roads. Mass labour was to be provided by the kolkhozes and technicians were to be sent from Frunze. A "socialist competition" was introduced and three Red Banners and premiums of ten thousand rubles were offered to the raion showing the best results in the maintenance of roads and bridges. In allotting the awards several factors were taken into consideration: the volume of work actually done to the road surfaces, the use of locally available building materials, the numbers of kolkhoz members detailed to work on the roads, and the final condition of the roads and bridges. The planting of trees along the roads was another factor to be borne in mind, as well as the regularity of the attendance of the kolkhoz detachments employed on road work all the year round. In June the best results in road work were achieved by the kolkhoz members of the Karasu raion and through their efforts the main road through Karasu itself was in excellent condition.

Service stations and road transport depots

Avtobazi have been established at Frunze, Kant, Tokmak, Selo Novo-Troitskoye, Stalinskoye, Kalininskoye, Talass, Rybachye, Naryn, Osh, Dzhahalabad and Kzyl-Kiya; at Przhevalsk there are two stations, and the settlement at Toktogul has repair workshops, some of which are well equipped. Workshops of the Pamir Avtotransport Trust are able to produce

spare parts for ZIS-120 cars; the workers here are said to be progressive, well advanced in technical knowledge and to have introduced a number of innovations to speed up the overhauling and repair of trucks.

The target for 1953 was carried out by the Tokmak, Przhevalsk, Frunze and Talass depots. It is now planned to enlarge most of these depots and their workshops: thus, the capacity of the Tokmak motor-repair workshops is to be doubled in 1954, and the capacity of the Frunze workshops by 1957 will be six times that of the present Tokmak workshops.

Owing to poor organization and lack of supplies, however, wasted labour is a common occurrence. The case is quoted when in the Kemine raion a certain kolkhoz telephoned the transport depot for a truck. The call was promptly answered, but when the driver arrived he was told that his services could not be used as the kolkhoz had no motor fuel or lubricants and the manager of the kolkhoz did not, in any case, know where and how to procure these essentials or how to equip the truck so that it could carry grain in bulk. On return to his depot the driver was promptly dispatched to another kolkhoz where he was told that the kolkhoz was short of sacks to load the grain and had no men to do the loading. At a third kolkhoz the driver was told that the kolkhoz simply had no need for extra transport. Once again the driver returned to his base and was dispatched to a kolkhoz whose manager rudely refused to talk to him.

Fuel supplies appear to be especially badly organized, and there have been several cases of the transport depots being unable to fulfil their targets owing to shortage of fuel. The remoter areas are particularly badly supplied, and the drivers of the Voroshilov raion serving the high mountain pastures frequently have to return to their parent kolkhozes - at times a distance of up to three hundred kilometres - in order to refuel.

Many of the transport depots, however, work efficiently. As a result of "socialist competitions" the Przhevalsk depot was fully prepared for the harvest season, and the same was true of the Karasu depot of the Osh oblast. The Naryn depot saved 10,000 litres of fuel in 1953 and hauled 3,000 tons of freight in excess of the year's plan in spite of working at times under difficult conditions particularly while supplying the Aksai winter pastures. It was claimed that in 1953 4 m. rubles and thousands of litres of fuel had been saved through avoiding wastage.

Condition of vehicles

Repair facilities are apparently not everywhere available, and in the Uzgen raion it was reported that a quarter of the available machines were awaiting repairs. At the Chekist kolkhoz of this raion a practically new truck, after having run only 15,000 kilometres and requiring

only a minor repair, had been left in the open and was now beyond recovery. At the Irisu sovkhos only two of the eight lorries could be used. The neglected condition of some of the vehicles was held to be partly due to a shortage of covered space in which to garage them.

Even some of the public transport vehicles are in bad condition. The buses running between Frunze and Rybachye often have leaking or boiling radiators, starters that are out of order, broken window panes and other defects. Passengers frequently have to fetch water from quite appreciable distances to feed the leaking radiator; on one occasion they got so annoyed that they abandoned the bus and continued the journey on foot. Such instances are said to be frequent.

Efficiency of drivers

The roads and prevailing climatic conditions of Kirgizia demand a high standard of efficiency from drivers and mechanics in order to maintain a regular flow of traffic in both summer and winter. There are, however, numerous complaints of lack of proper supervision over drivers. Thus at Uzgen drivers and conductors frequently overcharge their passengers or refuse to issue tickets. Supervision here was so slack that no proper records were held of drivers' qualifications and behaviour; men who neglected their vehicles and caused unnecessary breakdowns, as well as habitual drunkards, who were sacked from one depot soon find a place at another. At the depot of the Ministry of Posts and Communications at Rybachye supervision was slack and no one in authority had visited the base for over a year; here eighteen drivers had to live in a garage as no other living accommodation was available. At the Rybachye transport depot there had been eighty-seven cases of infringement of labour discipline during 1953 and at the Frunze depot - 130 such cases.

On the other hand at the Karasu depot of the Osh oblast twenty-three drivers hold records for running their lorries over 200,000 kilometres without a major breakdown. At the Naryn depot too several drivers hold records; one man covered 103,000 kilometres of difficult terrain without a single major breakdown and saved 867 kg. of fuel in one year. He then undertook to increase his record to 150,000 kilometres and to complete the annual targets two months ahead of time.

Conclusion

It is not easy to form a general picture of the condition of roads and road transport in Kirgizia because references in the press are mostly to isolated local conditions. However, from the fact that the money allocated for road construction and maintenance in 1953 was reported as being five times that allocated in 1950, it is obvious that efforts are being made to improve and develop this vital means of communication. The difficulties of road construction and maintenance,

of organizing supply and repair depots and of training drivers and mechanics are obvious in a mountainous country that not long ago was almost wholly dependent on the bridle track and pack horse. However, from the figures quoted it is apparent that motor traffic is fast increasing. The number of lorries in the republic is said to have trebled in recent years while the number of buses and converted passenger lorries has almost doubled. Both government-owned and kolkhoz-owned cars and lorries are on the increase. In 1953 the kolkhozes of the Issyk-Kul oblast bought through the local Consumer's Cooperatives 110 lorries, and in the first quarter of this year, ten ZIS-5 and thirty-one ZIS-150 machines. Some kolkhozes own as many as nine lorries. In 1954 the number of motor vehicles in Kirgizia is expected to increase by one third, and in 1955 by 35 per cent.

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K I R G I Z I A

B R O A D C A S T I N G A N D R E L A Y S E R V I C E S

Introduction - Regional achievements and failings - Radio programmes - Quality of transmissions - Conclusion.

The year in which broadcasting began in Kirgizia cannot be established with precision, but from the available information it may be assumed that it could not have been before 1926 and may in fact have been as late as 1933. Until the war, however, services were both restricted and irregular, and it is only since 1945 that a serious attempt has been made to extend broadcast coverage in the republic.

According to press reports published in May this year, the total capacity of the oblast and raion radio exchanges⁺ has increased three-fold and the number of radio receivers has grown nearly six times in eight years. At present it is planned to set up 15,000 radio tochki i.e. loudspeakers, earphones etc. and to bring complete coverage to fifty kolkhozes of the republic; twenty kolkhoz radio exchanges, five of which are for inter-kolkhoz service, are already under construction. The extension of coverage to a number of kolkhozes has been greatly assisted lately by the laying of thousands of kilometres of aerial and underground cables and the establishment of a link on ultra-short waves between Frunze, Osh and Dzhahalabad. In Frunze, a Radio House (Radio Dom) is being built which, when completed, will facilitate the transmission of broadcasts, eliminate fading and generally improve the technical quality of the broadcasts. A small television station is also to be set up shortly; this, it is claimed, will enable the residents of Frunze and the surrounding areas to see in their own homes films of the theatrical productions of Moscow and Leningrad.

Despite all this activity, however, achievements to date are far from satisfactory and the network as a whole is not extensive. As in

⁺ Radio exchange This appears to be peculiar to the Soviet system of broadcast service. The impression given by a study of the material available is of a smallish building, of about two rooms, where incoming programmes are received either by radio or by wire and are then redistributed, probably after amplification, to local listeners. The apparatus used seems to require some technical knowledge for its maintenance and operation.

Uzbekistan, different oblasts exhibit widely varying degrees of coverage and the technical quality of transmissions is deficient.

Regional achievements and failings

At the Nineteenth Party Congress it was decided to speed up the extension of broadcast coverage to all parts of the republic. In actual fact, however, this resolution is being implemented very slowly. The agencies of the Keminsk, Bystrovka, Chu, Mirzakin, Tonsk and Balykchin raion radio networks have not extended broadcast services to a single kolkhoz. The Karavan bureau of the Dzhahalabad oblast in the course of two and a half years has been unable to cover even the Krupskii kolkhoz, which is situated only five kilometres from the raion radio exchange. Accounts of mismanagement and indifference are also reported from other areas. On 21st February kolkhoznik A. Gadzhiev gave the following account in Sovetskaya Kirgiziya: "At the beginning of 1952 it was decided to set up a radio exchange in the artel Prigornyi of the Chu raion. At the general meeting of the Kolkhozniks it was agreed to entrust the organization and direction of this work to the kolkhoz representative, A. Kuznetsov. His only achievement to date has been to allot a building for the equipment."

The maintenance and repair of existing installations is dilatory. In the autumn of 1952 a relay line was established from the Dzhahalabad radio exchange to the Blagoveshchensk settlement of the Suzak raion at a cost of 10,000 rubles. Soon after completion a subscription system was instituted and three hundred receivers were linked up with the network. In February 1953, however, the line went out of action and nothing has been done since despite the repeated requests of the subscribers for remedial measures.

Conditions, however, are not uniformly bad and in some of the oblasts the targets for the extension of coverage have been met. In the rural districts of Issyk-Kul oblast, broadcast services are extended every year. According to a report of 7th May 1954 all the sovkhoses and a number of MT stations in this oblast have been fully covered. Fifteen kolkhozes have their own radio exchanges and coverage has been extended to thirty-nine agricultural artels. Ten other kolkhozes are to be served by the end of this year and over 700 radio receivers will be provided to the kolkhozes Bolshevik, Eriktu, Khrushchev, and Ordzhonikidze of the Taldy-Su raion and 400 receivers to the kolkhozes Put Ilyicha and Svetlyi Put of the Novo-Voznesensk raion. Broadcast coverage is also being extended to the whole of the Kara-Su raion of Osh oblast. By the 1st May this year work had already been completed in four kolkhozes of the Osh raion.

Radio programmes

day, four of which are in Kirgiz. Once a month there is a kind of political forum when listeners' questions on political and related matters are answered and discussed. Lectures are frequently given to aid those studying Marxist-Leninist theory. A number of talks are also devoted to the resolutions of the Nineteenth Party Congress and subsequent plenums. Eight times a week there are talks on agricultural matters in both Russian and Kirgiz. New bulletins are broadcast three times a day. In spite of all this the politico-ideological level of many of the programmes is still considered to be low; and it is said that there is insufficient publicity given to Stalin's work The Economic Aspects of Socialism in the USSR. The programmes, it seems, do not reflect the life and spirit of the Kirgiz people. They are dull in content, often repetitive and fail to meet the maturing and growing needs of the listeners. Many of the programmes are also said to be hurriedly drawn up, improperly edited and unimaginatively produced, with the result that many inaccuracies and distortions are being perpetuated. Particularly unsatisfactory are the programmes for rural listeners: the work of kolkhozes, sovkhoses and MT stations is presented without any clear knowledge or even essential data. Too often talks bear no relation to the actual conditions or plans and are given by people without any practical experience of their subject.

