



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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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.

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I N D E X T O V O L U M E I 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, Economics, Industry, Public Works and Services, Science, Social Conditions.
- 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, the republic in which each place-name occurs is as far as possible 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 III 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
Altai-svinetsstroi	Altai Lead Construction Authority
Artel	Industrial cooperative
Aryk	Small irrigation canal
Ashkhabadproyekt	Ashkhabad Planning Authority
Ashkhana	Kirgiz kitchen
Askiyabaz	Uzbek mimer
Aul	Small administrative unit, a village
Ayil	Kirgiz village
Bab	Stone statue
Bai	Feudal landlord
Bakhshi	Strolling minstrel
Balush	Kirgiz pillow
Barkhani	Shifting sands
Batyr	Kazakh warrior
Bazgan	Kirgiz term for sledge-hammer
Beit	Small Kazakh cemetery
Beshik	Cradle in a Kirgiz home
Bii	A Kazakh or Kirgiz judge (feudal period)
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
Chairiker	Farm labourer
Chapan	Kirgiz quilted cloak worn by men
Chung	Kirgiz term for miner's hack
Dast Kurchak	Uzbek hand puppets
Dekhan	Peasant
Desyatina	2.70 acres
Detgiz	Children's Literature Publishing House (Moscow)
DOSAAB	Voluntary Association for Cooperation with the Army, Air Force and Navy
Dzhastyk	Kirgiz bolster
Dzhuk	Pile of bed linen in a Kirgiz home

Energosbyt	Energy Supply Authority
Ferganavodstroï	Fergana Irrigation and Construction Authority
Gidroproyekt	Authority responsible for planning, scientific research and survey to do with irrigation
Gidroselektro	Rural Hydroelectricity Authority
Glavkinoprokat	Main Film Hire Authority
Glavmetsbyt	Main Metal Supply Authority
Glavsevtroi	Main Northern Construction Authority
Glavunivermag	Main department store
Glavvtorchermet	Main Scrap Metal Supply Authority
Glavzapstroï	Main Western Construction Authority
Gorpromkombinat	Town industrial kombinat
Gosplan	State Planning Authority
Gurkhan	Kazakh burial chamber
Hectare	2.471 acres
Kamzir	Kirgiz sleeveless apron worn by women
Kazakhknizhtorg	Kazakh book supply authority
Kazgiprovodelektro	Kazakh State Institute of Hydroelectric Planning
Kazmetalurgstroï	Kazakh Metallurgical Construction Authority
Kazpotrebsoyuz	Kazakh Cooperative Union
Kazpromstroï	Kazakh Industrial Construction Authority
Kazselektro	Kazakh Rural Electricity Authority
Kazsnabpros	Kazakh authority for the supply of school equipment
Kazsovkhozvodstroï	Kazakh Sovkhoz Water Construction Authority
Kazstroimekhanizatsiya	Kazakh Mechanization Construction Authority
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

Komuz	Kirgiz musical instrument
Koshkar-muiiz	Ram's horn
Kulu-tas	Small vertical Kazakh tombstones ornamented with reliefs and inscriptions
Kurgan	Memorial hummock surmounted by a tomb
Kus-Kanat	Bird's wing
Litgosizdat	State Literary Publishing House
Maskarabaz	Uzbek jester
Mihrab	Prayer niche in a mosque
MRS	Motor fishing station
MTS	Machine tractor station
MZhS	Mechanized animal husbandry station
Narodnaya stroika	Use of mass manual labour on construction work
Nazireh	Imitative tradition in Eastern pottery
Obkom	Oblast committee
Oblast	Administrative division of a republic
Oblastpotrebsoyuz	Oblast consumers' cooperative
Parma	Kirgiz for hand brace
Politekhizatsiy.	Practical and theoretical technical training
Pood	36-lbs.
Radio translyatsionnaya tochka	Radio relay unit
Radio uzel	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
Sagan	Small type of mausoleum
Sagana-tam	Sarcophagus
Saksaul	Halyxylon ammodendron, a hardy desert perennial

Samosval	Dumping wagon
Selenergo	Body responsible for the construction of rural hydroelectric stations
Shturmovshchina	Rush tactics, shock-work
Shuga	Sludge ice
Shyrdak	Brightly coloured felt carpet
Sibdalstroï	Siberian and Far Eastern Building Authority
Skopom	Working in gangs
Sovkhoz	State farm
Sovkhoztrans	Sovkhoz transport authority
Sovkimetal	Soviet-Chinese Metal Authority
Sovkitneft	Soviet-Chinese Oil Authority
Soyuzdorproyekt	Union Road-planning Authority
Soyuzzagottransport	Union Supply Transport Authority
Sredazgidrostroï	Central Asian Authority for Construction Works relating to Irrigation Projects
Sredazgidrovodkhlpok	Central Asian Cotton Irrigation Authority
Sredazkhimmash	Central Asian Chemical Machinery Works
Sredazneft	Central Asian Oil Trust
Sredazugol	Central Asian Coal Trust
Sredazheldorstroï	Central Asian Railroad Construction Authority
Stakhanovite	Follower of Stakhanov's methods in achieving maximum output
Takyr	Layer of soil
Tamgi	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.
Turkmenneftestroï	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.
Turkmenvodstroï	Turkmen Irrigation and Construction Authority
Tush-Kiyiz	Kirgiz embroidered wall hangings
Tyundyk	Smoke-hole of a yurt
Uralsibekskavatsiya	Ural-Siberian Excavations Authority
Uravnilovka	Equal pay for unequal work
Uzbekenergo	Uzbek Electric Power Authority
Uzglavshveïprom	Uzbek general administration for the clothing industry
Uzglavknigtorg	Uzbek Main Book Trading Authority
Uzpromsovet	Uzbek Industrial Council
Valenki	Felt boots
Verst	1.067 kilometres
Vostokzagotzerno	Eastern Grain Supply Authority
Vzryvprom	Industrial blasting
Yurta	Felt tent
Zagotskot	Cattle Supply Authority
Zveno	Link; subdivision of a brigada q.v.

I V

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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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.

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

VOLUME III

EDITORIAL NOTE

During 1955 certain modifications will be introduced into Central Asian Review in response to criticisms and suggestions from readers.

As already announced in No.4 of Vol.II the system of grouping articles under republics is being abandoned in favour of grouping by subjects. It is hoped that this will result in a more comprehensive treatment of economic and to some extent of cultural developments. The growing part played by Central Asia in all-Union economy is tending to increase central control of Central Asia and Kazakhstan as an integrated regional economic unit. The same tendency is observable to a lesser degree in cultural control and direction. The new system will not, however, preclude the treatment of economic and cultural developments in individual republics where this seems appropriate.

Plans are in progress for the complete revision of the maps issued with the Review. The new maps will include more place-names and physical features, and their scales will be coordinated to facilitate reference.

Finally, a bibliographical note will be added as a permanent feature. This will include brief notices of some of the books and articles on Central Asian subjects appearing in the USSR and is designed to introduce research students to a wider range of material than it is feasible to incorporate in the body of the Review.

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I N D U S T R Y

T H I R T Y Y E A R S O F I N D U S T R I A L
D E V E L O P M E N T I N T U R K M E N I S T A N

In Tsarist times the Transcaspian territory had few industries. There were indeed some cotton-ginning mills in the irrigated districts round Ashkhabad, Merv (Mary), Bairam-Ali and Chardzhou; by-products of cotton in the form of cotton-seed oil and soap were made at Bairam-Ali; the island of Cheleken, off the east shore of the Caspian, produced some crude oil; Ashkhabad and Kizyl-Arvat had railway workshops, and Krasnovodsk and Chardzhou had ship-repairing yards. Wine was made at Ashkhabad and there were some flour mills and brick and lime works. But all these undertakings were small concerns and they supplied markets that were purely local.

With the establishment of the Turkmen SSR in 1924, the industrial picture began gradually to change. The authors of the Five-Year Plans thought in terms of setting up new industries besides expanding those that already existed. Much more cotton was grown so that more ginning mills were needed. Prospectors, geologists and mining engineers discovered resources underground of which little had hitherto been known. New oilfields were found and deposits of coal, sulphur, sodium sulphate, iodine, bromine and ozocerite. New light industries were started, and glass, footwear, silk, wool and cotton fabrics, canned fish, furs and carpets were put on the market. Today, some of the industries of Turkmenistan have an all-Union interest: crude oil, sulphur, sulphates, fish-canning, silk and cotton, karakul skins, and carpets. Others are important for Central Asia only, and to some extent for Western Siberia: glassware, pottery, fur fabrics, conveyor belting, and certain building materials.

A glance at the map of the Turkmen republic shows that it is substantially a vast desert, fringed by a railway system shaped like the letter U. And, naturally, it is along this railway system - with one exception - that the republic has grown industrially.

Turkmenistan's western boundary lies along the Caspian Sea. Of recent years its water level has fallen so low that what was once the Kara-Bogaz-Gol bay has now become a lake. As this lake is almost

entirely surrounded by hot desert country, its waters evaporate rapidly, and to prevent its drying up completely, more water has to be pumped in from the sea. Evaporation leaves behind deposits of sodium sulphate, and these have been exploited. Large quarries are being worked and a sulphate kombinat has been built. Production methods have, however, proved somewhat unsatisfactory, owing largely to the shortage of soft water, and the authorities recently decided to introduce a new technique.

Some fifty miles south of the lake lies Krasnovodsk, a busy rail terminus and seaport. Nearby lie the Nebit-Dag oilfields; these fields, whose output is something like $3\frac{1}{4}$ million tons a year, were described in a recent issue of this Review (Vol.II, No.2). Krasnovodsk also has factories for canning, salting and smoking fish.