The cultural side of the programmes, although not neglected, receives insufficient attention. Concerts of Russian, Kirgiz and European music are given, but these are generally wedged in between political broadcasts and are therefore more in the nature of interludes. The performances, it seems, also suffer through the lack of competent performers as very few really good artists appear before the microphone. It is hoped, however, to raise the standard of performance in the future by enlisting the services of the best representatives of the arts.

Quality of transmissions

Although the Kirgiz DOSAAF and the Frunze radio club have already trained many of their members in the maintenance and running of radio installations, and are continually providing refresher courses, the shortage of qualified personnel is still acute. Many of the radio exchanges are staffed by untrained or semi-trained workers who are unable to make the most of existing installations. The workers of the Frunze radio exchange, for instance, have as yet been unable to achieve clear and distinct transmissions. Not infrequently two stations are transmitted simultaneously and as a result there is considerable distortion and interference. Particularly unsatisfactory are the relays of broadcasts from Moscow.

The inefficiency of the workers, however, is not the sole cause of the bad functioning of the radio exchanges. Breaks in transmission are sometimes due to power failures; this appears to be common in the

Dzhety-Oguz, Nizhne-Chu and the Vasiliev bast crop sovkhov radio exchanges. In the latter breaks were so frequent that in 1953 the radio network headquarters allotted a diesel generator designed to provide a continuous current. A building to house it had to be built, but the sovkhov managers who undertook to direct the work have so far restricted themselves to the laying of the foundation.

Conclusion

The bad functioning of the existing radio exchanges, their absence in many villages and districts is accounted for by the lenient attitude of Party officials, the lack of proper supervision and of qualified technicians. The extension of broadcast services is also seriously hampered by the inadequate credits granted by the Agricultural Bank for capital construction of radio installations in kolkhozes. The target for the spread of radio installations for 1954 has been more than doubled, but the credits for the same year have been reduced by half. The sale of loudspeakers is also badly organized and there appears to be a shortage of posts and cables for overhead lines.

A number of corrective measures have, however, been proposed; notably a tightening up of control, the repair of all the existing installations and the provision of more technicians. By these means, it is hoped that the new and greatly increased target will be achieved.

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K I R G I Z I A

T H E K I R G I Z T H E A T R E

All the material for the following article has been taken from Kirgizskii Teatr (The Kirgiz Theatre) by N. Lvov. (Moscow, 1953).

Introduction - The first steps - Kirgiz theatre studio - The pre-war period - The war years - Post-war period.

The Kirgiz have an ancient, traditional folk art; from the earliest times, the history of the Kirgiz people, their work and their way of life have been vividly reflected in songs, ballads and folklore. Until the Revolution, however, they had no written literature, no drama, and no written music; and it is only in the last thirty years that professional art has developed.

The new art forms which have developed in recent years are said to be inseparably bound up with the popular traditional art of the past. Thus, for instance, one of the most important works of Kirgiz popular art, the epic Manas has served as the basis of many plays and opera libretti, as have the poems Kurmanbek, Sarynzhi-Bokoi, and Dzharyl-Myrza.

The first steps

In 1924 the lands inhabited by the Kirgiz were formed into the Kirgiz Autonomous Oblast and two years later into the Kirgiz Autonomous Republic. Thence forward a rapid development in the culture of the Kirgiz people took place. A particularly important role in this development was played by the teachers' training institute at Frunze which was opened in 1925. Here were assembled all the Kirgiz students who had hitherto studied at other schools in Central Asia. But the new institute was not only an establishment for the training of teachers; it became the central nucleus of the new intelligentsia, future scientists, critics, writers and poets. The first works of such writers as Aaly Tokombayev, Kasymaly Bayalinov, and Moldogazy Tokobayev began to appear in print. It was at this time that an interest awoke in drama: but the development of the theatre proved more difficult than that of music or literature, both of which had their roots in popular tradition.

Until the Revolution the great majority of the people had never seen acting on the stage, and interest in the theatre was started by Russian and Ukrainian theatrical companies which sometimes visited the country. Students studying at Tashkent and Alma-Ata on returning home also described plays they had seen in the Tatar, Kazakh and Uzbek languages.

The first play to be performed in the Kirgiz language was given in February 1920 at the school of the village of Cholpon near Przhevalsk. It was a one-act comedy in verse called Bukulbai written by a local school teacher.

Plays written by the pupils themselves or translated from Kazakh were produced in schools by the schoolchildren themselves. These plays usually had no action but were recited by the boys sitting round in a circle; home-made make-up and costumes were worn and the boys dressed in women's clothes for the women's parts.

In the twenties Karakol near Przhevalsk was the chief cultural centre of Kirgizia, and it was here that something approaching a professional theatre first saw light. In the summer holidays Kirgiz students gathered here who, having seen plays acted at Tashkent and Alma-Ata, became inspired to produce their own plays in the Kirgiz language. From Karakol the experience of the students spread throughout the land and stimulated the development of the theatrical group at the teachers' training institute at Frunze. The dramatic art section of the institute soon began to produce its own playwrights, composers and producers, among them the composer Abdylas Maldybayev, the playwright Kasymaly Dzhantoshev, and the actress Anvar Kuttubayev, all of whom played an important role in the subsequent development of the Kirgiz professional theatre.

The Kirgiz theatre studio

In November 1926 the Kirgiz theatre studio was formed; its objects were both to train Kirgiz actors and producers and to give theatrical performances. The studio at first took on twenty students but the numbers soon grew. The task of guiding the national studio devolved on the Russian N.N. Yelinin, an actor and producer of Russian opera who had appeared on the stage at both Tashkent and Alma-Ata. Yelinin was a capable organizer, a person of great culture, a believer in realistic art and an opponent of all "formalist" tendencies. During the season 1926-27 there were only two instructors at the studio, Yelinin and Mantsutsin. Yelinin taught make-up and dancing, and Mantsutsin music and choral singing. The teachers at the studio wrote the plays; one by Yelinin which achieved popularity was Molla Nasreddin.

The first serious and important production of the studio was staged during the second year of its existence. It was a play based on national

life called Kaigyly Kakei (Unlucky Kakei), and was written by Moldogazy Tokobayev, now well-known, and at that time a student at Przhivalsk.

An important event in the life of the young national studio was its first contact with the Russian classics. In 1927 a troupe of Russian players came to Frunze, and in 1929 the Kirgiz studio produced the Inspector-General by Gogol and a year later a play by Ostrovskii. Both these productions had an enormous influence on the development of the Kirgiz theatre. During rehearsals the producers gave their students descriptions of Russian life in the nineteenth century; they also spoke of Gogol and Ostrovskii. The venal self-seeking bureaucracy depicted by Gogol in the Inspector-General was not unknown to the older Kirgiz who in pre-revolutionary days had suffered under similar officials.

In its early work the Kirgiz studio concentrated above all on making everything on the stage as lifelike as possible, without any theatrical conventions.

During the summer of 1930 the whole studio made its first tour beyond the territories of its own republic, notably to Uzbekistan. The company visited Tashkent, Samarkand, and Bukhara. Besides plays, they also gave concerts at which the artists sang, danced, recited and played folk music on native string orchestras. In the autumn of 1930 the studio was re-formed into the State Theatre and opened its season with the play Alym menen Mariya.

The pre-war period

In 1930 came the pronouncement on the collectivization of land and the young Kirgiz State Theatre played an important role in the propaganda in support of this measure. The theatres organized theatrical production in the villages and produced plays whose theme was the struggle for Socialism and for land collectivization. Theatrical touring companies were particularly active during the harvest season. Plays produced at this time were mostly contemporary Russian works adapted to Kirgiz conditions; and the classical plays of Gogol and Ostrovskii completely disappeared from the repertoire.

During this period a "nationalist" trend appeared in the Kirgiz theatre. There arose a movement opposing the production of Russian plays and the employment of Russian producers. In 1932 a trilogy of plays was produced called Academic Evenings; the first play showed the feudal period of Kirgiz history in glowing colours and traditional dress; the second dealt with the colonial period, and the third with the Soviet period. Compared to the richness and colour of the first two plays the third was said to be "primitive, vulgar and untrue", and the trilogy was condemned. By 1934, however, several Kirgiz writers

including A. Kuttubayev, the chief producer of the Kirgiz State Theatre, had written plays dealing with contemporary themes and free from idealization of the past.

On 23rd April 1932 all men of letters of the Soviet Union were united in one organization, the Union of Soviet Writers. And in August of the same year the Kirgiz Writers' Union was founded. The influence of Russia on the theatrical life of Kirgizia began to increase. In 1935 specialists were sent to Kirgizia from Moscow and Leningrad, and the same year a Kirgiz studio was started at the Moscow Institute of Dramatic Art taking on at first about thirty Kirgiz students. During the season 1935-36 a theatre for young people was opened at Frunze with two sections, one Russian and one Kirgiz. A permanent Russian theatre with actors trained in the traditions of the Moscow Arts Theatre had a great influence on the development of the Kirgiz stage. At the same time the Kirgiz theatre began once again to produce Russian classical plays.

In 1936 the Kirgiz State Theatre was divided into two groups, one specializing in drama and opera and the other in Kirgiz folk music and traditional art. On account of the strong musical tradition of Kirgiz folk art musical drama had always played a prominent part in the Kirgiz theatre. Three important works produced in the period after 1936 were the drama Altyn-kyz (The Golden Girl) dealing with the Soviet period, the musical drama Adzhal Orduna, which shows the colonial period, and the opera Aichurek. All were shown at the festival of Kirgiz art held in Moscow in May 1939. The authors were Kirgiz and the music was written by the Russian specialist in Kirgiz folk music, Vlasov. The most successful of the three appears to be Aichurek which is based on the epic Manas; the authors have retained the style and imagery of the original and the music is based on the traditional Kirgiz folk melodies.

The years immediately preceding the war saw the development of Kirgiz opera and ballet. After Aichurek, an opera on the theme of Frunze's exploits on the Turkestan front was written and produced, but without, apparently, much success. In 1938 a Russian ballet master, N.S. Kholfin, came from Moscow to take charge of the newly formed ballet group of the State Theatre. He concentrated both on the teaching of classical ballet and on the development of a Kirgiz national style of dancing. The first national Kirgiz ballet Anar was produced in 1940 and has been revived since the war.

Although the State Theatre of Kirgizia concentrated primarily on musical works, both ballet and opera, straight plays were produced at the Frunze theatre for young people (TYuZ). These included both classical works such as plays by Moliere, Lope de Vega, and Gogol, and modern Kirgiz plays based on folklore themes. Among the latter were Sarynzhi-Bokoi, which was acted in both Russian and Kirgiz theatres,

and Ulug mergen (The Great Hunter) a fantasy set in "the kingdom under the earth."

In the meantime Kirgiz students at the Institute of Dramatic Art (GITIS) in Moscow studied Ostrovskii, Shakespeare, and even produced King Lear. In 1939 the students returned to Kirgizia and joined the theatres of the republic bringing with them their wide culture and their skill in acting learnt in the traditions of Stanislavskii. This realistic approach became the basis of all Kirgiz drama.

Up to 1934 there had been only one provincial theatre in Kirgizia. This was at Osh and was opened in 1930 to give plays in Uzbek. Later theatres were started at Uzgen, Przhevalsk, and at Naryn. These theatres developed out of local groups of amateurs, and only later were they strengthened with professional actors and producers. Both Kirgiz and Russian plays were produced, Pushkin's The Stone Guest having great success at Naryn.