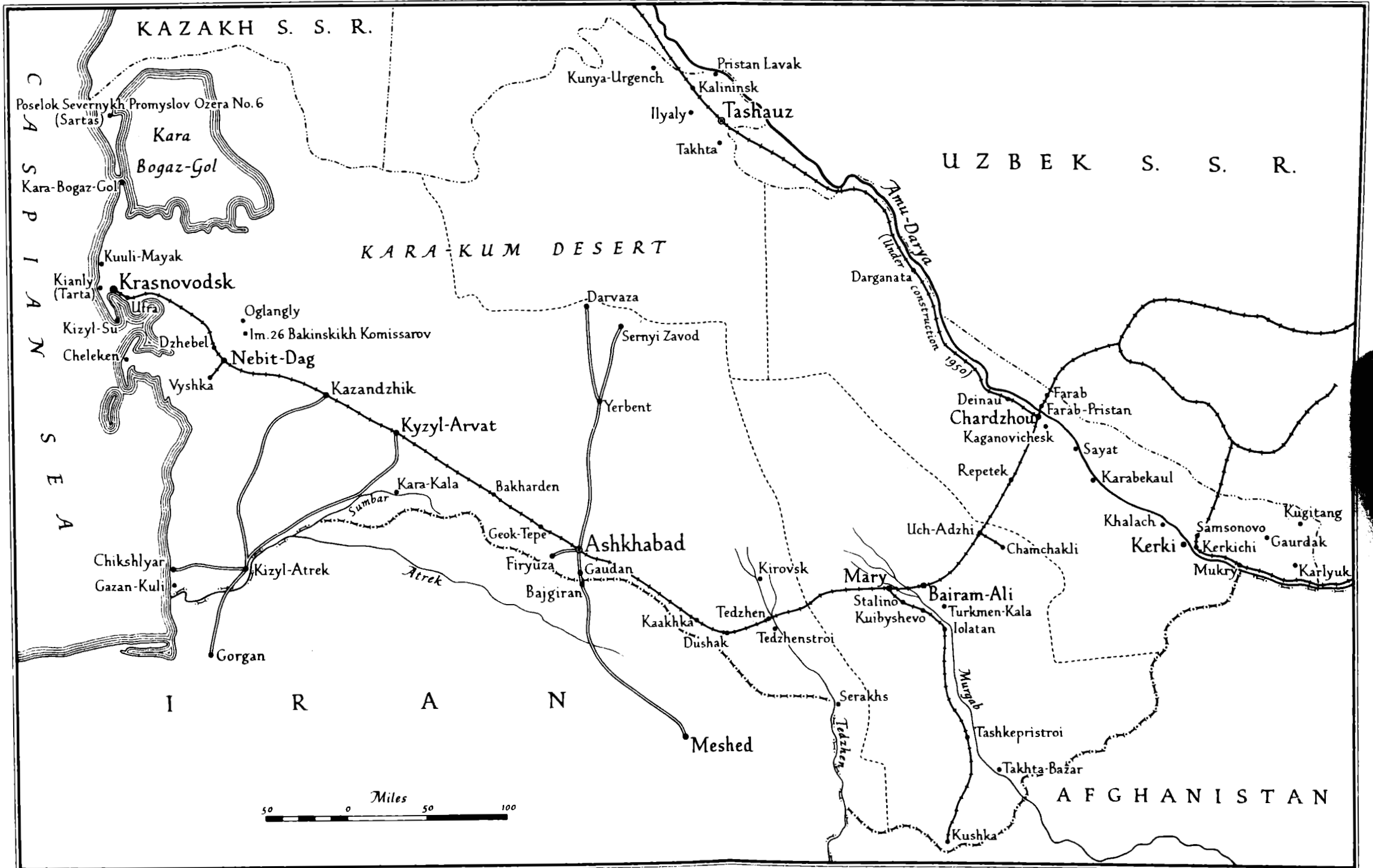
Until recently coal was mined in the Yagman field which lies between Krasnovodsk and Nebit-Dag. Mining ceased when the seams were worked out, but some geologists think that there is still enough coal in the field to justify its being reopened. This area also contains supplies of natural gas, and this is being used in Nebit-Dag for both industrial and domestic purposes.

It has already been mentioned that before the Revolution there were railway workshops at Kizyl-Arvat. Since then they have been greatly enlarged and they are now one of the republic's biggest engineering works. Of these works a correspondent of Turkmenskaya Iskra writes that here the long-condemned practice of shock-work (shturmovshchina) has raised its head and the working quotas are not usually achieved until the last ten days of the month. And the works did not fulfil their 1953 programme. At Kizyl-Arvat there are also factories for processing meat and canning fish. At Bezmein cement is made.

A hundred and forty miles down the railway line lies the republic's capital, Ashkhabad (see Vol.I, No.2 of this Review). It is a growing industrial city, and it produces a wide range of manufactures.

A high proportion of the city's labour force is engaged in metal working and engineering. The Krasnyi Molot and Krasnyi Metallist factories make water-tanks, oil barrels, hardware and hollow-ware. An offshoot of the latter factory has recently been laid down and it will have foundries and engineering shops for producing tools, hollow-ware and other metal goods for the general market. Other factories turn out agricultural implements and diesel engines. There are several shops that repair motor vehicles, and at the city's No.1 shop a new diamond boring machine, installed in 1953, has raised the output of cylinders two and a half times.

TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



According to the local press these factories do not always produce their goods quickly enough and their quality is not up to standard. Turkmenskaya Iskra said that by the 20th May 1954 the Krasnyi Molot plant had delivered only 1,565 barrels and 16 tanks out of its annual quota of 5000 barrels and 166 tanks. Still worse, the Krasnyi Metallist plant had not even begun to make tanks at all, though they were needed urgently. "Goods produced by these factories are of very poor quality, but the chief of a department at the Ministry of Local Industries, Comrade Feinberg, instead of organizing the manufacture of barrels for petroleum products, justifies the factories' directors by saying that they lack the necessary machine tools."

Another of Ashkhabad's leading industries is textiles. Cotton, silk and wool are processed here. Workers at the Dzerzhinskii mill, where cotton is both spun and woven, produced in 1952 about $1\frac{1}{4}$ million metres of fabric more than their allotted quantity - an increase of 41.7 per cent over 1950. In 1953 they did still better and in the first quarter of 1954 they turned out 471,000 metres above their quota, and at 97.6 per cent of the previous cost. This mill has its own housing estate, still under construction. Last year 12 blocks of 10 flats each were ready for occupation; roads were asphalted and some thousand young trees planted along them. Gardens have been laid out and have about 70,000 shrubs growing in the beds.

Silk is reeled at the Eighth of March mill. This mill was started 26 years ago and since then has handled more than 500 million rubles' worth of raw material. Output increased as time went on and it is now $6\frac{1}{2}$ times what it was in the first year. Quality has improved too. Nevertheless the mill did not reach its 1953 target and, according to the press, it shared with a similar mill at Chardzhou the responsibility for a loss of several hundred thousand rubles.

Wool processing takes the form of wool washing and carding, and the making of knitted wear. Ashkhabad factories are equipped with modern automatic machines for knitting hosiery, but Turkmenskaya Iskra says that the quality is poor. It alleges that the works have no proper dyeing shops and hence resort to makeshifts; fabrics are dyed in a boiler and hung out to dry on a fence in the yard. What is more - "shock work is the usual routine, the organization of work is far from satisfactory, and a general slackness prevails."

One of the city's newest industrial plants is a large footwear factory. It is equipped with up-to-date automatic machinery and went into production early in 1954. It is expected to turn out something like 500,000 pairs of boots and shoes every year. A new mechanized

glass factory was also due to start production in 1954.

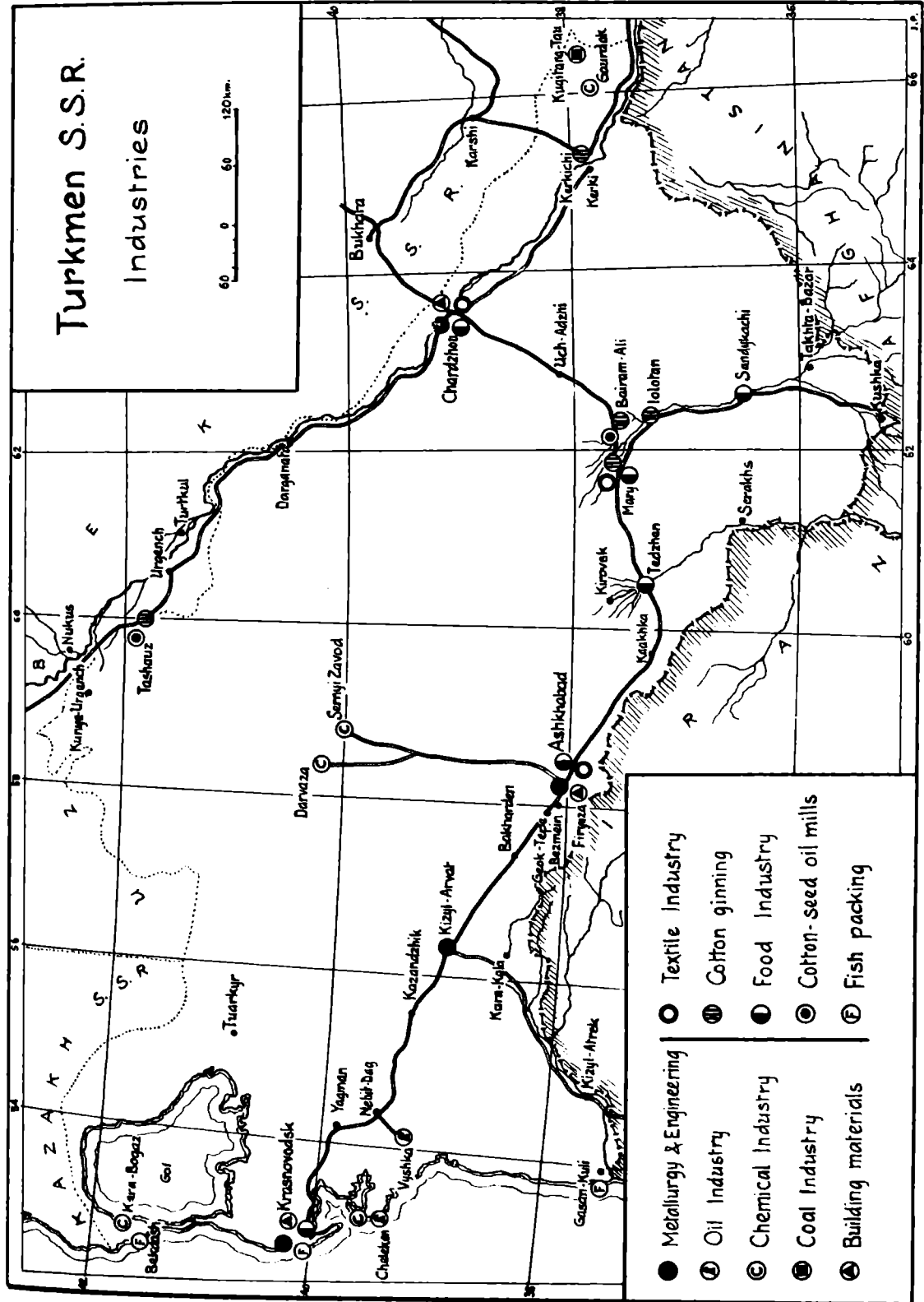
Ashkhabad's foodstuffs industry includes a meat-packing factory, some fish-canning plants, distilleries, wine factories and some other food-processing undertakings. There are 121 workshops - for cobblers, tailors, locksmiths, mechanics, and bicycle repairers - most of which lie in the centre of the city.

Some 150 miles north of the capital, in the heart of the Kara-Kum desert, sulphur is mined at Darvaza and Sernyi Zavod (Russian for "sulphur factory"). It is smelted at the latter town, and as there is no railway here, the cakes are transported to the capital by road. The building of houses for the miners at these two places was recently reported.