The war years

The outbreak of the Second World War was the signal for the production of many plays and operas with patriotic themes. Many composers, actors, singers and dancers were evacuated to Central Asia, and the repertory of the Kirgiz theatres was considerably enlarged. In 1941-42 the chief successes of the Kirgiz opera was the production of Tchaikovski's Eugene Onegin, and of a two-act opera by Vlasov called The Patriots, which had as its theme the dispatch of volunteers to the front. A play which met with success was the Black Cloud by Eshmambetov; the scene is set in the Ukraine during its occupation by the Germans, and the theme is of two families whose attitude to the war is different, the members of one joining the partisans, while the others try to keep out of the war with the result that they fell victims to the "Fascist plunderers". Other plays that were produced at this time were Ant (The Oath) and General Suvorov. In staging the latter, the producer tried to create a patriotic atmosphere which would serve as an example of "the unconquerable Russian army." At the same time many classical plays were produced including Shakespeare's Twelfth Night - which was the first classical play to be produced by a Kirgiz - and Gogol's Inspector-General.

The post-war period

Few Kirgiz plays appeared in the first years after the war apart from those based on historical or folklore themes, such as the play Kurmanbek. The repertory consisted mostly of classical plays and of translations of contemporary Russian authors. Among these were Simonov's A Russian Question, and The Young Guard, adapted from Fadeyev's novel.

In order to enrich the repertory with modern Kirgiz plays a series of competitions were held between 1947 and 1950 for Kirgiz playwrights. The 1950 competition produced several plays devoted to themes of current interest such as the re-grouping of the kolkhozes or the work of doctors in the mountainous areas of the Tien Shan, or prospecting for oil. A notable playwright was a young journalist Abdumamunov, who wrote among others the play Zamandashtar (The Contemporaries); his plays are, however, criticized for their lack of dramatic conflict. Contemporary Kirgiz plays were on the whole unsatisfactory, and in 1949-50 the repertory was enriched by the production of Othello, and the revival of Unlucky Kakei. In the 1950-51 season matters were improved by the appearance of a new Kirgiz play We are not what we were which deals with the life of a newly reorganized kolkhoz; this work is considered to show that the Kirgiz theatre has at last produced a work of maturity, and the fine acting of the Kirgiz troupe in Othello proves that the Kirgiz theatre can rank among the best of the national theatres of the Soviet Union. In the field of opera and ballet, progress was not easy. The opera Manas, based on the epic of the same name, was withdrawn in 1948, but in the following years operas such as Traviata, Carmen, and the Queen of Spades were produced with great success; and in 1950-51 a Kirgiz opera on a contemporary theme, On the Banks of the Issyk-Kul, showed that in the operatic field too Kirgizia could hold her own.

TURKMENISTAN

TALES OF THE TURKMEN PEOPLE:

ATA KAUSHUTOV'S FINAL WORK

The recent death at the age of fifty of Ata Kaushutov has deprived Turkmenistan of one of her most talented writers. Novelist, journalist and short-story writer, Kaushutov was also an expert on his native folklore and one of the founders of modern Turkmen drama. From his earliest days Kaushutov was brought up to know and love traditional Turkmen poetry, for his mother was a famous popular story-teller, and love for his national art is considered one of the strongest influences in Kaushutov's works. A second formative influence was that of Russian literature: after attending high school in Ashkhabad Kaushutov for a time studied in Moscow and he returned to his native country to become the first editor of the Turkmen Komsomol newspaper and the founder and director of the first theatrical studio of Turkmenistan. For his services to literature and to society - particularly during the last war - Kaushutov was awarded the order of the Red Banner and other distinctions. In spite of these successes, however, during his lifetime Kaushutov was many times severely criticized (see C.A.R Vol. I, No. 3) - one of his crimes being that of inflicting a boil commonly found among the Turkmen on a Russian character in one of his novels. Kaushutov's novels, however, achieved great popularity and three of them, Mekhri and Vepa, Vepa, Grandson of Mergen and At the Foothills of the Kopetdag have been translated into Russian, as also has his last work, a collection of short stories, The Family of the Hunter Kandym.

This book has received high praise from all parts of the Union and in the course of this year has been favourably reviewed in Literaturnaya Gazeta and Druzhba Narodov. It is interesting that both reviewers pick on the same phrase in one of the stories to show the underlying theme of Kaushutov's work: "One of the tales of Ata Kaushutov," writes Gerasimova in Literaturnaya Gazeta, "ends with the notable phrase 'Everything connected with the people is always precious.' These words could be placed as an epigraph to The Family of the Hunter Kandym . . . for the hero of the work is the courageous and hard working Turkmen people." Durnovo, writing in Druzhba Narodov, emphasises the same phrase as expressing the basic idea of the book, and goes on: "In the series of pictures and images which this slender volume presents is unfolded before the reader the life of the Turkmen

people from the time of the Bukhara emirate and the foreign invasions to the years of the post-war Five-Year Plans when the life of the Turkmen people took on a new form and a new prosperity. . . ."

Both reviewers analyse the first and perhaps most significant story of the collection, The Last Overseer, in which, says Durnovo, "the creative powers of the author are seen at their brightest." This is the story of the gentle, aged blacksmith Karly who "never in his life has spoken a harsh word to anyone." He accepts his poverty fatalistically and even reprimands those of his fellow peasants who speak against the injustices of their feudal landlords, the bais. But then, with the course of events - the "elections" for the new overseer, the shameless extortions made by this new ruler of the village, the failure of the harvest and the famine - Karly's eyes are opened. He comes to realize his rights as a man and the injustice and deceit of the existing social order. Because he is sincere and single-hearted the realization of injustice comes to Karly as the realization that he must fight against it, and he starts to incite the village against their rulers. "The very familiarity of this subject" says Durnovo, "the first conflict between the poor peasant and the rich landlord - puts one on one's guard: what will the author say that is new? How can he interest his reader who has so many times already lived through similar conflicts in books?" But it seems that a theme, however hackneyed, is never dull when it is treated by a true artist and, continues Durnovo, "from the opening pages of the tale we followed the fate of the hero with growing attention."

Both reviewers praise Kaushutov's "wise and subtle humour" that runs through this story, the irony with which he describes the "elections" of the new overseer or how Nabat, Karly's wife, has for many years opened the door of her tent to the setting sun and said: "Let riches and happiness enter our tent." This apparently insignificant detail, comments Durnovo, "raises before our eyes the whole outlook of the people whose consciousness is clouded by a web of ancient superstitions handed down from generation to generation." Again, how delicate is Kaushutov's treatment of the conclusion of the story: Karly does not become a great popular leader or a revolutionary, for he and the whole village are cruelly punished. Yet so realistic is Kaushutov's characterization that even in Karly's most bitter moment he and his wife can joke together, and, crushed by the sense of his own helplessness Karly accepts his fate with sorrowful resignation. "If the ending had been otherwise," comments Durnovo, "the dramatic fate of the old blacksmith would not have been so movingly vivid and touching."

The figure of the old blacksmith is drawn with great artistic conviction; by his choice of detail which gives at the same time an authentic living background and a convincing psychological portrait, Kaushutov has shown in this tale that he can write "with a strength inherent only in a true artist of Socialist calling. . . . The

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noticeable restraint in describing the actions and the inner world of his heroes, which distinguishes the work of Kaushutov, is the strongest side of his talent. His own opinions and characteristic turns of phrase are totally absent from his tales. The very material of life here speaks for itself."

Indeed, in his technique as a writer Kaushutov is akin to Chekhov. In the tale The Family of the Hunter Kandym, for instance, Akchagul in the absence of her husband, the aged hunter Kandym, receives the news of her son's death during the "Great Patriotic War." Kaushutov describes the grief of the mother with but one hardly perceptible detail: when Kandym returns from hunting he notices that the donkeys stretch out their muzzles to him in hunger and he realizes that his wife has forgotten to feed them. By this detail the reader understands Akchagul's silent grief which overrides even a life-long habit of work. It is, comments Durnovo, this "fine sense of measure and extreme restraint, even bareness, in describing strong emotion that again and again reminds us of Chekhov." "And indeed," he goes on, "the tales of Kaushutov and the foremost works of Russian literature have in common their realistic approach; every triviality of life and every psychological detail serves the underlying theme of the story, not artificially but firmly welded into it."

It appears, however, that Kaushutov's work is not always on this level and at times "in the exposition of certain psychological situations, a certain clumsiness, not yet overcome by the young Turkmen school of prose-writing can still be felt." This it seems is the case in one of the episodes in the tale, The Return of Sakhi. This story has an interesting plot; Sakhi, brother of the kolkhoz manager Sapa, returns to his native Turkmenistan after a long absence in Afghanistan. Through the eyes of Sakhi, Kaushutov shows the unheard of changes that have taken place in his native village. "Where once there stood the dark and ragged tents, now new bright houses have been built for the kolkhozniks of the village artel;" all the contemporaries of Sakhi are now educated men "while he, Sakhi, is still blind and in darkness, just as he was in the days of the Bukhara emirate." Later, Sakhi is received into the kolkhoz and enters into the new life with his whole heart, becoming one of the kolkhoz's hardest workers. But interesting though the story is, some scenes are somewhat sketchily drawn. For instance, when Sakhi's mother sees her son for the first time after his long years abroad she exclaims: "Well, so its you! May your face blacken from shame! Or have you no shame and no conscience?" "Here," says Durnovo, "is only one emotion - anger, but no words have been found to express the complex shades of that feeling in the mother while even the bystanders at this scene are moved to sympathy and pity at the sight of the unhappy and bewildered Sakhi."

This is not the only criticism Durnovo makes of the book. The

heroes of this collection of tales, the hunter Kandym, the patient toiler Karly, or the eager, ever young Niyazmurad, are all men accustomed to gain their hard earned bread with their own hands and to give all their strength to their work on the land; they are alike in their powerful build, broad shoulders and large work-scarred hands; they are full of the common sense and hard experience of the people. "It is understandable," writes Durnovo, "that these old men, the living embodiments of the spirit and history of the people should have attracted the attention and sympathy of the author. But the trouble is that they, in fact, are the main and almost the only heroes of the tales. And such an arrangement cannot but have effect on the tenor of the collection: contemporary life in a kolkhoz is described in a markedly less colourful and more stilted manner, and the figures of the new men of Socialist Turkmenistan are only sketched. This constant return to the past is a feature even in those tales whose action takes place in Soviet times. This is, of course, at times a conscious technique. The contrast in style gives the pictures of the past an even greater emphasis. But the repeated use of this method in the tales in the present collection not only makes the subject matter one-sided but it also shows a rather limited artistic technique. . . ." This does not mean, however that Kaushutov was incapable of writing about contemporary reality; his last two novels Mekhri and Vepa and At the Foothills of the Kopetdag prove how fruitful was Kaushutov's treatment of contemporary village life. Indeed, "the acuteness and actuality of the problems he presents in the novels, his ability to depict human characters and popular way of life have placed Ata Kaushutov in the ranks of the foremost writers of Turkmenistan. . . ."

But if Kaushutov turns more to the past than to the present in his collection of tales, The Family of the Hunter Kandym, it is perhaps because here, more than in any other work, he is consciously writing in the traditions of popular Turkmen art, which he inherited from his mother. Some of the tales, indeed, such as Kadzhar-aga, Turkmen Horses and The Turkmen Carpet are not stories in the true sense of the word. "Without a subject or a single underlying theme and without developed characters they remind one rather of sketches from popular life or historical scenes." In form they are like restrained traditional oral ballads, and a large part is played by the story-teller who moves the readers arbitrarily from one country to another or from the present to the past. There are many joking asides from the story-teller, such as the beginning of the tale Kadzhar-aga, "Well, the dogs have carried off and chewed up my old hat. And without it what sort of a story-teller am I? All my strength was in that hat. . . ." These stories are full of the natural and vivid intonations of popular speech and, adds Durnovo, "as proof that this technique is not just a conventional stylization but an expression of organic unity with the subject is the fact that the reader hardly notices it, for he is carried away by the simplicity and vividness of the events unfolding under his eyes. . . ." In one of the

tales, the story-teller Niyazmurad tells of the struggles of the Turkmen against the shahs of Persia and the Khans of Khiva who were plundering and laying waste their land. "Not the Khivans! At that time no one gave orders; they knew themselves what to do. They took up their arms, mounted their horses and galloped to the help of the neighbouring stronghold. Such was the custom of our grandfathers and great-grandfathers. And if any horse was left idle it meant that its owner was dead or dying. There could be no other reason" "It seems," comments Durnovo, "that the dramatic strength of this tale lies in the very contrast between the peaceful narration and the violent and often terrifying subject."

In this story Kaushutov gives the picture of the Turkmen people scattered in isolated communities but, with their inborn sense of unity, rising unanimously to the defence of their homeland. "The idea is emphasized," says the reviewer, "that national enmity is alien to the spirit of the common people. . . ." and from this story, as from the many others in the book, "there stands out the image of the people, unbroken and unsubdued in whom courage and steadfastness are allied to the love of freedom and a genuine humanism. . . ." It is, in fact, the people of Turkmenistan who are the theme and the heroes of Kaushutov's last work. Every aspect of their life is shown. Kaushutov, indeed, "has the striking ability to see in a carpet, in a popular tradition, in any detail of everyday life the work, history and fantasy of his people." To the reader unfamiliar with Turkmenistan, "the tales open a window on to a way of life hitherto unknown. . . . And," concludes Durnovo, "on reading the book one is left with the impression that not only have we come to know the homeland of the author but besides we have seen many things with our own eyes and have lived through them in our hearts."

It is not for nothing that Kaushutov is considered to have made an original and interesting contribution to "the multi-national literature of the Soviet Union."

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K A Z A K H S T A N

H E A L T H S E R V I C E S

Introduction - Growing demands and current expansion - An outspoken newspaper comment - Spas and sanatoria - Medical training - Medical research.

Since the Russian Revolution there has been a considerable expansion of the public health services in Kazakhstan in common with the other republics of Central Asia. In 1914 the territories now included in the Kazakh SSR had only 98 hospitals with a total of 1,800 beds: in 1951 the figures had risen to 706 hospitals (200 urban and 506 rural) with 32,722 beds (22,000 in towns and the rest in rural districts). In addition, 104 dispensaries and clinics, 50 first-aid stations and 16 air ambulance units were serving the republic in 1951. In 1914 there were 119 doctors in the towns and 77 in the villages; in 1951 there were 6,157, including 1,614 in the rural areas. Middle grade medical personnel - medical assistants, nurses and midwives - numbered 18,673 in the latter year and of these 7,836 were working in rural districts.

In the past a high toll of life was taken by such diseases as plague, cholera, anthrax (Sibirskaya Yazva), leprosy, small-pox, malaria, tuberculosis and typhus. In recent years it is claimed that plague, cholera and small-pox have been eliminated, while there has been a considerable reduction in the incidence of trachoma, malaria, tuberculosis, venereal disease and typhus.

The many prophylactic measures now taken to prevent disease, and the increased facilities for treatment are saving and prolonging human life. In the field of preventive medicine there are 237 anti-epidemic stations, 100 anti-malaria stations, 90 disinfection stations, 180 bacteriological laboratories and 18 centres of mass education. Nearly every raion now has its specialists in medicine - surgeons, pediatricians, therapists, gynaecologists and physicians. There are 29 medical centres run by various industrial concerns to supplement the work of the raion medical services.

Special mention must be made of the maternity and child welfare services. In 1953 the number of beds for maternity cases in the hospitals of the republic totalled 2,573 in the towns and 1,844 in the villages. That year there were 372 maternity and child welfare guidance

centres, 174 of them being in the rural areas. Kazakhstan has 34 children's hospitals with 2,690 beds, in addition to the 3,000 beds reserved for children in general hospitals. Children's homes have 1,264 beds and there are creches with 14,110 beds in the towns and 7,780 beds in the villages.

Growing demands and current expansion

These statistics convey very clearly a picture of manifold increase in health services in a region that practically started from scratch forty years ago. The result of health propaganda, coupled with the increases in population of the area due in part to preventive health services and child welfare work and in part to the influx of new settlers, has, however, increased the demand for medical services over their actual provision. Thus the Kazakh press, while reporting current expansion and progress, also reflects local discontent wherever things are not going well or not moving fast enough to keep pace with the growing needs of the republic. Press reports indicate that the number of hospitals and dispensaries in the republic has now increased by 10.5 per cent over the 1952 figure. New institutions are opened every year and work is in progress on schemes in the Karaganda, East-Kazakhstan, South-Kazakhstan, Pavlodar and other oblasts. Several new creches are being opened.

In the Karaganda oblast developments in 1953 included a rise in the number of hospital beds by 500, the opening of the first block of the infectious diseases hospital at Karaganda itself with 300 beds, the opening of a clinic at No. 1 Coal Mine and the organization of 10 new creches with 458 beds.

In Alma-Ata, Dzhambul, Guryev, Aktyubinsk and other oblasts 15 new hospitals are to be opened for rural needs, while other hospitals are being enlarged. The rural areas have also obtained 200 new mid-wifery and dispensary centres run by medical assistants. The new antibiotics - ekmolin, streptomycin, syntomycin, etc. - are widely used and the methods of treatment evolved by Pavlov are generally employed.

Complaints of shortages are, however, voiced from many quarters. The most serious problem seems to be that of trained personnel. Not only are doctors not numerous enough to meet the needs of the new services, but they are not always employed to the best effect. At times a doctor has been known to draw the salary for two different posts without discharging the duties of either. In the rural areas some doctors are said to attend dispensaries very late in the day. Others leave the visiting of sick persons in their homes to nurses and medical assistants. The training of these "middle grade medical personnel" is also not given the attention it requires, according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda. The same paper has voiced many complaints about the hospital services in the Kazakh capital. It tells of a hospital where bed linen

is changed fortnightly and broken bedsteads are tied up with bandages. It alleges that patients are not treated with understanding and sympathy.

At a gathering of physicians held at Karaganda late in 1953, complaints of delays in building were heard. The chief physician of the Dzhezkazgan hospital and the doctor in charge of Karaganda Town's public health department complained of delays affecting their respective charges.

An outspoken newspaper comment

Last January Kazakhstanskaya Pravda published a comment on the running of the Alma-Ata first-aid station which is reproduced below. A single first-aid station is not by itself of sufficient importance in a national health service to form the basis of any conclusions. The difficulties of pioneers in public health work must also be considered in assessing achievements. But the fact remains that the station is in the capital of the country.

The paper said, "A first-aid station was set up at Alma-Ata in 1928; it was accommodated in a semi-basement on Soviet Street. Twenty-six years have passed, but the first-aid service is still operating from its semi-basement.

"From a narrow, small corridor one enters a room which serves at one and the same time as waiting-room, dressing-room, office, pharmacy and isolation room. When several patients are brought in at the same time, they lie there while the case of one of their number is diagnosed.

"To operate under normal conditions, the first-aid station should have a dressing-room, an office, a room for diagnosis, an isolation room for infectious cases and even a small operation room. But who would dream of it here? Next to the dressing-room is the despatch room of the first-aid station. In this tiny room, at a small table with four telephones, sits an old man - the chief duty doctor - and two messengers. They receive telephone calls, and then run to find the doctors, sisters and drivers. Much time is thus wasted for want of a proper system of call bells.

"Four rest-rooms for doctors, assistants and sisters, male nurses and drivers complete the tally. These rooms are necessary as the staff are on duty for twenty-four hours, but how can people rest in these dirty, damp, small rooms? Cots are placed close to one another in two tiers. Many of the beds have no mattresses and the sheets are dirty. The duty staff prepare their meals in the rooms in which they rest. Often doctors and nurses attend to patients in dirty overalls because the washing is given out to people who are in no hurry to deliver it on time.

"The Alma-Ata first-aid station is supposed to be a Class I station and a few other sub-stations should have been opened in other quarters of the town. Only one of these, however, has been set up - in the Kaganovich quarter - so that ambulances often have to go eight to ten kilometres and back to fetch a patient. There are not enough ambulances; instead of the 15 to 18 needed, the station only has nine and two small Moskvich cars, which are of no practical use owing to their small size. There is no garage at the first-aid station and the ambulances are in the yard all the year round under rain and snow. Car repairs also take place in the yard. Till 1948 the station had its own small mechanical workshop but this was closed as 'not being up to date technically.' All these conditions are handicaps to the proper operation of the Alma-Ata first-aid station."

Rural health services

To attend to the thousands of herdsmen and their families who spend much of their time in remote pasture areas, many medical centres and first-aid stations have been opened. In 1953 alone 15 new medical centres and 69 first-aid posts, all operated by medical assistants, were started. Maternity centres and creches are also on the increase in the countryside. Hospitals and dispensaries are being opened in all the raion headquarters.

Work is still in the stage of organization in many places and what remains to be done is kept before the public eye by the local press. Thus it seems that patients have even to bring their own cushions and crockery to the hospital at Ili in the Alma-Ata oblast; that the Skotovod sheep-rearing sovkhos in the Turgen raion (Alma-Ata oblast) was not visited by a single doctor from September 1953 to May 1954; that only one of the eight grazing areas in Kurgaldzha raion (Akmolinsk oblast) has a medical station, though the areas are 200 kilometres from the kolkhoz villages; and that many medical workers are absent from their posts for days at a time.

The problem of organizing health services in the new lands of Kazakhstan has to be faced. Last July a report from the Yasnaya Polyana settlement, Kokchetav oblast, said that in this settlement with over 1,000 inhabitants one medical assistant and one nurse are the total health service staff. The medical centre is often unable even to render first-aid as it is not well supplied with drugs. Hospital cases have to be sent to the raion or the oblast headquarters. A few new dispensaries have been opened in the new lands and a group of qualified chemists from the Ukraine have arrived in the area.

Spas and sanatoria

Many new sanatoria and spas have been established in the hills of Kazakhstan which are attended by visitors from places as far away

as the Urals, Moscow and Sakhalin island. The chief of these health resorts are Borovoye, Alma-Arosan, Arosan-Kopal, Kamenskoye Plateau, Muyaldy, Chingau, Yany-Kurgan and Aul. Borovoye is of all-Union importance. Thousands of people come here every year because of its beauty. "Thick pine woods descend down the hills to the very shores of numerous lakes filled with crystal clear water. The air of Borovoye - absolutely pure and impregnated with the fragrance of the etheric oils of coniferous woods - possesses extraordinary healing properties, especially for lung cases." Eight kilometres from Borovoye is the Mai-Balyk Lake, with its mineral waters similar to those of the Caucasian spa of Essentuki and twenty kilometres away is the group of Balpash-Shor lakes with their medicinal mud. Thus Borovoye offers, or is near to places which offer, cures for many types of complaint - intestinal and stomach troubles, affections of the liver, rheumatism, arthritis, etc. The 6,000 people who came to the spa in 1953 included miners from Karaganda and Moscow, metallurgical workers from Balkhash, Ust-Kamenogorsk, the Urals and the Far East, oil workers from the Emba region and Sakhalin and others from far and wide. Treatment at the spa usually brings good results and 70 to 80 per cent of those who come here are in normal health in a short time. In the circumstances the number of people wanting admission to the sanatorium is very great and not all can be accommodated.