A little over 200 miles east of Ashkhabad lies the cotton-growing valley of the Murgab river. Here - at Iolatan, Bairam-Ali and the railway junction of Mary - are three of the republic's largest ginning mills. All three were refitted with up-to-date machinery in 1953, including new down separators which have raised output by 18 to 20 per cent. At the Mary and Bairam-Ali mills cotton-seed is now weighed automatically - an innovation that is saving a lot of labour. Mary also has factories for canning fruit and meat, and a new meat-canning plant was due to be opened in 1954 at Sandykachi, south of Iolatan. (Readers of Vol.II No.3 of this Review will recall that Mary lies on the line of the projected Kara-Kum canal, the eastern portion of which is already under construction.)

North-east of Mary, 140 miles away, is the railway junction, river port and industrial town of Chardzhou. It lies on the Amu-Darya river (Oxus) and, as has already been noted, it possessed ship-repairing yards before the Revolution. Today, cotton ginning and engineering are its main industries. Besides its locomotive-repair works, and shops for servicing agricultural machinery and motor vehicles, Chardzhou is to have a large excavator works, which, in spite of being under construction for seven years, were still not completed by April 1954. Nevertheless they were sufficiently advanced to start building the "PZU-Chardzhou 1" 300 h.p. diesel suction-dredgers for use on the Kara-Kum canal, in addition to their routine task of servicing diesel engines and repairing excavators for cotton growing. The delay in completing the works has been commented on in the newspapers, which point out that although two official bodies - the Turkmen authority for the mechanization of excavation and the Directorate of Water Supply Construction of the Ministry of Agriculture - are jointly responsible for their construction, neither of them will commit itself to saying

Turkmen S.S.R. Industries



- Metallurgy & Engineering
- Ⓐ Oil Industry
- Ⓒ Chemical Industry
- Ⓓ Coal Industry
- Ⓔ Building materials
- Ⓘ Textile Industry
- Ⓜ Cotton ginning
- Ⓛ Food Industry
- Ⓞ Cotton-seed oil mills
- ⓔ Fish packing

when the works will be completed.

Chardzhou's No.1 cotton-ginning mill is among the largest in the republic, and, like those at other important ginning centres, has recently been refitted with modern machines, including new diesel engines which have increased output capacity by 50 per cent. But according to Turkmenskaya Iskra, despite the new machinery, things were not going well at the mill. "Frequent accidents and breakages of machinery are reported from No.1 Chardzhou cotton-ginning mill; these have become a real scourge. During the first six months of 1953, 26 accidents resulting in suspensions of work for 2 to 3 hours each took place, and how many others were there of less than an hour?" The mill's director and chief engineer are said to attribute these accidents to obsolete equipment.

The processing of jute is something new for Turkmenistan, and it is at Chardzhou that a jute mill has been started. Other industrial undertakings in the town include a silk-winding mill, tanneries, cotton-wool and knitted wear mills, and fruit-canning factories. There is also an oxygen factory which supplies both industry and agriculture. Early in 1954 7,000 cubic metres of oxygen were delivered to the MTS of the Chardzhou and Tashauz oblasts.

In the south-eastern corner of the republic sulphur, copper and salt are mined round Gaurdak and Kugitang-Tau. The sulphur is smelted locally. There are some coal deposits at Kugitang-Tau but as it has no railway, their working is on a small scale. This may however change before long as a branch line was started here early in 1954. Meanwhile houses are being built for miners at Gaurdak, besides a dispensary, a kindergarten and a creche.

In the north-eastern part of the republic the biggest town is Tashauz. Situated on the Amu-Darya river, it was to have been the starting point of the projected Main Turkmen Canal, but in the absence of news about this gigantic undertaking, the future development of Tashauz must be considered as uncertain. At present it has two cotton-ginning mills, both of which were reconstructed in 1953, resulting in a 20-25 per cent increase of output. By-products from these mills are made into cotton-seed oil and soap at other factories in the town, but at the oil factory production has been somewhat irregular.

Such is the general picture of the republic's industry today. Statistics of the output of the various industries in 1950 show the following percentage increases over 1945:

Crude oil	220
Sulphur	60
Electric power	68
Raw silk	74
Soap	150
Knitted wear	670
Cotton wool	150
Cotton yarn	130

In 1952, however, although the industrial programme was in the main carried out, there were 20 undertakings that did not produce their quotas. The shortage was estimated at some 155 million rubles.

It seems that industrial progress in general has been much hampered by the backwardness of the building industry. There have been serious shortages of timber, bricks, concrete blocks, tiles and cement, as a result of which the General Directorate of Industrial Building Materials completed only 59 per cent of its 1953 programme. It was much the same with the Ministry of Civil Housing Construction, though they did somewhat better at 87 per cent. The trouble appears to be that there are not enough factories producing building materials. According to one reporter—"A rapid development of the building materials industry is thus necessary here. In addition to the goods it already produces, there is an urgent need for ceramic blocks, tiles, timber substitutes, insulating materials etc. Experience has shown that though between 1946 and 1950 production programmes were fully carried out, today's demand greatly exceeds the supply."

As to the future of the republic's industry, there are some ambitious projects in hand. It is proposed to generate twice the amount of electric power that is being generated today. Power-stations are planned for the oilfield area, for Ashkhabad, Chardzhou and the Mary oblast. This will entail the development of the coalfields at Kugitang-Tau, Tuarkyr and Yagman. The output of bricks is to be trebled. Large footwear and furniture factories, dairies and bakeries are to be built at Ashkhabad and Chardzhou, and a superphosphate factory at Gaurdak. The present production of canned vegetables is to be multiplied by nine in 1955 and the cotton mills and knitted-wear factories are to double their output. The silk-reeling mills are to be supplemented by new plants which will spin and weave silk, and there is to be a similar innovation in the processing of wool. And, finally, there is the Kara-Kum Canal project which can hardly fail to exert a strong influence on the republic's economy.

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INDUSTRY

SREDAZNEFT: THE CENTRAL
ASIAN OIL AUTHORITY

Organization and development - Andizhanneft - Kalininneft -
Termezneft - Refining.

The Sredazneft authority (i.e. Central Asian Oil authority) works fourteen oilfields in Uzbekistan, Kirgizia, and Tadzhikistan through an organization of three subsidiaries - Andizhanneft, Kalininneft, and Termezneft - together with six ancillary bodies - Sredaznefterazvedka (Central Asian Oil Prospecting authority), Sredazburneft (Central Asian Oil Drilling authority), Sredazneftestroi (Central Asian Oil Building authority), Sredazneftezavody (Central Asian Oil Refineries), and two engineering works which construct and recondition equipment.

The Fergana oilfields were first worked in 1904, but before 1935 their total annual production never exceeded 60,000 tons. In the Surkhan-Darya basin oil was discovered in industrial quantities in 1934: the first of these fields - Khaudag - was brought into operation in 1935; the second - Uch-Kzyl - in 1936, and the third - Kokaity - in 1951. Between 1944 and 1947 the discovery of large new resources in the north-eastern part of the Fergana Valley brought a fresh assessment of the potentialities of the Central Asian oilfields. These discoveries made it possible to set the crude oil production target for 1950 at 1,246,000 tons, seven times the 1940 figure, (Uzbekistan 1,106,000 tons, Kirgizia 80,000 tons, Tadzhikistan 60,000 tons). Several geologists, among them O.D. Vigalov and I.P. Zubov, received Stalin prizes for their work in prospecting the new fields.

The development of crude oil production is indicated in the following table, which has been compiled on the basis of pre-war statistics, production targets for 1950, and estimates calculated on a basis of average percentage increases for 1952, 1953 and 1954:

UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



Crude Oil Output in Central Asia

<u>Year</u>	<u>Metric Tons</u>	
1905	33,700	
1910	28,500	
1915	30,600	
1920	16,700	
1925	18,900	
1930	39,200	
1934	63,000	
1935	160,000	
1940	185,000	
1945	295,000	
1950	1,206,000	(1)
1952	1,490,000	(2)
1953	1,680,000	(3)
1954	1,875,000	(3)

Andizhanneft

Andizhanneft controls seven fields, four in Uzbekistan - at Andizhan, Yuzhnyi Alamyshik, Palvantash, and Khodzhiabad, and three in Kirgizia - at Changyrtash, Maili-Sai, and Isbaskent.

The Andizhan field lies fifteen kilometres to the south of Andizhan town. Geological survey and geophysical investigation led to the discovery of oil indications here in 1937. The first oil was obtained in 1945; the field came into regular production in 1947. It yielded more than the assigned quota in 1953.

Exploratory drilling is still in progress; as the result of work in 1953 many new wells came into operation in 1954. The geological investigations and drilling were carried out so thoroughly that every other well drilled yielded oil. Eighty per cent of the Andizhan wells are bored with turbine drills; this drill, in use for the first time in Central Asia, allows the rock to be removed without the bit being lifted out - an operation usually taking several hours.

Prospecting began at Yuzhnyi Alamyshik - 23 kilometres east of the Andizhan oilfield - as early as 1932, and indications were met with in 1937. Oil was not, however, obtained in industrial quantity until 1945 and operations began in earnest only in 1947. The press describes it as the best field of the whole Sredazneft authority. The 1953 quota was reached before the end of the year.