Medical training

Many of the defects in the public health service in Kazakhstan arise from the shortage of qualified medical personnel. The Medical Institute of the Kazakh State University at Alma-Ata qualifies about 500 physicians and surgeons every year. It has four specialized faculties and the number of chairs and laboratories is continuously on the increase. A new surgery block has been completed recently and a special hostel has been opened for women students of Kazakh extraction.

Besides the Alma-Ata medical school, two other medical institutes have been opened at oblast capitals - at Karaganda and at Semipalatinsk. At Karaganda last year there were 530 candidates for the 300 vacant places; of the candidates 150 were Kazakhs. Seven new chairs have been created at Karaganda - including those of psychiatry, infectious diseases, therapeutics and hospital surgery. A hostel for 500 students is under construction here. The Semipalatinsk Medical Institute was only opened in 1953 and has admitted 300 first-year students. The courses of study at all these institutes, like those of medical schools throughout the Soviet Union, are of six years' duration.

In the near future the three Kazakh medical schools will supply the country with over 1,000 doctors every year. Besides these, the medical profession in Kazakhstan is reinforced by the entry into the republic each year of from 600 to 800 young doctors with degrees of universities in other parts of the Union who come to settle and work here.

Medical research

Medical research is carried out in Kazakhstan by the Physiology and Medicine Section of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR. It publishes a specialized periodical under the title: Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR, Seriya Fiziologii i Meditsiny. Most of the contributors to this periodical are Russians. Articles in the issues so far published this year cover a wide range of subjects ranging from microbiology, hygiene and pharmacology to the problems connected with the treatment of venereal diseases.

A number of research institutes, working under the control of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR on specific tasks, also give their cooperation to the medical institutions of the republic. Included among these are the Institute of Maternity and Child Welfare, the Microbiology and Epidemiology Research Institute, the Institute of Tuberculosis, the Institute of Venereology and the Institute of Eye Diseases. The three last named institutes have their own clinics with 418 beds.

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Central Asian Press.

K A Z A K H S T A N

A B A I K U N A N B A Y E V : P O E T A N D P A T R I O T

Anniversary celebrations - Biographical sketch - Social and political significance - Literary works - Differences of opinion in Abai studies - Translations - Conclusions.

Long before his death in 1904 the name of Abai was a household word among the Kazakhs as a poet and Kazakh patriot. Since the Revolution he has been represented as having been a vigorous opponent of the feudal and Tsarist rulers of his people, and more recently as a votary of Russian culture and an enemy of Islam and Islamic clericalism. The following article indicates how these aspects of his career are being emphasized at the present time.

Anniversary Celebrations

The seal of official approval having been accorded to Abai, the people of Kazakhstan celebrated in September of this year the fiftieth anniversary of his death. To mark the occasion the widest publicity has been given to his work, and a plenum of the Union of Kazakh Writers, attended by representatives from Moscow, Leningrad and other parts of the Soviet Union, was held in Alma-Ata, at which tributes were paid to his "genius" and "prophetic vision".

According to a press report of 5th September the Kazakh Council of Ministers have decided to perpetuate Abai's name by building a museum in Alma-Ata, a reading-room in Semipalatinsk, and a secondary school in Kara-Aul, the new settlement founded recently near the foothills of Chingiz-Tau in the centre of the Abai raion, 200 km. west of Semipalatinsk. Special economic and cultural assistance is also to be rendered to the Abai raion by the Semipalatinsk oblispolkom. The house in which Abai was born is presided over by his seventy-year old nephew as a museum library, and during September literary evenings were held there and his work was read and discussed.

Among other memorials to his name, are the publication in 1955-56 of a complete edition of his works both in Kazakh and in new Russian

translations and a bronze bust by the sculptor Naurazbayev to be set up in the lobby of the State Theatre in Alma-Ata, where the opera Abai by Zhukhanov and Khamidi received its premiere at the beginning of September. A portrait of Abai has also been painted by Leontev, and Kastejev has done a water-colour sketch for a tapestry showing Abai reading his verses to a circle of friends.

Biographical sketch

Abai was born in 1845 in a nomad camp in the Chingiz mountains. His father was one of the elders of the camp, a stern steppe leader who late in life took Russian citizenship.

Abai's early years were spent in the atmosphere of discord and rivalry of a polygamous family, his father having had four wives. His own childhood, however, was made pleasanter than that of his step-brothers and sisters by his mother Ulzhan, a woman of excellent qualities. Her innate humanity and sobermindedness, her discretion and exceptional love for her son mitigated the harshness of a steppe existence and gave him the security of an intimate family circle. Living estranged from the father, the mother and son found their spiritual prop in the grandmother Zere. Experienced, kind-hearted and intelligent, she well knew the grief and injustice of a wife's lot and lavished all her affection on her grandson. The care and gentleness of these two women, contrasting strangely with the roughness of the father's habits, had a lasting effect on Abai. From them too he acquired his first love of poetry, and their vivid retelling of folk tales coupled with the varied and colourful works of the native akyns (bards) fired his imagination and gave him a feeling for the colour and idiom of his native tongue.

Elementary education Abai received at home at the hands of a hired mullah, and he was later sent for five years to the Semipalatinsk medrese of Imam Ahmet-Rizy, where he studied Arab theology and the classical literatures of the East. During this time he is also said to have developed an interest in Russian language and literature and began to attend a Russian school. He was not, however, allowed to complete his studies but was recalled by his father to the aul. There he quickly found himself enmeshed in intrigues, and in due course came to understand all the shifts and subtleties of common law transactions. Although not an official figure he was frequently called upon by two sides to arbitrate and at such times conducted the "lawsuits" with "great scrupulousness, wisdom and eloquence," and often dealt out just and equitable terms contrary to his father's interests. This resulted in a break with his father when Abai was twenty-eight.

From 1875-78 Abai held an official post as a voloist administrator but, realising the futility of his position and his inability to bring

about those reforms which he considered essential, he resigned and thenceforth devoted himself to literature.

His championship of the oppressed, however, aroused the fierce hatred of the feudal landlords and Tsarist officials who began an uninterrupted campaign against him. He was denounced as "an enemy of the White Tsar," and "people's troublemaker". This did not estrange the common folk from him, but much of his life was poisoned by those whose interests he jeopardized. Abai died in 1904; the place of his death has not been recorded.

According to his first biographer, Kakitai Kunanbayev, Abai throughout his life studied sociology, history, philosophy (that of Spenser and Spinoza) and especially the works of such Russian writers as Pushkin, Lermontov, Nekrasov, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Lev Tolstoi, Dostoyevsky, Turgenev, Belinskii, Chernichevskii, Dobrolyubov and Pisarev. The profound humanism and the revolutionary spirit of much of classical Russian literature of the nineteenth century, are said to have given Abai a new awareness. At the time of the fullest flowering of his genius, a "lucky chance" brought him into contact with Russian revolutionaries such as Dolgonoloz, Severin Gross and with E.P. Mikhaelis, a close associate of the revolutionary publicist Shelgunov who was a former pupil of Chernichevskii and Dobrolyubov. Although belonging to different revolutionary groups these men were united in their common front against obscurantism and fulfilled a "great historical mission in propagating Russian culture." They inspired in Abai a profound respect for the Russian heritage and awoke in him similar ideals. This association is considered to have greatly broadened his outlook, developed in him a critical approach to his work and sharpened his aesthetic sensibilities.

Social and political significance

Interpretations of Abai's work have been many and various. Until the Revolution and even during the first few years of Soviet rule he was regarded by "bourgeois nationalists" as an apologist for their beliefs and was used by them to "drag their hostile and anti-Soviet views into Kazakh literary criticism." Other misrepresentations resulted from an incorrect evaluation of the historical conditioning of the Kazakh people and of the conflict inherent in nineteenth-century Kazakh literature. This was permeated by two opposing tendencies - one "progressive", i.e. a gravitation to Russian traditions of literary realism, and the other "reactionary", i.e. a return to the outworn modes of Eastern literature and idealization of the feudal past. Many critics, it seems, either completely ignored this fundamental fact or else underestimated its importance. The claim is made, however, that in recent years under the "wise guidance of the Party" many of the mistakes and distortions have been rooted out, and the critics, in reviewing Abai's work now approach

it not only from the Marxist-Leninist standpoint but also from the social, political, economic and cultural aspects of the development of the Kazakh people. A study of some of the articles on Abai, which have lately appeared in the press and in academic publications seems to support this claim. The reviews mainly consist of political and sociological interpretations, and quotations taken from his work are made to illustrate facts rather than poetical qualities. Yet the appearance at the present time of these articles by various authors, some of whom are already known for their other works, is not without interest and is symptomatic of the importance that is now being attached to Abai.

While putting forward a single theory on Abai the writers have not, however, succeeded in avoiding all contradictions. Thus while some represent Abai as being dismayed at the passivity of his people, others claim that "only a profound belief in the spiritual forces of the people and the unconquerable buoyancy of life could have prompted the poet to write such passionate lines with the catchiness of a slogan". Again, the opinion that "when Abai appeared on the literary stage, the centuries-old foundations of social life were beginning to crumble. . . . The economic and cultural bonds between the Kazakhs and Central Russia had strengthened; a new spirit already animated the people and though Tsarism still tried to uphold the feudal-patriarchal set-up the old stability had gone." seems to be in direct contradiction to the view that Abai's weltanschauung was formed "at a time when the Kazakh working masses were not yet brought within the orbit of the Russian liberating movement" and that "during his creative period, the Kazakh people had reached their lowest level of poverty and slavery."

All the writers, however, are agreed on Abai's eminence both as a literary and as a historical figure. He is hailed as "the founder of Kazakh literature", "the friend and mentor of his people" and above all as "the foremost fighter for the political and cultural transformation and reorganization of his unfortunate and backward people." This transformation, he felt, could only be brought about through a link up with the great culture of the Russian people. "The Russians see the world," Abai is alleged to have written, "and if you learn their language then your eyes too will open upon the world The culture and literature of the Russians are the key to life. Learn from the Russians how to work and achieve by honest toil the means of life." Considerable political capital is being made of this partisanship and indeed his chief claim to fame appears to be not so much literary merit as the fact that he was the first Kazakh writer to attempt to give his people a Russian orientation and to create among them an understanding of the historic part that Russia was destined to play in Central Asia. In advocating closer union with Russia, Abai is said to have "echoed the long-standing aspirations and will of the Kazakh people." He inveighed against "the arbitrary rule and traditional privilege of the native

aristocracy and condemned reactionaries who tried to keep the Kazakhs and Russians apart by rousing religious fanaticism."

Literary works

Abai appears as the initiator of many vital developments in Kazakh literature. His sensitiveness to the currents and undercurrents of contemporary life expressed itself in ceaseless poetical experimentation. He assimilated and used for his own original purposes various devices: varied stanzaic structure, suggestion, exhortation, musical orchestration etc. He is said, indeed, to have brought eleven hitherto unknown forms into Kazakh poetry. His work is distinguished not merely by the trenchancy of his thought and by his rhythmic inventiveness, but also by his graphic depiction of aul scenes. Abai was the first to introduce descriptions of landscape into Kazakh poetry and his pictures of Kazakh villages and nomad camps in different seasons are said to have something of the naturalness and conciseness of the Russian realists. Unlike many of the other poets of the East "who turned poetry into a mouthpiece of religion and proclaimed the teaching of Islam," Abai had "the courage to express new thoughts in a bleak and bigoted age and to deride the traditional conventions of social life." His work reflects the "progressive" tendencies of the Kazakh people and for the first time the new attitude to the family and especially to women was distinctly stated. "The cheerless ill-starred fate of the eastern woman assumed in Abai's work a new significance," writes one critic. Abai revealed the soul of women and girls, their secret thoughts and feelings of which so little had been told in the past. He showed how deep and sincere was their love, their strength and steadfastness in adversity, their wisdom and their readiness for self-sacrifice. He came out strongly against the "degrading institution of kalym (bride-purchase) and campaigned for the equality of women." The point is made by some of the critics that Abai used as his model for the Kazakh woman Pushkin's portrait of Tatyana.

Abai's opposition to the social order of the day is said to be particularly evident in the works of his maturity (i.e. of the eighties and nineties) in such works as The Hunt with Berkut, Life Passes, O Kazakhs mine - my poor people, To Kulembai, To Kazbek Bai, Abai "in bitter and accusing verse" mercilessly denounced greed, stupidity, ignorance, litigation, bribery and corruption. These poems are considered to represent a "scathing denunciation" of traditionalism, obscurantism, religious fanaticism and anything that served to hinder the progress of the people. Abai, it seems, did not spare even the half-educated youths who had become officials. He was also opposed to religion which he regarded as one of the prime causes of the sorry state of his people, and rejected the pan-Islamic and pan-Turkic movements as able only to aggravate the centuries-old isolationism and backwardness of the Kazakhs.

Differences of opinion in Abai studies

One of the most interesting facts that have emerged from a collation of the many articles on Abai is that differences of opinion appear to exist among the critics regarding Abai's views on the aims and function of poetry, his style and even to some extent the sources of his inspiration. Some assert that he broke away from the traditional frames of reference and destroyed the existing aesthetic canons in an attempt to create a new poetical technique, and that in some of his poems he sharply criticised the popular akyns (bards) Bukhar-Zhiran, Shortambai and Dulat for withdrawing from the fight for the reform of society. Abai, they say, considered that the highest aim of poetry "is the serving of the people and the bringing together and popularizing of all that is new and serves to transform society." Other writers, however, claim that much of Abai's work was written in the best traditions of the classical literature of the East because he realized that the folk traditions established for centuries and inherent in Eastern poetry would be more easily understood by his people. Thus, they claim, in many of his love songs and lyrical reflections and in his philosophical-moralistic poem Masgud the influence of eastern classical writers is clearly evident. More cautious critics maintain that Abai adopted nazireh or the imitative tradition in eastern poetry, but applied it to new themes and subjects.

It is significant that the current emphasis on the pro-Russian and anti-Islamic tendencies of Abai has never been endorsed by Auezov, the leading man of letters in Kazakhstan, professor of the Kazakh University of Alma-Ata and a member of the Academy of Sciences. Auezov, who is a well-known authority on Abai, maintained at one stage that Abai derived his inspiration first from the Kazakh culture formed by the people themselves, second from the best examples of Arab, Iranian and Chagatai poetry and only lastly from Russian culture. "Abai," wrote Auezov, "imitated the works of the eastern poets bringing into Kazakh literature countless Persian and Arabic words. Although in his subsequent work he abandoned the imitations of his early years, he did not until the end of his days leave this shore (i.e. the literary traditions of the East). In his work the thread of the East stretches from the beginning to the end and terminates in 1902 with the poem God is true and true are his words. Now the poet begins to understand the full meaning and basic tenor of Eastern Sufist poetry." Auezov further claimed that the "presence of Sufism in the works of Abai is clearly discernible in the poem Khozimin Karasai. This romantic philosophy of the akyn Sufists is here seen not in any ambiguous light but quite clearly." Thus Auezov appeared to consider that the essence of Abai's poetry was Sufism, which arose from the ideological influence of Perso-Arabic literature. He also regarded Abai as a supporter of the pan-Islamic and pan-Turkic movements and maintained that although in his last years he turned towards Russian and European literature, he did so only because he

followed the path of rationalism laid out by the supporters and adherents of the pan-Islamic movement. With regard to the influence of Russian culture on Abai, Auezov wrote, "Abai profited little from the revolutionary-democratic poets and writers such as Pushkin and Chernichevskii whom he treated as equals and not as his superiors," and concluded that not only did he not benefit by Russian culture but adopted a hostile attitude to everything Russian. For these "vicious views" Auezov was severely criticized, but though in his more recent articles he appears to approach his subject from the required Marxist-Leninist standpoint and has refrained from repeating his assertions about Sufism and pan-Islamism, he does not in fact appear to have recanted. Other writers, however, have answered Auezov's contentions. They claim that although the influence of eastern literature on Abai was inevitable, it was not the ideological source of his work, and historically it merely conditioned his opposition to the past. The point is also made that even those of his poems which touch on the religious beliefs and the inner convictions of the poet have nothing in common with the "bookish teaching" of Islam, for Abai was a rationalist and considered religion to be only a conventional basis for human morality. Quotations are taken from his work to show that he derided the mercenary piety of the mullahs, whom he is said to have described as "voracious parasites with the wide gullet of a black kite."

Apart from poetry Abai also wrote a series of philosophical moralistic exhortations with the title of Gakliya. These are said to be distinguished by the polish and perfection of their style and the wisdom of their aphorisms, many of which have become common currency in the Kazakh literary language.

Abai's language by its closeness to the vernacular, its colour, raciness, and simplicity is said to represent the highwater mark of the Kazakh literary language of the nineteenth century.

Translations

During his creative period, Abai translated a number of Russian works into Kazakh. In translating Krylov he altered the didactic part of the fables reworking them into new epigrams to conform with the customs and understanding of his people. With "great thoroughness" he also translated over thirty of Lermontov's poems and of these The Dagger, Alone I tread the path, Dary Tereka, The Sail, and excerpts from The Demon have to this day remained unsurpassed. Among his other translations from Russian in his "inspired retelling" of Eugene Onegin. Abai's version took the form of a correspondence between Onegin and Tatyana, but he did not alter the character, appearance or attributes of the characters in the smallest degree. Abai also translated into Kazakh the Russian translations of the works of Byron and Goethe.

Most of Abai's works have at various stages been translated into

Russian and in 1945 a selection of his verse in a single volume was published in Moscow. The translations appear to be supple and well rendered and are peculiarly Russian in spirit.

Conclusion

While there is some academic difference of opinion about the literary technique adopted by Abai, the articles and encomiums published on the occasion of his anniversary are at one in insisting on his active association with the early revolutionary stirrings which preceded the coming into power of the Soviet regime. Accounts of his anti-muslim and pro-Russian proclivities do not accord with the opinions previously expressed by such a leading Kazakh authority as Professor Auezov. How far Auezov has since changed his views cannot be determined with precision, but he still retains his place as an important figure in the Kazakh and all-Union literary and academic world.

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K A Z A K H S T A N

P R O G R E S S O F T H E N E W D R I V E F O R G R A I N

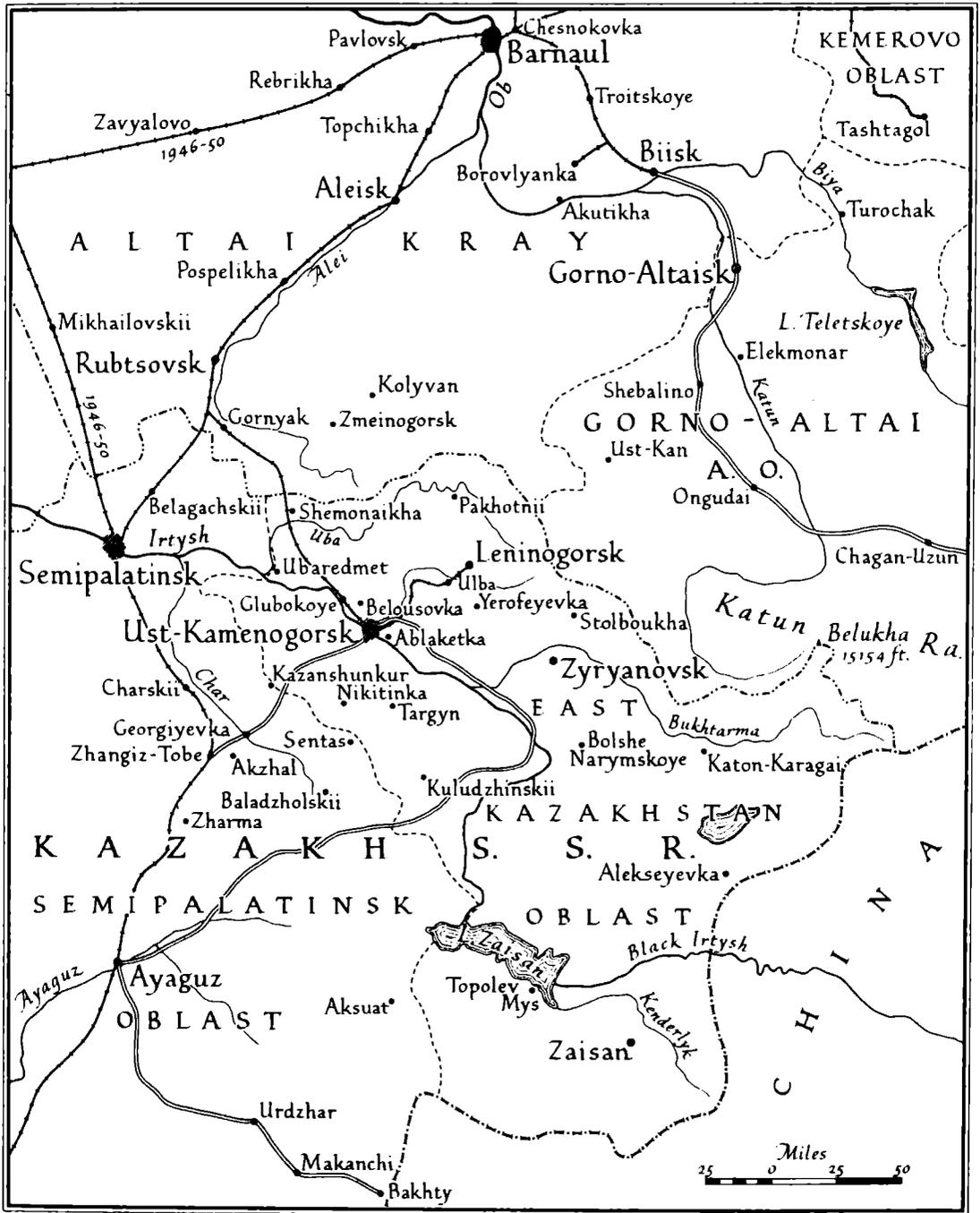
Introduction - I. General results in 1954: - Immigrants - New sovkhos settlements - Agricultural equipment - Agricultural techniques - Expansion of the MTS - Dealing with the harvest - II. Oblast results in 1954: - Akmolinsk - Kustanai - Pavlodar - III. Plans for the future: - Scientific activities - Targets for 1955 - Targets for 1956-57 - Conclusions.

On 10th August 1954 it was announced that the target for ploughing up virgin and derelict land had been achieved by 103.7 per cent; that is, instead of the 6,300,000 hectares planned, 6,522,000 had in fact been put under the plough. Of this area, 1,500,000 hectares - that is twice the originally planned amount - had already been sown to grain.