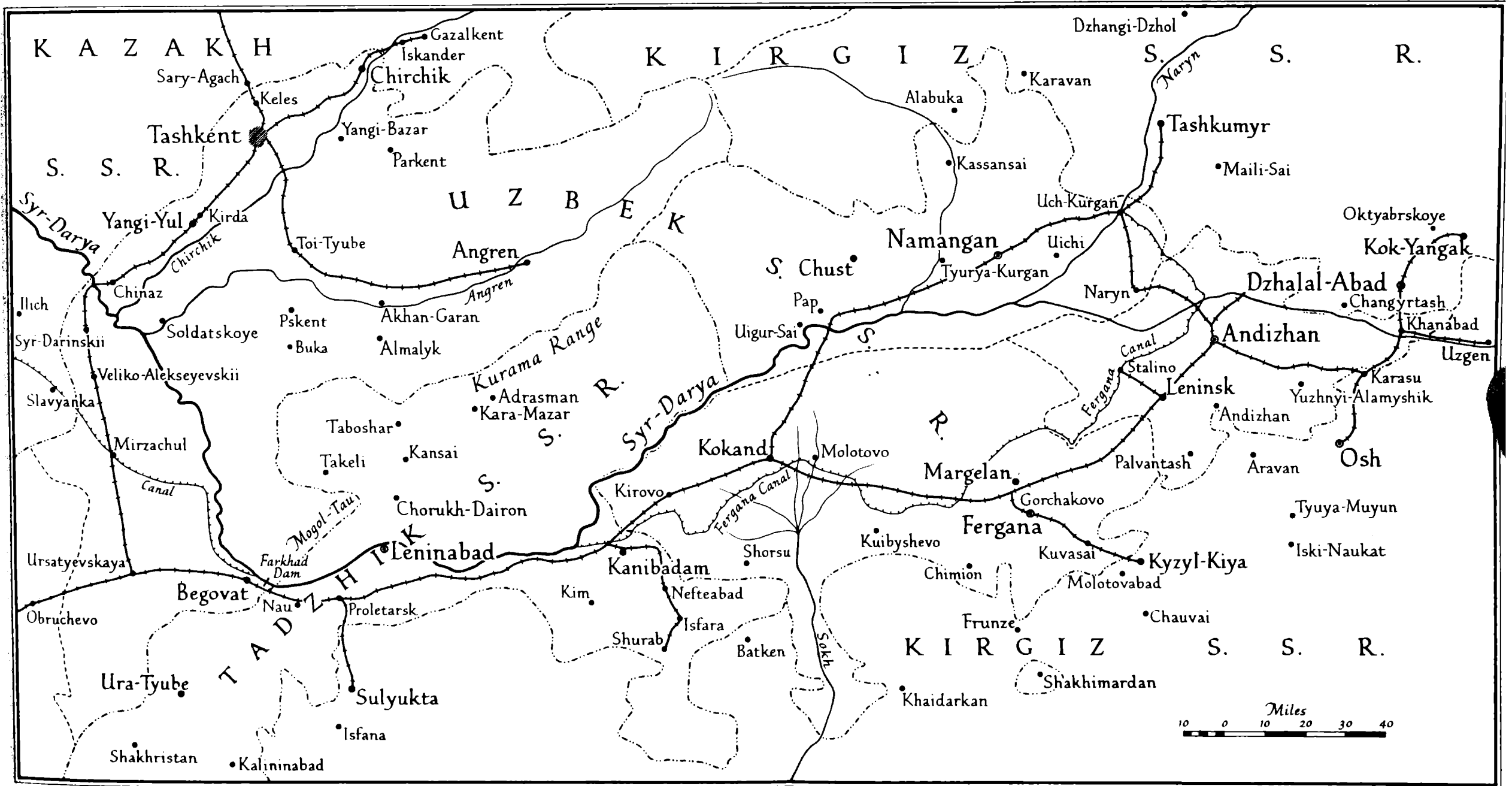
Several wells are remote-controlled from a single panel. One despatcher has the task of watching the loading on the engines, and sends a mechanic if the loading falls or rises excessively. Another apparatus, the "dynamograph", which is switched in or out of the circuit automatically, makes it possible to observe the deep oil pumps. Remote control has made it possible to reduce the staff of thirty-three operators to thirteen in one sector of this field. The "Molchanov" apparatus automatically sinks and lifts pipes in wells in this field, whereas before the coupling and uncoupling had to be done by hand. Time, labour, and output costs have all been saved by this and similar devices. From 1946 hydrochloric acid has been pumped into the wells to dissolve rock: 49 wells were treated with 471 tons of acid in 1950.

Exploration at Palvantash - eleven kilometres south of Leninsk - began in 1943. Test-drilling found oil in 1945 and production started in 1946. Natural gas deposits were also discovered; a pipe-line now supplies industrial and municipal organizations with fuel. Palvantash is the largest Uzbek field. It achieved 128 per cent of its quota in 1951, 105 per cent in 1952, and in 1953 it reached the target before the end of the year. Test-drilling is still being carried out.

The Khodzhiabad field - twenty-two kilometres east of Andizhan - started operations in 1951, and is still expanding. From 1953 the field has been subjected to both water flooding and pressure maintenance by gas injection. All wells are operated by schedule; some, only periodically tapped, now yield as much oil in eight days as they did in twenty-four. The hydrochloric acid process is used.

The Changyrtash fields lie eighteen kilometres south-west of Dzhahalal-Abad, between the Karaunkur and Kugart rivers - tributaries of the Kara-Darya. Oil was discovered in 1927 and the fields were first exploited ten years later, but yielded only some few ten thousand tons of oil. During the war production slowed down, and for two or three years after the war the decline continued. Almost a quarter of the wells had to be abandoned because of missing equipment, and crude oil output decreased by 18.9 per cent from 1946 to 1948. From 1948, however, the yield rose, doubling the 1940 figure in 1951. The 1951 figure was 3.8 times the 1948 figure but fell short of the quota; this was none the less achieved before time in 1952 and 1953. Labour productivity has increased 10 per cent and costs have been lowered 5 per cent per crude ton. Specially designed boring-rods, pumps and compressors are supplied to the field, and lighter, small-diameter pumping-jacks have made it possible to instal smaller engines and have led to a saving in power. This is supplied by a diesel electric power-station. Application of hydrochloric acid to the hard limestone strata overlying

FERGANA VALLEY



the oil zones has been made here, but has not invariably been successful.

The same method applied in 1952 at Maili-Sai and Isbaskent - 57 and 26 kilometres north of Andizhan respectively - brought an increase of 47 tons of oil per ton of acid used. These fields were prospected after the war; oil was found at Maili-Sai in 1946 and worked from 1948; at Isbaskent it was found in 1949 and first exploited in 1951.

Kalininneft

Kalininneft controls four old-established fields in the southern Fergana Valley: Chimion and Shor-Su in Uzbekistan, and Kim and Nefteabad in Tadzhikistan. Chimion lies some twenty kilometres south of Margelan. It is the oldest field worked by the Sredazneft, being first exploited in 1904. It still gives a small output of crude oil. Shor-Su - twenty-two kilometres south-west of Kokand - was put into operation in the early thirties. It is being gradually exhausted.

Kim (formerly Sel-Rokho) lies eighteen kilometres south-east of Melnikovo station and seventy-two kilometres east of Leninabad. It was re-equipped after the war and exceeded its 1953 quota; costs were lowered 4.5 per cent on each ton of oil. The "Molchanov" apparatus (v. supra) is in use, and secondary recovery has raised the yield of fourteen old wells into which air is pumped by compressors.

Nefteabad - eighty-one kilometres east of Leninabad - lies in an area of long-known oil seepages. It was exploited before the war, but only yielded 7,000 crude tons in 1937. Since 1950 the field has been mechanized. Metal derricks have replaced wooden ones and a single control panel operated twenty automatic electric pumping-jacks. Air pumping and other secondary recovery methods are used. The quotas for 1953 and 1954 were overfulfilled; the town has prospered since the war and now has cinemas, schools, a sports club, a creche, and a small library. The two Tadzhik fields produced 25,000 tons of crude oil in 1947, 60,000 in 1950 and are continuing the increase.

Termezneft

Termezneft controls the three Surkhan-Darya oilfields, all in Uzbekistan. Khaudag, fifteen kilometres north of Termez, started production in 1935 but has declined through a drop in pressure. Secondary recovery methods are being applied. Uch-Kzyl, eight kilometres north of Termez, was started in 1936, but failed to justify the hopes placed in it. It is now exploited jointly with Khaudag. First

indications of oil at Kokaity - six kilometres east of Khaudag - were encountered in 1943. It was brought into production in 1951. The area has resources of natural gas, whose exploitation is under consideration.

The Termezneft oil has a high paraffin content, which makes refining and the obtaining of high-grade gasoline and kerosine from it difficult. In 1950 the whole output was still being burnt as a fuel without being refined, though in the first six months of 1954 the press spoke of an "extra" train-load of oil being sent to the railway at Melnikovo.

Refining

Some Sredazneft oil is refined at Vannovskii, thirty-four kilometres east of Kokand. The refinery was to be enlarged and reconstructed in the post-war Five-Year Plans. The director, T.P. Sergin, reported a saving of several million rubles in 1953; the yield of petroleum products rose by 7 per cent on the previous year, and costs fell by 4.5 per cent.

There are also refineries at Kim, Melnikovo, Kanibadam, Leninsk, and Andizhan. The Kim refinery, built in 1914, has just been rebuilt. Hassman (v. sources) states that the largest Central Asian refineries are at Fergana, with an annual first distilling capacity of 2m. tons and a cracking capacity of 500,000 tons.

. . .

The discovery of the north-eastern Fergana fields (i.e. the Andizhanneft fields) between 1943 and 1946 brought the announcement of a new "Greater Fergana project." Deeper test-drilling and wider explorations were said to be about to turn the area into a major field of oil production. It is difficult to judge how far the project has been realized, but it is admitted that some fields have proved failures while the most productive are progressing only moderately. No new fields have been brought into production in the last three years.

Notes

- (1) Output plan for 1950
- (2) 24 per cent increase on the 1950 figure quoted in Pravda Vostoka of 7.11.52
- (3) Estimated figures

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I N D U S T R Y

C E N T R A L A S I A N F I S H E R I E S

Guryev and the northern Caspian - The southern Caspian - The Aral Sea -
The lakes - Development of inland fisheries - Conclusion.

All the Central Asian republics are said to contain expanses of water in which are fish in marketable quantities, but only in Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan does fishing form an important part of the national economy.

Guryev and the northern Caspian

Kazakhstan, indeed, provides nine per cent of all the fish caught in the USSR. Of this, forty-two per cent is caught in the Caspian, whose northern and more shallow waters yield thirty-two kilogrammes of fish per hectare; the Arctic Sea - the most fertile of the coastal waters - yields only seventeen kilogrammes per hectare. The principal marketable fish in the northern Caspian are sprat, bream, roach, sazan, zander, herring and sturgeon. The waters are ice-bound in winter, when seal are driven over the ice from specially equipped vessels; in summer they are driven into stationary sturgeon nets.

Guryev is the chief fishing centre. Before the Revolution fishing was mainly in the river and delta of the Ural river. In the Soviet period a Machine Fishery Station (MRS) was established and fishing spread to the sea, and in winter to the southern Caspian. A large processing and canning factory (described below) has been built, and various ichthyological institutes and a fisheries tekhnikum have been founded in the town. The average annual catch of the fisheries in the 1946-1950 Five-Year-Plan was one million centners.

The Kaganovich fish-canning kombinat is one of the largest undertakings of the food industry of the USSR, and has a separate article in the Soviet Encyclopaedia, of which the following is an abridged translation. The kombinat was started in 1930-31 and began work in 1933. It consists of six enterprises: a canning factory, a processing factory, a refrigeration plant, a by-products factory, a cooperage and a box works, and a steam-power plant. Fish is frozen, chilled, smoked, salted, dried and tinned. Red and black caviar, technical fats and fish-meal are

produced.

In the kombinat's vessels and in its shore and river fisheries, trawling, and the casting and hauling in of the seines is done mechanically. Electric cranes unload the fish and conveyor-belts and trolleys take it to be processed. Washing and tinning is similarly done by machinery. A production-line system brings live fish to be weighed and to be boxed in the refrigeration shop. Crushed ice is mixed with the fish by conveyor belting, and together they are packed into refrigerator vans.

The introduction of mechanization has taken place since the war and has trebled the output of tinned fish. In 1946 fresh frozen fish formed only 12.2 per cent of the total output; in 1950 it formed 42.7 per cent. The annual output of the canning factory is sixty million tins of fish.

In the immediate area of Guryev there are twenty fishing kolkhozes; there is a fish-processing factory at Chertombai with off-loading points at Mokrinsk, Kruglinsk and Novinsk.