This is a considerable achievement for a country that until recently was considered to be the chief stock-rearing area of the Soviet Union but not an essentially agricultural region. Although over the last forty years the area under crops has risen from 4,194,000 hectares in 1913 to 9,746,000 hectares in 1953, it has been estimated that in the latter year some 17 m. hectares of potentially suitable arable land existed in the republic. In the Kokchetav oblast, for instance, although the area under cultivation has increased by 81.6 per cent since before the war, crops cover only 28 per cent of the land suitable for agriculture.

The figures given the magazine Sotsialisticheskoye Selskoye Khozyaistvo (Socialist Agriculture) for the distribution of arable, derelict and virgin land in 1953 in the oblasts now concerned in the drive for grain are the following (figures in million hectares):

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Arable land</u>	<u>Derelict land</u>	<u>Virgin land</u>	<u>Total</u>
Kustanai	1.6	0.9	2.2	4.7
North-Kazakhstan	1.2	0.4	0.7	2.3
Kokchetav	1.3	0.5	1.7	3.5
Akmolinsk	1.5	0.7	2.3	4.5
Pavlodar	1.1	0.8	1.7	3.6
Karaganda	0.7	0.2	0.3	1.2
Semipalatinsk	0.6	0.4	0.1	1.1
	8.0	3.9	9.0	20.9



Royal Geographical Society

ALTAI REGION

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Arable land</u>	<u>Derelict land</u>	<u>Virgin land</u>	<u>Total</u>
(Carried forward)	8.0	3.9	9.0	20.9
East-Kazakhstan	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.9
West-Kazakhstan	0.8	0.6	0.7	2.1
Aktyubinsk	0.6	0.8	2.2	3.6
<hr/>				
Total	10.0	5.5	12.0	27.5
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Of these oblasts the most important role in the new drive for grain is played by North-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav, Akmolinsk, Kustanai, Pavlodar, and East-Kazakhstan, which are predominantly black earth areas.

I. General Results in 1954

The task of ploughing up some 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. hectares of virgin and derelict land was accomplished by the 1,699 kolkhozes, 283 MTS, 124 formerly established sovkhoses and the 92 new sovkhoses of Kazakhstan. Of the total area, the kolkhozes ploughed 4,407,000 hectares, and the sovkhoses 2,115,562 hectares. In the spring of 1954 the new sovkhoses had already sowed 77,000 hectares to wheat, and the total area under crops in Kazakhstan rose by 15 per cent as compared to 1953.

Various ministries of the Union and of Kazakhstan have been criticized for "grave mistakes in the organization of the cultivation of the virgin soil areas in Kazakhstan." The new sovkhoses have been created too slowly, there are not enough skilled workers and technicians, and housing and amenities are inadequate. Mistakes have been made in the selection of land for cultivation: sometimes tracts of saline soil or tracts too small in area have been allocated; and too frequently the wrong agricultural techniques have been applied, such as late harrowing or shallow ploughing.

Immigrants

Such a huge undertaking has necessitated the movement of large numbers of settlers to Kazakhstan. By August 1954, 70,000 immigrants had arrived in Kazakhstan; these included mechanics, tractor and combine operators, agronomists, and workers of all descriptions; many of them were members of the Komsomol and almost all came as pioneers without their families. In the last few months, however, a different type of immigrant has been arriving: these are mostly peasants bringing with them their families and their belongings. Thus in September 1954, 1,000 such colonists and their families arrived from the Ukraine and Belorussia to settle in the north-eastern part of Kazakhstan, and 3,000

more families were expected the same month. By the end of 1954, 12,000 Ukrainian families were expected in the Kustanai oblast alone.

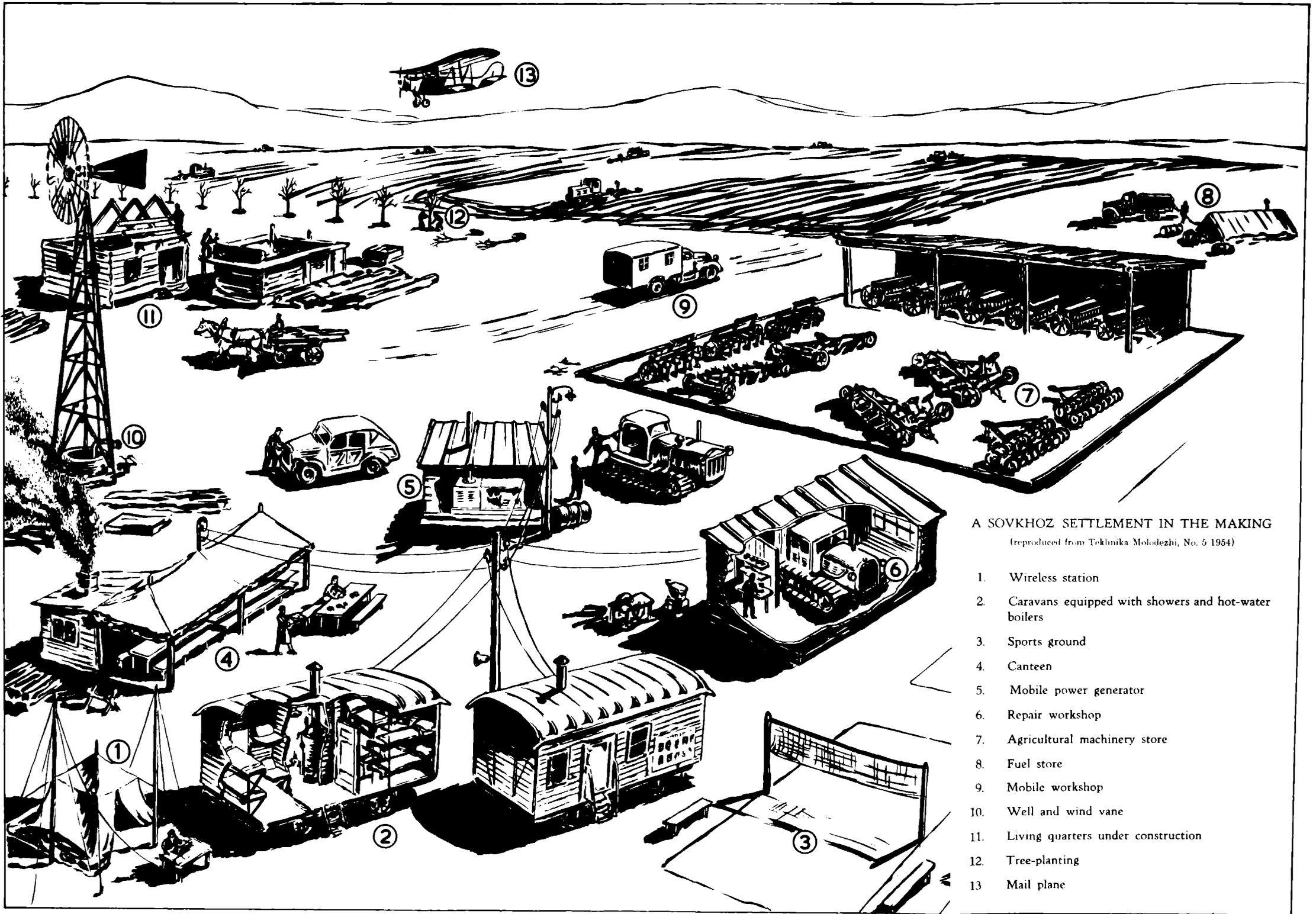
As most of the early immigrants were men, women were outnumbered by twenty to one. Recently appeals have been published in such magazines as Rabotnitsa (The Woman Worker) calling for more girls to come to the virgin lands area. Girls both individually and in groups are now reported to be arriving, and many married men are sending for their families to join them in the new lands.

The new sovkhos settlements

Many reports and stories about the ninety-two new sovkhoses appear in the Soviet daily and periodic press. They emphasize the hard living conditions of the settlers, the lack of amenities, the delays in house building, and the inadequacy of health services and cultural facilities. At the same time progress is being made, gradually prefabricated houses are being put up, bath-houses and libraries are organized, and canteens, clubs and shops are taking form. It is planned that eventually all the new sovkhoses are to be supplied with electric power; in the meantime mobile generators of 15 and 30 kw. are being used. Mobile kitchens are supplied by the engineering works at Kuibyshev and Cherepanov; 350 were sent in May 1954 and 150 more were to follow immediately.

Housing appears to be the most serious difficulty, and in August many of the settlers were still living in tents and caravans. Considerable government grants have been allocated for housing in the new lands area, and pre-fabricated houses containing eight flats, four flats, or single flats are being supplied as fast as possible. There is, however, a shortage of building materials, of bricks, stones, tiles and timber, and a dearth of carpenters and other skilled workmen. The prefabricated houses frequently arrive without foundation materials and thus are temporarily assembled on poles, leaving a space to be filled in later by the foundation. This method, comments Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, saves time, labour and materials.

In many districts water supplies are not adequate. Frequently the tractor teams working on the outlying lands of a new sovkhos have to go twenty to twenty-five kilometres to the nearest well. Sometimes melted snow collected in pools and crevices can be used but even so last June some tractor teams had water for only fifteen to twenty days. The underground water resources of Kazakhstan have apparently not been thoroughly studied, and prospecting is urgently called for. Even when water has been located, drilling equipment is not always readily available; for instance in North-Kazakhstan there is plenty of drilling equipment but so far no attempts have been made to send it to the new lands area.



A SOVKHOZ SETTLEMENT IN THE MAKING

(reproduced from *Tekhnika Molodezhi*, No. 5 1954)

1. Wireless station
2. Caravans equipped with showers and hot-water boilers
3. Sports ground
4. Canteen
5. Mobile power generator
6. Repair workshop
7. Agricultural machinery store
8. Fuel store
9. Mobile workshop
10. Well and wind vane
11. Living quarters under construction
12. Tree-planting
13. Mail plane

Every new sovkhos is, however, visited by teams of scientists and experts, engineers, agronomists, soil experts and hydro-geologists whose duty it is to draw up soil maps and schemes of crop rotation, to locate water supplies and to help solve local problems generally.

Agricultural equipment

During 1954 large quantities of agricultural machinery, including 53,000 tractors, 13,000 combine harvesters and 23,000 five-share ploughs were sent to Kazakhstan. All this machinery is specially adapted for use on the immense flat fields of Kazakhstan; heavy disc harrows, rollers and cultivators, and five-share ploughs with an almost two-metre span are essential for speedy working of the virgin soil. The S-6 and S-4 combine harvesters are specially designed to cut the crops low on the stalk so as to increase the amount of straw harvested.

To care for this machinery, mobile repair shops mounted on GAZ-51 lorries are being supplied by the Mashinostroitel works at Omsk and by the Vavly works of Vladimir. The first batch of these repair shops was sent to Kazakhstan in May 1954, and 300 were to be received by the end of the year.

Agricultural techniques

If virgin soil is ploughed only to a depth of ten or twelve centimetres as was the practice formerly, the soil is exhausted after only a few years. With modern agricultural machinery, however, it is possible to plough to a depth of twenty to twenty-two centimetres which brings much better results. An average yield of fourteen centners per hectare can be expected.

Experience has shown that the ploughing of virgin soil should be done immediately after the spring sowing. The earlier the soil is ploughed the higher the yield the next season. One 100 hectare tract of virgin land was ploughed in August and another in October; in the first tract the yield was 10.5 centners per hectare, and in the second eight centners per hectare. Ploughing in May and June gives still higher results.