The southern Caspian

The southern Caspian is less fertile than the northern waters - it yields 18 per cent of the total catch - but does not freeze in winter. Marketable fish caught are mainly sprat, pike-perch (zander), sturgeon, herring, roach and sazan. Sprats are the most important catch; a technique of using electric light to attract them to the nets has recently been developed by a Stalin prize-winner - Professor Borisov - and has brought some success.

The Turkmenryba authority works kombinats at Krasnovodsk and Kizyl-Su and factories at Gasan-Kuli and on Ogurchinskii island. A new kombinat is to be built in Ashkhabad for processed fish. The Turkmenryba ships, and those of the Union of Turkmen Fishing Kolkhozes (Turkmenrybak-kolkhozsoyuz) are serviced by an MRS at Krasnovodsk. Particularly during the summer sprat-fishing season, these establishments cannot meet the strain when the fleet moves to the larger catches of the northern waters. Both in 1952 and 1954 the turn-round of the depot ships was too slow to meet the needs of the trawlers. In summer, the catch is not only larger, but must be immediately salted and boxed to prevent decay. This was sometimes impossible, as the depot ships were not at hand with supplies of salt, wood and nails. Trawlers under repair at the MRS were released before they were ready; one ship was detained for a month; others were not

fitted out with the equipment necessary for fishing by electric light according to Borisov's technique.

Fishermen at sea - sometimes for five or six months - are not deprived of welfare services. A special ship - the Nineteenth Party Congress - carries out this work and organizes political education courses. The diesel "floating base" Mikoyan also carries "cultural" workers on board.

The Aral Sea

Fishing in the Aral Sea is mainly for bream (29 per cent of the average catch), sazan (28 per cent), roach (16 per cent), carp, perch, sheet-fish, ling and acipenser nudiventris - a type of sturgeon. The Aral Fishing Trust (of Uzbekistan) was taken to task by an article in Pravda Vostoka of 9.6.53 for neglecting other species - alburnus chalcoides, pelecus cultratus, and aspius aspius, of which large unutilized reserves are said to exist. The chief breeding-grounds are the Amu-Darya and Syr-Darya deltas. Only ten per cent of the fish is caught here; and the remaining ninety per cent is caught in the sea off the deltas. The fishermen are blamed for their lack of initiative in seeking new grounds; this tendency is encouraged by the predictability of the fish movements, which are much more reliable than in the Caspian.

There are nineteen kolkhozes in the northern Aral - the Kazakh waters - served by MRS in Aral'sk and Kuvan-Darya, an ichthyological institute and the Aral hatchery. The ichthyological institute had not in June 1953 produced a plan for applying Borisov's technique in the Aral, and mechanization is generally retarded - only 8-9 per cent of the catch is made with modern equipment; nets are cast by hand and hauled in on windlasses.

In Aral'sk, the only point where the railway touches the sea, there are a canning factory, eleven fish-salting works and two refrigeration plants.

The Uzbek waters yield 60 per cent of the average annual catch of 350 centners. There are ten fishing kolkhozes served by the Muinak MRS. There is a canning kombinat at Kazakdarya and processing factories at Muinak, Ushsai and Ugin. New trawlers and tackle were brought here this year from the Sea of Azov and from Aral'sk.

The Aral catch is particularly important for the supply of the settlers in the new grain lands. In the month of September 1954 ten tons of the best fish were sent to the Kustanai oblast alone.

The lakes: Balkhash, Alakol, Zaisan, Issyk-Kul

The western waters of Lake Balkhash are shallower and less salt than the eastern; fishing is mostly confined to these regions, especially those of Bertys and Burubaital (or Burlyu-Baital). 70 per cent of the catch is sazan - a quarter of the all-Union catch - 22 per cent pike, and the remaining 8 per cent marinka (schizothorax). There are canning kombinats at Balkhash and Myn-Aral, where railways touch the lake, a processing factory at Algazy, and an MRS at Myn-Aral. These are operated by the Balkhash trust. All the fleet is now motorized and equipped with kapron (i.e. nylon) nets. Special motor-boats cast and take up the trawls.

The catch in Balkhash could be increased by new stocking of the waters. This is also true of Lakes Zaisan, Alakol and other small stretches of water. In Zaisan, sturgeon, white salmon, ide, taimen and pike (40 per cent of total catch) are caught. Attempts are being made to introduce ondatra and sazan, and the last few years have seen a great increase in fishing. The lake had only four boats in 1952, but twenty ships and ten motor-boats started the season in April 1954. There are 18 fishing artels on the river Irtysh near the lake served by a factory at Pavlodar, which is in process of reconstruction. The curing house has already been built; the salting and refrigeration works are to be completed soon.

Five species are fished in Lake Issyk-Kul; osman, sazan, marinka, chebak, small herring - and recently, trout. There are nine fishing kolkhozes on the lake and a fish-processing kombinat.

The development of inland fisheries

From time to time the development of fish-ponds is urged in the Central Asian press, but little interest appears to be aroused. In Turkmenistan fishing is possible in the Murgab and Amu-Darya basins, and in lakes in the Tashauz oblast. Seven organizations are responsible for fishing them, but in 1953 some made only 26 per cent of the planned catch, the rest even less. Kolkhozes in Tadzhikistan are encouraged to construct ponds and stock them with trout and carp from the Stalinabad hatchery. An article in Kommunist Tadzhikistana advises farmers that ducks raise the fish productivity of a pond by thirty or forty per cent. But, the article continues, fish-ponds are not taken seriously in Tadzhikistan; some kolkhozes have not laid out ponds, others overstock their ponds, others never clean them. Fisheries, the article concludes, must be a real part of the economy of the country.

Kirgizia has a hatchery, built in 1953, in the Chu Valley. Its director in a letter to Sovetskaya Kirgiziya in November 1954 announces that in spring 1955 the hatchery will begin to restock Lake Issyk-Kul with sazan and carp and to supply kolkhozes with mirror carp and trout. He asks for derelict land to be given to the hatchery to make into industrial fisheries. Similar projects are under way in Uzbekistan. A large reservoir at Uch-Kzyl is to be stocked with over four million mirror carp, sazan and barbel.

The Aral is being stocked with fish from the Caspian and elsewhere in the Union. In spring 1954 sprats (salaka) were brought from Estonia. From November onwards for three or four years grey mullet is to be brought from the Caspian in thermostatic cars to acclimatize the fish on the journey to the lower Aral temperatures. Aral bream are to be similarly transported to Lake Issyk-Kul, where trout were brought from Lake Savan in 1936 to replenish reserves. The fish are to be released in the deeper, at present, unfished waters.

. . .

The unwillingness of fishermen to fish in unfamiliar areas is a general source of criticism. To find new grounds an expedition of 350 ships from the Volga-Caspian Trust and from Astrakhan, Dagestan and Turkmenistan kolkhozes is to fish the southern Caspian from November 1954 to April 1955, using the latest technique - nylon (kapron) nets for grey mullet and Borisov's electric light technique for sprat. This latter requires special lamp-sockets and protective mesh: in 1953 the Turkmen MRS did not supply the mesh, and more bulbs were broken than there were reserves.

Large-scale organization is an advantage in these greater undertakings. But it is evidently impossible in such an industry as fishing to standardize methods or results, or to make the organization entirely comprehensive. Individual fishermen are conscripted into the ranks of a fishing kolkhoz or "brigade" and are set a quota which they must give to the Government, but the knowledge that they can if they wish obtain an immediate sale for their fish has its effect. Issyk-Kul fishermen have been known to make up the State quota with small fish, and to sell the larger and more desirable fish in the bazaar; the quota is set by weight. The unpredictability of the size of a catch does not facilitate the "fulfilling of norms." It is hard to attract fishermen to conformity by describing high wages - 9,590 rubles and 5,590 rubles for three months are examples on Lake Issyk-Kul - when they know that hard work will not necessarily bring them success.

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C O M M U N I C A T I O N S

R A I L W A Y S A N D W A T E R W A Y S I N K I R G I Z I A

Introduction - I. Railways: - Fergana Valley area - Pishpek section of the Turksib - II. Waterways on Lake Issyk-Kul.

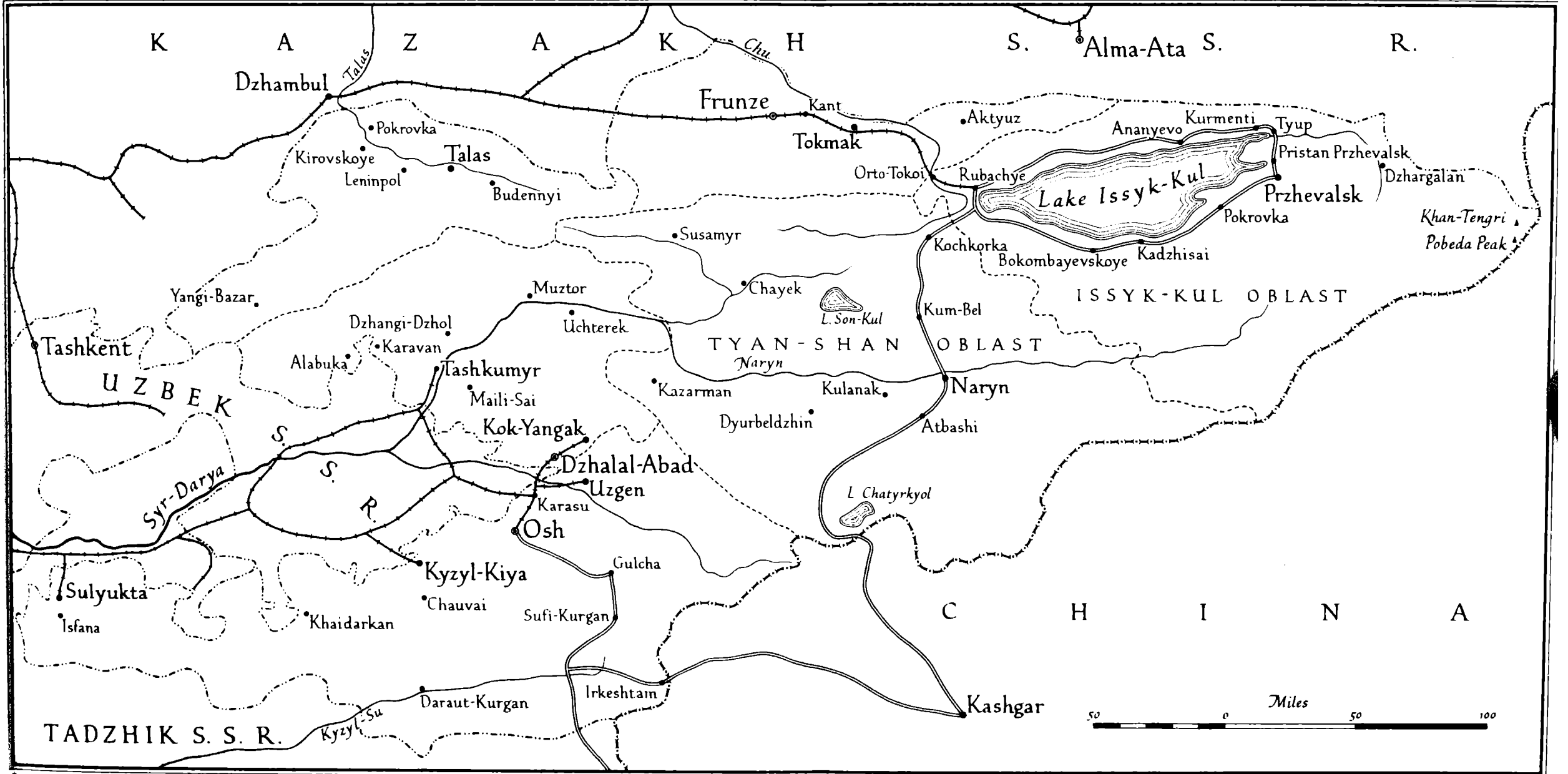
The total length of railway line in Kirgizia is less than a quarter the total length of hard-surfaced roads. Nevertheless the railways, serving the economically most important areas play an important part in the economy of the republic. Thus although railways penetrate only the fringe of Kirgiz territory, the Fergana Valley, an important cotton-growing and mining area, and the Issyk-Kul basin and Chu Valley - the main agricultural region of Kirgizia - are connected respectively to the Fergana Valley railway loop of Uzbekistan, and to the Turksib line. For the rest of the republic roads are the basic means of communication (see CAR Vol.II, No.4), and the steamer service on Lake Issyk-Kul is an important link between the towns of the Issyk-Kul basin and the port of Rybachye, the head of the Pishpek section of the Turksib.

I RailwaysThe Fergana Valley area

The two tongues of Kirgiz territory which encircle the Fergana Valley are an important agricultural and mining area. As direct communication between this region, and northern Kirgizia and the capital is difficult either by rail or road owing to the mountainous country, the Kirgiz towns of the Fergana Valley are connected by spurs to the Uzbek and Tadzhik railway system.

The mining town of Sulyukta can thus only be reached by rail from Dragomirovo station in Tadzhikistan by a forty-kilometre narrow-gauge line. The transport workers of Sulyukta station are reported in August 1954 to have overfulfilled the seven-month plan and to have made considerable economies. Kyzyl-Kiya, another important coal-mining town, is connected by a forty-eight kilometre spur to Skobelevo, a junction in Uzbekistan; as far as Kyzyl-Kiya station this line is broad gauge but the remaining three kilometres to the mines are narrow gauge. Through the

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combined efforts of the miners and the railwaymen good results have been achieved Kyzyl-Kiya. Loading and unloading operations have been speeded up and intensive loading is widely practised.

An important branch line in this area is that running from Osh through Karasu junction over a tongue of Uzbek territory to Dzhahalal-Abad and on to Kok-Yangak. From Karasu a line runs into Uzbekistan and joins the Fergana Valley railway loop. The despatch of heavier trains over the difficult stretch of line to Osh has become a regular practice. In August 1954 Sovetskaya Kirgiziya reported that the loading and unloading plan for this station had been raised, and the time taken for these operations has been considerably shortened. Signal boxes have been built, and a goods yard has been planned. It was claimed that there was not a single month in 1953 when the railwaymen of Kok-Yangak did not overfulfil their monthly targets. This achievement was said to be partly due to the cooperation obtained by the railwaymen from the transport department of the mines. In spite of the increased coal output from the Kok-Yangak mines there were no delays in the despatch of coal.

Dzhahalal-Abad, one of the largest stations in southern Kirgizia, overfulfilled its loading plan for 1952; during that year 1,972 trains with loads over and above the norm were moved to and from Dzhahalal-Abad. In April 1954 there were reports of keen "socialist competition" among the engine drivers of this station, all of whom had by then driven trains with loads twenty per cent above the norm. The station has been redecorated and many trees have been planted on the wasteland near the station. The station platforms have been asphalted and amenities established for the comfort of the engine crews and guards. At the same time, however, it is reported that though considerable quantities of freight arrive at this station there are no facilities for its storage. The goods yard is said to be in a filthy condition and often lorries cannot get near it as the approach to the yard is like a swamp. The manager of the goods yard, instead of making improvements, fines the lorry drivers for the delay in clearing the freight from the yard.

The Pishpek section of the Turksib

Pishpek - the pre-revolutionary name of Frunze has given its name to that section of the Turksib which leaves the main Turksib line at Lugovoi junction in Kazakhstan and runs through Kalininskoye and Karabalty to Frunze; eastwards from Frunze the line runs along the Chu Valley through Tokmak and Bystrovka and then by way of the Boam gorge to Rybachye. It thus not only passes through the important Chu Valley but also serves as an outlet for the Issyk-Kul basin.

In the past the working of this line has been sharply criticized in the press; in the years following the war it appears to have been unable to cope with the extra freight arising from the rapid post-war expansion in the Kirgiz economy. There were said to be numerous cases of infringement of labour and "State" discipline. The wagon-repair workshops were behind in their output, and those wagons and flats that had been repaired frequently had to be returned for further repairs. From 1950 to 1952 the targets for the average daily run of locomotives were far from being fulfilled; and through trains to Lugovoi were often held up at intermediate stations.

In 1952 the wagon-repair workshops at the Pishpek depot at Frunze were criticized for working in a most inefficient way; there was no proper technical supervision and no one person was responsible for the repairs. Engines under steam were kept waiting longer than the prescribed time which meant that engine crews would receive pay for doing nothing and that the engines wasted fuel. The chief traffic engineer appeared to be more interested in overfulfilling targets for the average daily run of his engines than in transporting freight, and as a result they would at times be despatched without hauling a single ton of freight. Meanwhile railway staff were paid overtime for doing nothing. Conditions at Pishpek station yard were said to be intolerable: the yard surface was deeply rutted and badly paved. The approaches to the yard were also in a deplorable condition and there was said to be hardly a day when trucks did not break down while trying to get through to the yard. The same conditions prevailed at many railway crossings.

Conditions, however, seem to have somewhat improved in 1953 and 1954. In the first half of 1953 Pishpek depot overfulfilled its plan for repairs to wagons and was ahead of other depots of the Turksib. Trains with an increase of 200 tons in load were run to Lugovoi as a matter of course. It appears, however, that during 1953 trains were frequently despatched not loaded to their fullest capacity. The chief engineer who was held responsible asserted that during the third and fourth quarters of 1953 there had been insufficient freight. This, however, was considered no excuse as the targets for hauling heavy trains had also not been carried out in the first two quarters of the year when there was an abundance of freight. Indeed, it was admitted in June 1954 that, in contradiction to other reports, during the course of the last few years train loads had not increased but had remained at the same figure.

In spite of all these shortcomings delegates attending a conference of trade-union members of the Pishpek section at the beginning of 1954 claimed that the previous year's targets for loading and unloading had been fulfilled and that the targets for repairs to locomotives, wagons,

and to the track had also been carried out. Over four thousand workers on the section were considered to be "leaders of production". During the year the engine-drivers of Pishpek station had hauled 313 heavy and 1,894 classified trains which made possible the despatch of hundreds of thousands of tons of freight above the norm.

Rybachye is frequently mentioned in the press. Trains exceeding the norm in weight have been successfully run over the mountainous Bystrovka - Rybachye section. At Rybachye station, however, conditions are not good: the goods yard is crammed with freight because consignees in the Issyk-Kul and Tien-Shan oblasts often delay taking delivery.

Cases of corruption on the Pishpek section are sometimes reported. The station master at Frunze, for instance, ordered his cashiers to charge four rubles in excess of the regular fare on every ticket sold, whereas this surcharge should in fact only be paid when the ticket is sold in advance. All this was going on undetected while during the first two months of 1954 only six per cent of the funds allocated for the construction of living quarters was used.

In June 1954, however, it was reported that the general standard of efficiency and productivity had been raised on the Pishpek section of the Turksib. The freight haulage plan was carried out on time. Drivers of the Pishpek depot decided to raise the average daily run of locomotives by 164 kilometres, to raise the average speed by 4.2 kilometres per hour, and to cut the turnround time of locomotives by 6.86 hours. The fulfilment of these targets would release two locomotives for work on other sections and effect an economy of over a million rubles per annum.

II Waterways on Lake Issyk-Kul

The first organized shipping service on Lake Issyk-Kul was started in 1926 to transport grain and oil and to tow timber rafts. On 16th July 1953 the steamship service was brought under the control of the Central Asian River Steamship authority whose headquarters are at Chardzhou in Turkmenistan. Since this date there appears to have been a marked improvement in its work and organization.

Between 1946 and 1950 the amount of cargo transhipped rose only by three and a half per cent. Early in 1953 an article in Sovetskaya Kirgiziya complained of the inefficiency of the steamer service and of its lack of coordination with the unloading depots. In the previous year valuable agricultural machinery often lay as much as two months at

Rybachye pier. Frequently the management of this pier refused to accept freight. Ships were often delayed: the new motor-vessel Przhevalskii was once kept waiting eight days and the No.1 barge twenty days. The mechanization of loading and unloading processes was proceeding too slowly. The Przhevalskii after leaving repair dock still needed her stern reconstructed and her compass adjusted. In April 1953 it was stated that although the port workers of the Issyk-Kul basin had fulfilled their loading plan by 109.6 per cent and had thus made a profit of over one and a half millions above the plan, the steamship workers had failed to carry out the plan for the shipment of freight. This failure was put down to poor discipline, "formalism" in "socialist competitors", and lack of initiative on the part of some of the trade-union organizations. In May, however, it was reported that the sailors of Lake Issyk-Kul were working to fulfil their yearly plan by 20th December.

After the reorganization of the shipping service in July 1953 great progress appears to have been made. An article by the head of the Issyk-Kul branch of the Central Asian River Steamship authority published in Sovetskaya Kirgiziya on 20th October 1953 gave details of the improvements that had taken place. The plan for yearly profits had been achieved by 139 per cent already in August; this was made possible by the lowering of transport costs due among other things to an economy of 21 per cent or 314 tons in fuel. The port workers at Rybachye overfulfilled the plan for the handling of freight by 6.8 per cent; this result was achieved by the better organization of work and by the introduction of mechanization; manual labour was reduced to a minimum. All this meant that the time ships were held in port while being loaded or unloaded was reduced by 50 per cent. Another innovation was that ships were overhauled while they were standing in port, thus obviating the withdrawal of ships from service for repairs which could have been dealt with before they became serious. The motor-vessel Sovetskaya Kirgiziya, the tanker Manas, and the steamer Komsomol all over fulfilled their monthly targets and were working at increased speed. The best ship on Issyk-Kul was the Przhevalskii, whose captain, a Party member, was running his ship to an hourly timetable and carried out all running repairs without putting his ship out of service; this enabled him to overfulfil the monthly plan for the shipment of freight by 40 per cent. Although in general there was a far more efficient and more economical service, some ports were not doing so well: at Przhevalsk pier costs of loading and unloading freight had risen, and the ship-repair yards had spent too much on wages.