Expansion of the MTS

In 1954 308 m. rubles were allocated for the building of fifteen new MTS and twelve new MZhs in the Kazakh SSR. This figure is a very great increase on the 1953 grant of only 17.5 m. rubles. This year's grant was to provide for the building of 76 workshops, 160 tractor garages, 125 combine harvester garages, 270 sheds for machinery, 76 stores for spare parts, 76 lorry garages, 57 fuel supply bases, 270 concrete platforms and 110,000 square metres of living accommodation.

Construction is, however, proceeding slowly; and although workshops, garages, electric power-stations, water towers and individual houses for MTS workers are reported to be under construction, by 1st July 1954 only 15 per cent of the building plan had been achieved. The work of the MTS is evidently hampered by lack of fuel and of spare parts, and by slowness in effecting repairs; in this way many hundreds of working hours have been lost. Last summer many MTS were behind schedule for the 1955 sowing, but intensive efforts improved the position later.

Dealing with the 1954 harvest

Grain is loaded straight from the combine harvesters on to lorries which take it to the State supply bases, which are responsible for its drying, cleaning and processing. Lorry transport is directed by the Union Supply Transport organization (Soyuzzagottransport) and the Sovkhoz Transport organization (Sovkhoztrans).

In the course of 1954, 4,250 "mechanized threshing floors", 1,205 grain dryers, 5,000 granaries and 35 elevators were to be built in Kazakhstan. This work was undertaken by industrial plants of Karaganda, Alma-Ata, Ust-Kamenogorsk, Semipalatinsk and Chimkent. But on 10th September 1954, although two thousand skilled builders and engineers from all parts of the Union were employed on these tasks, 33 grain elevators were still under construction. One thousand more skilled workers were reported to be on their way to Kazakhstan.

II. Oblast Results in 1954

Akmolinsk oblast

By August 1954 twenty-seven new sovkhoses had already been established in this oblast, and 15,000 immigrants had come to join the MTS and new sovkhoses. The first party of girls had arrived from Moscow, and 1,800 combine harvester operators had arrived from the Ukraine. The oblast now has 3,500 combine harvesters. 1,383,000 hectares have been ploughed up; and 1,200,000 hectares are reported as already being worked.

There are complaints, however, of slowness in the construction of MTS, and in fact only 7.9 per cent of the year's target had been fulfilled by 1st July 1954. Almost all the MTS and sovkhoses of the oblast are short of spare parts, such as bearings, bolts, and springs for the S-80 tractors; these parts have a maximum life of 1,000 hours on the heavy virgin soil. Cases are reported of misdirection: thus the Astrakhanskii sovkhos received a case of springs from the Chelyabinsk tractor works when it badly needed bearings. Agricultural machinery, especially disc harrows and ploughs, and occasionally tractors, are said to be of poor

quality. The Kievskii sovkhos complained to the Chelyabinsk tractor works about the poor quality of some of the S-80 tractors delivered, but their complaint remained unanswered; similarly their request for spare parts for ploughs addressed to the Rostselmash works received no reply.

The Izobilny sovkhos is frequently mentioned in the press. Situated on the Seleta river, a hundred kilometres from the nearest railway station at Eremen-Tau on the Akmolinsk-Pavlodar line, it has four hundred workers and 100,000 hectares of land. Five tractor teams have been organized, and last spring 1,000 hectares were sown to wheat, 40 to oats and 20 to maize; sunflowers, melons and vegetables are also grown. Last spring the sovkhos receive 80 pre-fabricated houses, 50 tents, 23 S-80 and DT-54 tractors, 12 lorries, and a quantity of agricultural machinery. There are now at the settlement a shop, a canteen, and a reading-room.

Kustanai oblast

In August 1954 the first colonists from Cherkassy oblast arrived in the Kustanai oblast and by the end of the year 12,000 Ukrainian families were expected. Over $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. hectares of black and chestnut soil rich in humus are available in this oblast for reclamation. Construction of MTS has, however, been slow: by 1st July 1954 only 10.5 per cent of the plan had been achieved.

Some kolkhozes of this oblast have obtained high harvest yields. At the Chapayev kolkhoz a 306 hectare field of derelict land sown with Akmolinka-1 wheat yielded 22 centners per hectare. Spring crops of the same wheat yielded 18 centners per hectare. At the Lenin kolkhoz 19 centners per hectare were harvested from a 550 hectare tract of virgin and derelict land.

Unsatisfactory conditions are reported from the Mikhailovo MTS of the Mendygaryn raion. Eight wells should have been bored here but so far the Ministry of Agriculture has failed to supply the necessary drilling equipment, and water is thus extremely short. Wireless communication is essential to provide a link between the MTS and its tractor teams working on outlying land, but there are only 14 sets at the MTS and most of them do not function owing to the lack of accumulators. No tents or caravans for the tractor teams have as yet been received and there is a shortage of such necessities as boilers, cooking utensils, water-bottles and thermoses. A thermos, comments Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, is evidently still considered an exclusively urban luxury.

Pavlodar oblast

In this oblast the area under crops increased by 300,000 hectares

in 1954. Harvest results have been excellent, frequently yields of 25 to 30 centners per hectare being obtained. It is to this oblast that the largest number of immigrants are sent. As in many other oblasts construction of MTS has been very slow, and by 1st July 1954 only 5.5 per cent of the plan had been achieved.

In August an article in the daily newspaper Trud (Work) described the administrative muddles that caused a bottle-neck of machinery at Pavlodar station: "Hundreds of new combine-harvesters have been asked for by the new sovkhoses Trainloads of combines are arriving at Pavlodar station; these come from the Ukraine, Belorussia, and from the Rostov and Ryazan oblasts. But instead of being unloaded and sent immediately to the sovkhoses the combines are parked on the sidings. All along the tracks for almost two kilometres are scattered the various parts of these machines. For hours at a time these parts are hunted for. Finally a number of combines are re-assembled and their drivers are eager to leave the sidings. But no. The mechanic of the Pavlodar MTS declares that they do not want any more combines, and the regional agricultural administration confirms that the Pavlodar, Turksibskii and Osmeryzhskii MTS have cancelled their orders. A telephone conversation ensues: 'The Pavlodar MTS? Call the director. Comrad Ponyatayev? You are to receive fourteen more combines. Why won't you take them? What do you mean, you don't want them? What, let them remain at the station?' When asked why all these MTS do not need any more combines, comrade Tolstykh, the deputy chief of the regional agricultural administration replied: 'Today we are being given so many machines that with efficient organization the MTS could have harvested all their grain crops in a fortnight. But then someone thought there were too few sheds. Are we to pile all the grain in the open and be responsible for it?' 'But in a week or so, mass losses of grain will occur in the fields!' 'It is one thing to lose grain on a threshing floor, and quite another to lose it in the field,' answered the chief agronomist of the regional agricultural administration, Zhuravel. 'We are accustomed,' he continued, 'to harvest for two months.' But by harvesting like that only one half of the grain is collected. And even after these explanations it is not clear why no attempt is made to put into operation the hundreds of combines which have been sent here. Even those combines which have left the station are idle. At the Maxim Gorkii MTS, for instance, eleven agricultural machines remained idle for three days, and eighteen new combines, including two self-propelled ones, have been parked for a week near the workshop of the Nedarovo MTS. Although it is here that the richest wheat crops are being obtained, harvesting is progressing very slowly in the Pavlodar oblast, and this is disgraceful," concludes the article.

Complaints are also heard from the Kuibyshev sovkhos. Here 600 workers, many of whom are expecting their families to join them, are housed in 26 pre-fabricated houses, 2 caravans and 13 large tents. The

Ministry of Sovkhozes of the Kazakhstan SSR is blamed for paying little attention to the new sovkhozes. At this same sovkhov there are only 14 tractors and no repair shops, and coupling equipment is lacking with the result that a tractor can only pull one five-share plough instead of two. This sovkhov has 25,000 hectares of land, and in spite of its many difficulties the 1954 target of ploughing 13,000 hectares was overfulfilled.

III. Plans for the Future

Scientific activities

During the summer of 1954, 65 m. hectares were surveyed in Kazakhstan and 11.8 m. were found suitable for future reclamation. Six institutes of the Kazakh branch of the all-Union Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences (VASKhIL) and six institutes of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, together with several other scientific bodies of Kazakhstan, are taking part in research on the many problems facing land reclamation and the construction of new settlements in Kazakhstan. Four selection stations, two experimental stations, and two experimental fields have been established in the virgin lands area. Particular attention is being paid to the problems of the selection of suitable land, of raising grain yields, and of locating underground water, and many expeditions have been sent out. In the next two to three years the Institute of Agriculture will complete a description of all the land to be brought into cultivation in the next five or six years, it will study crop rotation, agricultural techniques suitable for various grains, the use of fertilizers, and it will work on the improvement of different types of wheat.

Targets for 1955

In 1955 the area under grain is to reach 6,358,000 hectares; 2,263,000 hectares in the sovkhozes, and 4,095,000 in the kolkhozes of the republic. In 1955 the grain crop should thus rise by between 8.8 and 9.6 m. tons.

The following areas will be sown to grain in 1955 in the various oblasts:

Kustanai	1,000,000
North-Kazakhstan	350,000
Kokchetav	700,000
Akmolinsk	725,000
Pavlodar	650,000
Karaganda	75,000
Semipalatinsk	60,000
East-Kazakhstan	40,000
West-Kazakhstan	250,000
Aktyubinsk	250,000

As the 1954 target for ploughing 6,300,000 hectares has been overfulfilled, it is reasonable to suppose that the target set for 1955 is well on the way to being achieved.

Targets for 1956-57

After the bringing into cultivation of the some 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. hectares ploughed in 1954, a further 6 or 7 m. hectares will be cultivated in 1956-57. Thus by the end of 1956 it is hoped that over 12 m. hectares will have been brought under the plough since the start of the new drive for grain. Of this area the Kustanai oblast will account for 2.7 m. hectares, and the Pavlodar and Aktyubinsk oblasts 1.5 m. hectares each. There will by then be 300 sovkhoses in Kazakhstan with a total area of 5 m. hectares. In the Akmolinsk oblast 43 new sovkhoses will have been organized with a total of 1.7 m. hectares of land. Reclamation will be concentrated on all remaining tracts of black and chestnut soil. The drive will be extended to the southern oblasts of Kazakhstan: in the South-Kazakhstan oblast nine new sovkhoses are to be created and 325,000 hectares brought under the plough; in the Dzhambul oblast nearly 2 m. hectares have been surveyed and 430,000 hectares selected for reclamation.

Conclusions

It seems clear that the drive for the reclamation of land for grain is no short term policy. Plans have been made for extensive tree-planting in the grain oblast of Kazakhstan; some 10 m. hectares of State land are to be gradually planted with young trees. Five forestry stations have already been established in the Pavlodar, West-Kazakhstan and Semipalatinsk oblasts which will be responsible for planting 200,000 hectares with trees. Another twenty forestry stations are to be created in the near future. In the Akmolinsk, Pavlodar, Kokchetav, Semipalatinsk, and East-Kazakhstan oblasts plantations will be mostly of conifers; elsewhere they will be of birch, acacia and currant. Such a development together with the targets announced for the next three years, the efforts to attract married settlers and more women to the new lands, the mass migration of peasant families from the over-populated areas of the Ukraine and Belorussia, and the plans for building and supplying amenities to the new settlements and MTS seem to show that northern Kazakhstan is to become one of the permanent granaries of the USSR.

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