In March 1954 there were still complaints about conditions at Przhevalsk pier and at other ports. All loading and unloading work at Przhevalsk was reported to be still done by hand. At other ports ships were frequently delayed because consignees refused to take delivery of their

freight. But apart from these instances improvement appears to be general. The plan for the transport of freight in tons was exceeded by 3.6 per cent, and the amount of freight transported in tons rose by 11.2 compared to the previous year, and the cost of transport fell by 23.9 per cent. The April plan was fulfilled in good time, and the motor-vessel Komsomol achieved its target to the extent of 120 per cent. By the end of July, it was reported in Sovetskaya Kirgiziya, the plan for the transport of freight had been achieved to the extent of 100.5 per cent; six per cent more oil-products, than stipulated in the plan had been shipped, but the plan for timber was only fulfilled to the extent of 85 per cent.

In spite of the improved service and lowered costs, the complaint has been made that insufficient use is made of the Issyk-Kul steamers, clients preferring the more expensive road transport. Thus beer is sent by road from Przhevalsk to Rybachye, and cattle are driven upwards of 200 kilometres round the lake which seriously affects their meat value. This is in spite of the fact that Zagotskot (i.e. the cattle supply authority) has been negotiating with the shipping service for two years and has eventually been supplied with a barge for shipping cattle, which, however, is not used.

It is thought that the Kirgiz Gosplan, and the Issyk-Kul oblplan should consider the question of the integration of industry, agriculture and water transport in the Issyk-Kul basin, and that port officials should make a thorough study of the economy of the adjacent districts and make it clear what freight could and should be sent by water. Better use must be made of loading and unloading machinery and ships must spend less time in ports. Although the amount of freight sent by water has risen one and a half times since 1940, it is thought that great possibilities for further development exist. In particular when the Dzhergalan and Sogutinsk coal-fields - lying respectively east and south of Lake Issyk-Kul - start to be worked the shipping services will be called upon to play an even more important role in the economy of the republic.

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A G R I C U L T U R E

S I L K: A T R A D I T I O N A L I N D U S T R Y

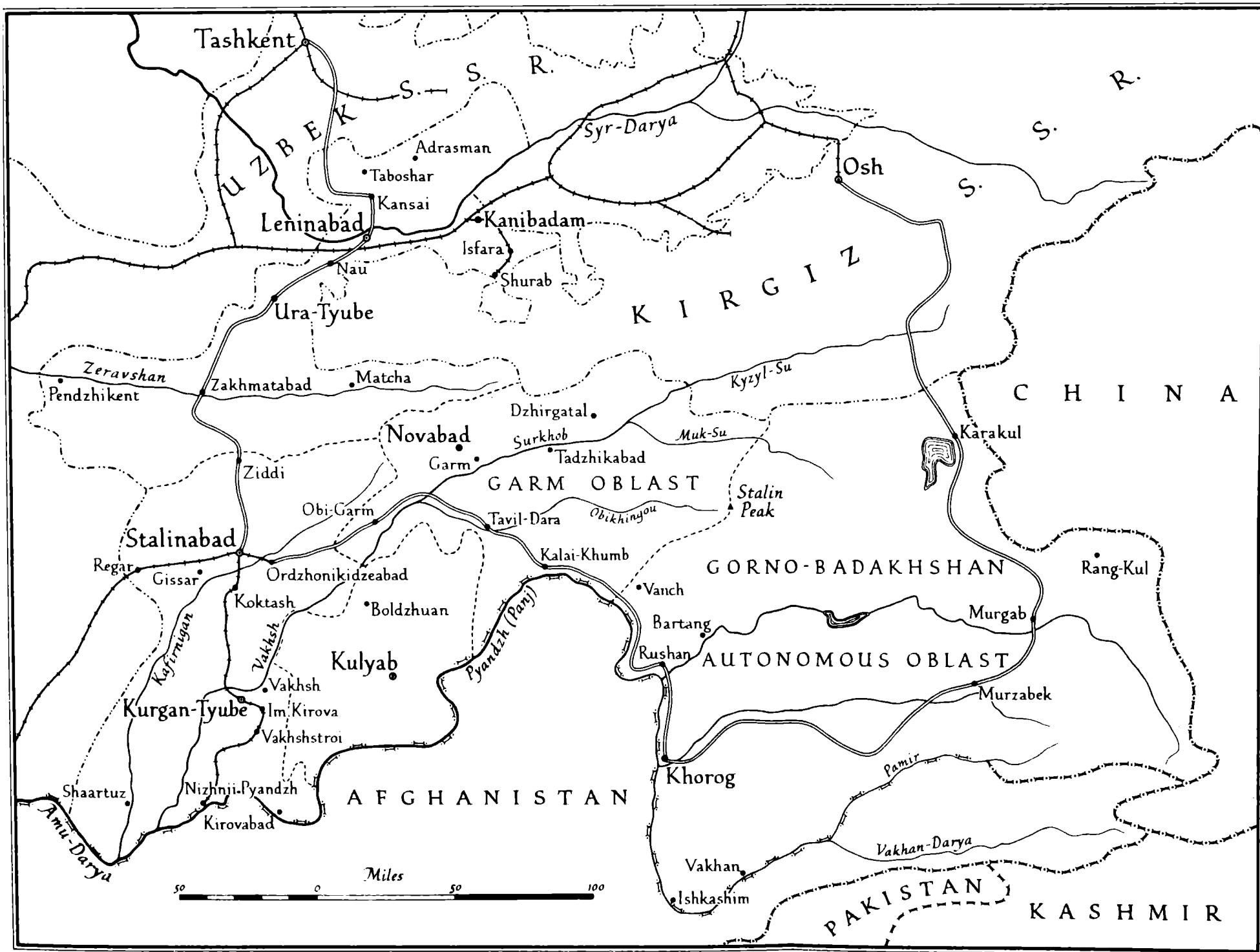
History - Modern sericultural methods and research - Output of raw silk - Silk-processing industry.

Silk has long been associated with Central Asia. Silk cultivation appears to have been introduced into the area from Kashmir or China before the beginning of the Christian era, and in the Middle Ages one of the most famous of all trade routes - the Silk Road - passed through the oases of Central Asia. On account of the climate and the abundance of mulberry trees Central Asia is ideally suited to sericulture. Before the Revolution, the best silk goods were considered to be those of Bukhara, Kokand and Khodzhent, and silk culture was the chief occupation of many villages of the Zeravshan, Khodzhent and Kurama districts. Indeed the silk industry was one of the most developed in the whole of Central Asia. It was nevertheless an almost exclusively domestic industry, the task of rearing the silkworms being carried out by the women of the household. In Russian Turkestan, however, several attempts were made to establish silk mills, but of the seven important filatures established between 1867 and 1872 all were soon closed through lack of funds. An important step was taken in 1871 when the Imperial Government set up a school of silk culture with a laboratory to study the various breeds of silkworm and their diseases.

Before the Revolution, Russia ranked fourth among the world's major producers of silk, the Caucasus and Central Asia being the most important areas. The First World War dealt a severe blow to the industry but with the coming of the Soviet regime a fresh impetus was given to the industry by the establishment of Government-sponsored breeding establishments and the extension of the area under mulberry trees. Today sericulture is developed in eleven republics of the Soviet Union. The main centres for the production of raw silk are Georgia and Azerbaidzhan in European Russia and Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan in Soviet Central Asia.

The manufacture of silk fabrics is as a rule confined to the areas where sericulture is practised, though important silk-processing plants exist in the Moscow oblast, in Leningrad and elsewhere. In Central Asia silk fabrics are produced primarily in Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan and to

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a lesser extent in Kirgizia and Turkmenistan. Over the past ten years the industry has been considerably enlarged and re-equipped; the number of weaving frames has more than doubled and the number of automatic looms increased sixteen times. Other machines now in use are fast-working reeling and warping machines and precision spoolers. The silk workers are said to have fully mastered modern methods of scouring the fabrics. The silk mills now produce a variety of new high-quality fabrics: heavy-weight crepe and satin, plush and velvet, and a new weave called eponzh kletka - a mixture of silk and wool. The production index, it is claimed, has never before stood so high and is continually rising.

Modern sericultural methods and research

Sericulture is now run on scientific lines; and new methods evolved by the various sericultural research institutes and by the leading workers are frequently publicized in the press. One method which receives considerable prominence is the fast feeding of the silkworms. The essentials of this method are the maintenance of specific temperatures during the various stages of growth, regulation of the degree of humidity, frequent feeding on fresh mulberry leaves, and the cleaning of trays after moults. In the past the silkworms, especially in the early stages of growth, were kept at temperatures of 34.5 to 35 degrees centigrade. To speed up the process of growth this has now been reduced and a temperature of between 28 and 32 degrees is maintained during the periods of first and second growth, 25 to 26 degrees in the third and fourth, 22 to 24 degrees in the fifth stage, and, during the cocoon-spinning stage, about 23 degrees. These temperatures are said to accelerate the growth of the larvae. The degree of humidity is also carefully regulated; the normal humidity during the first and second stages of growth is 45 to 55 per cent, in the third 50 to 60 per cent, in the fourth 50 to 65 per cent, and in the fifth and during cocoon-spinning 65 to 75 per cent. In order to speed up the elimination of the accumulated waters from the body of the silkworm, the building is aired five or six times in twenty-four hours, and in hot weather eight or nine times. The frequency of feeding is regulated at sixteen times a day in the first and second stages of growth, fourteen times in the third, twelve times in the fourth, and seven to eight times in the final stages of growth. Throughout all stages of growth the light is kept diffused. The advantages of this method lie not only in the greater yield of cocoons but also in a saving of the workers' time which thus frees them for other work in the fields.

Research into sericulture is being vigorously pursued, particularly in Uzbekistan. The Samarkand sericultural station in association with

the silk kolkhozes of the republic has worked out a series of technical methods which are said to make the practice of sericulture even more scientific. During the winter of 1953-54 the station organized two-week courses and in the early spring ten-day seminars in labour organization for "brigade" leaders were held. The Tashkent Institute for Research into Sericulture has reared six new species of silkworm, one of which, the Soviet variety, is said to spin seventeen per cent more yarn than the Baghdad variety previously reared in Uzbekistan.

Output of raw silk

In all four Central Asian republics sericulture is an old-established and important branch of agriculture, and especially so in Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan. In Tadzhikistan, it is widely practised and its further extension is constantly encouraged as a means of raising the prosperity of the kolkhozes of the republic. Attempts are being made to develop sericulture in the kolkhozes of the mountain raions where, according to one report, "until collectivization it was quite unknown." Results, however, are varied. In the kolkhozes of the Regar raion where all the new methods were strictly observed, the average harvest of cocoons for each tray of silkworm eggs in 1953 was 86 kg. and in some cases 94 kg. or even 100 kg. In 1954 the kolkhozes of the Leninabad raion reached their yearly target for the output of cocoons by the 25th August; the average yield per tray was 52.6 kg. but in some kolkhozes, such as the Malenkov, 123 kg. per tray was not uncommon. On the other hand according to a press report of 15th June 1954, the harvest of cocoons in the Leninabad oblast - one of the republic's principal sericultural centres - was ten per cent less than in 1953 and the six-month plan had not been half fulfilled. This failure to reach targets was put down to the infrequent feeding of the silkworms: instead of the required seven to eight feedings only two or three were carried out daily. It was pointed out that this was due to the scarcity of mulberry leaves, and in fact in the republic as a whole the shortage of mulberry plantations is, if not acute, at any rate pronounced. The existing plantations, it seems, are poorly irrigated, frequently damaged by cattle and further reduced by unauthorized felling. Of late there have been reports of the planting of various sorts of mulberry on the stony mountain slopes especially in the western Pamirs, but considerably more will have to be planted if sericulture in Tadzhikistan is to be developed to the full.

Although it produces a quarter of the total output of silk in Central Asia, there are few press reports on the silk industry of Turkmenistan. Sericulture is concentrated in the Ashkhabad and Chardzhou oblasts and since 1950 production has on the whole been satisfactory; in 1953 the State plan for raw silk was fulfilled by 100.6 per cent. In

Uzbekistan too output has been steadily increasing: gross output of raw silk is said to have gone up $1\frac{1}{2}$ times since 1940 when 12,055m. cocoons were produced. Today Uzbekistan provides sixty per cent of all the raw silk produced in the USSR.

According to press reports published in August 1954 the kolkhozes of the Namangan oblast of Uzbekistan had fulfilled the State plans for the output of cocoons by 103.3 per cent for the second year running. Results are especially good in the Pap and Uichinsk raions. Efforts are still being made to intensify the production of cocoons and the kolkhozes of the Namangan oblast have undertaken to deliver to the State 2,500 more centners of cocoons than stipulated. In 1954 attempts were made to introduce a third, autumn, feeding of the silkworms. Until then autumn feedings were carried out only by the silk sovkhoses run by the Uzbek Ministry of Agriculture; the Irtysnar silk sovkhos of Samarkand oblast obtained 81.4 kg. from each tray after the autumn feeding. High harvests were also reported from the Khodzhiabad silk sovkhos in the Andizhan oblast and from the kolkhozes of Tashkent and Fergana oblasts - the two oldest sericultural centres of the republic. In October 1954 it was reported that the State plan for the output of cocoons had been fulfilled and that the silk-processing industry in consequence would receive 300 tons of cocoons more than in 1953.

The extension of mulberry plantations, which form the basis of sericulture and on which its further development largely depends, is well under way in Uzbekistan. In the spring of 1953, 463 hectares were planted with mulberry trees and 150 hectares sown with mulberry seeds; 750,000 trees were planted in linear plantations and 2,178 in circular plantations.

By the beginning of the Second World War nine silkworm-breeding establishments had been set up in Uzbekistan; these produced annually 570,000 trays of silkworm eggs. Although the present number of breeding establishments is not stated, it appears that sufficient silkworm eggs are produced to obviate the need for imports from abroad and to permit the export of eggs to neighbouring republics.

Silk-processing industry

The silk-processing industry of Central Asia appears to be rapidly expanding. In Turkmenistan the output of silk fabrics in 1953 represented an eight per cent increase over that of 1952. Substantial increases are also reported from Kirgizia where 53.6 times more silk fabrics were produced in 1953 than in 1940. The silk kombinats of Frunze and Osh - the latter an important silk centre since the eighth century - are said to be working to full capacity and beating all

previous records.

More detailed accounts are given of the silk industry in Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan. Until the Revolution there were no mills in Uzbekistan (sic), all the raw silk having been taken to European Russia or abroad to be manufactured into finished products; today, however, the republic has powerful silk kombinats of its own. The largest of these is the Stalin Silk Kombinat in Tashkent, which went into production in 1934; by 1947 it was employing 30,000 workers and in 1953 was reported to be producing over 14m. metres of silk fabrics per year. Silk spinning and weaving mills also exist at Margelan, Samarkand, and Bukhara. The Margelan silk kombinat, built some twenty-five years ago, now produces two-thirds of the total output of silk fabrics in the Fergana Valley. It was reported in 1953, however, that the re-equipment and extension of the kombinat was proceeding "unnecessarily slowly"; in the dyeing section there was a shortage of dye vats, but there was no room to put in any new ones, and in other sections so much had been added that overcrowding presented a serious problem. Work was also being impeded by the unsatisfactory enforcement of the system of progressive quotas, lack of coordination among the various sections of the kombinat, and unrhythmical work. The position, however, appears to have improved in 1954 as no complaints or criticism have appeared in the press and in October it was reported that the kombinat had exceeded the September quota for unbleached fabrics by 15,000 metres and for finished fabrics by 30,000 metres, and had produced 356 kg. of silk thread. The hope was expressed that the kombinat would reach its target for 1954 ahead of schedule and that the productivity of labour which had already increased by six per cent would be raised by a further 3.3 per cent.

In Tadzhikistan the Stalinabad silk mill is also expanding: in 1946 the kombinat had 18,500 spindles and this number is said to have considerably increased though no precise figures are given. In 1953 a new textile wing was completed and 266 new weaving machines have been installed. The Leninabad silk kombinat - the leading industrial undertaking of the oblast - was built in 1927 during the first Five-Year Plan, since when it has been considerably expanded and re-equipped. British flyer thread guide machines for linen are being replaced by ring looms of Russian design and manufacture. These have interchangeable parts and the productivity of the spindles is reputed to be seventy per cent greater than that of the old ones. The kombinat, it is said, no longer produces any fourth-quality weaves and only a minimum of third-rate fabrics. In 1952 a sixfold increase in production over 1949 was recorded, and on 24th January 1954 it was reported that the kombinat exceeded the set targets for the last quarter of 1953. In the first eight months of 1954 the quantity of fabrics produced over and above the plan was said to be more than double the whole yearly output of

the kombinat in 1940, and a new dyeing plant which came into production in the second half of 1954 is said to have raised the output three and a half times. By the end of the year the kombinat was producing 42,000 metres per day (18,000 to 20,000 metres for every shift), and in October it was announced that the output represented a 37.6 per cent increase over 1953.

. . .

The silk industry of Central Asia has come a long way since the days when the rearing of the silkworms and the processing of the silk was carried out in the peasant household. Today with the establishment of specialized silk sovkhoses, silkworm-breeding stations and large industrial plants, the silk industry has an increasingly important part to play in the economy of Central Asia.

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A G R I C U L T U R E

L I F E O N T H E N E W L A N D S O F K A Z A K H S T A N

The following two slightly abridged translated articles are taken from the all-Union daily press; they are typical of the many accounts now appearing in Soviet publications describing the life of the settlers in the new sovkhoses on the grain lands of Kazakhstan.

I

We were shown a corrected map in the Party oblast committee at Akmolinsk which showed twenty-seven new sovkhoses. The question was which to visit. We were told many interesting things about the Izobilnyi, the Dalnii and the Stepnyak sovkhoses and we wanted to go everywhere, but this was impossible. So we chose a route that goes along the railway track and the banks of the brimming Ishim river in the southern part of the oblast, where the majority of the sovkhoses have been established. To reach the new undertakings one must plunge deep into the steppe, for it is in those parts, formerly almost untrodden by human foot, that the sovkhoses have sprung up.

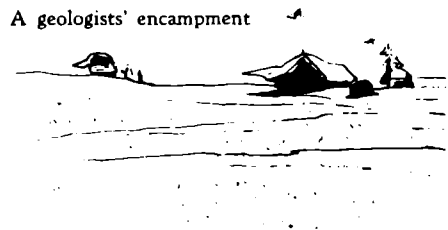
The distances are vast, and at times the Kazakh steppe seems limitless; but now a vigorous life is pulsating here. If one travels by day one meets tractors, mobile petrol tanks, and lorries. The vast areas of black earth are scarred by the lines of furrows. Furrows are made four to five kilometres long and the width of the fields is often as much as ten to fifteen kilometres. Ploughing goes on day and night, but the tractor drivers prefer working at night when the cool air prevents the engines from becoming overheated and so more work can be done. At night electric reflectors as bright as lighthouses throw their beams on the tractors.

Every new sovkhos is remarkable for its huge size - twenty to thirty thousand hectares of ploughed land. It is hard to make an exhaustive description of any one sovkhos because everything here changes so quickly. From one week to another everything looks different. Not long ago there were empty spaces, then came the workers' villages of tents, and now there are groups of wooden houses. We were directed to the Krasnogvardeiskii sovkhos along a beaten track but this had already been ploughed up and in

THE WEST - KAZAKHSTAN STEPPE



After the day's work



A geologists' encampment



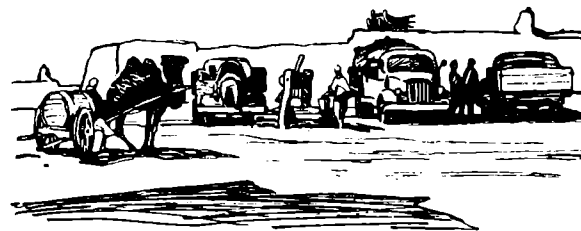
Delivering seed at a kolkhoz



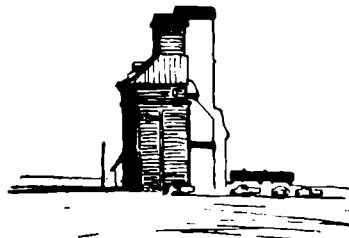
A drinking-water cart



Tractors refuelling



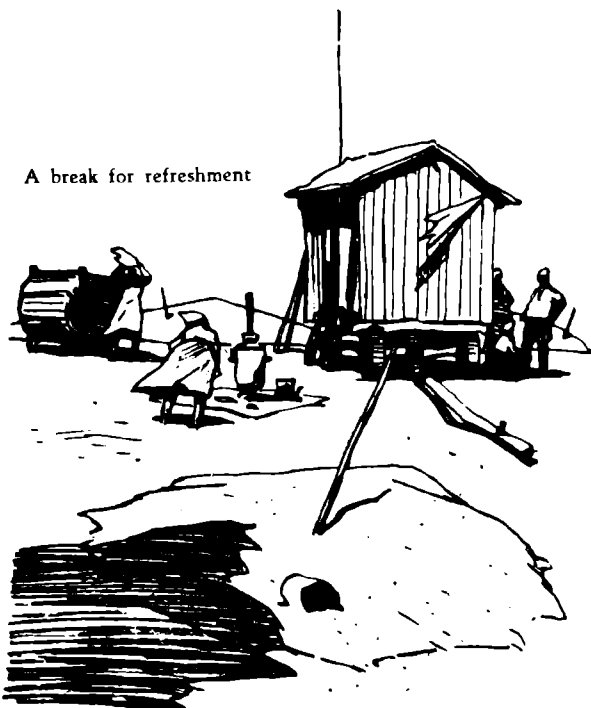
At the well



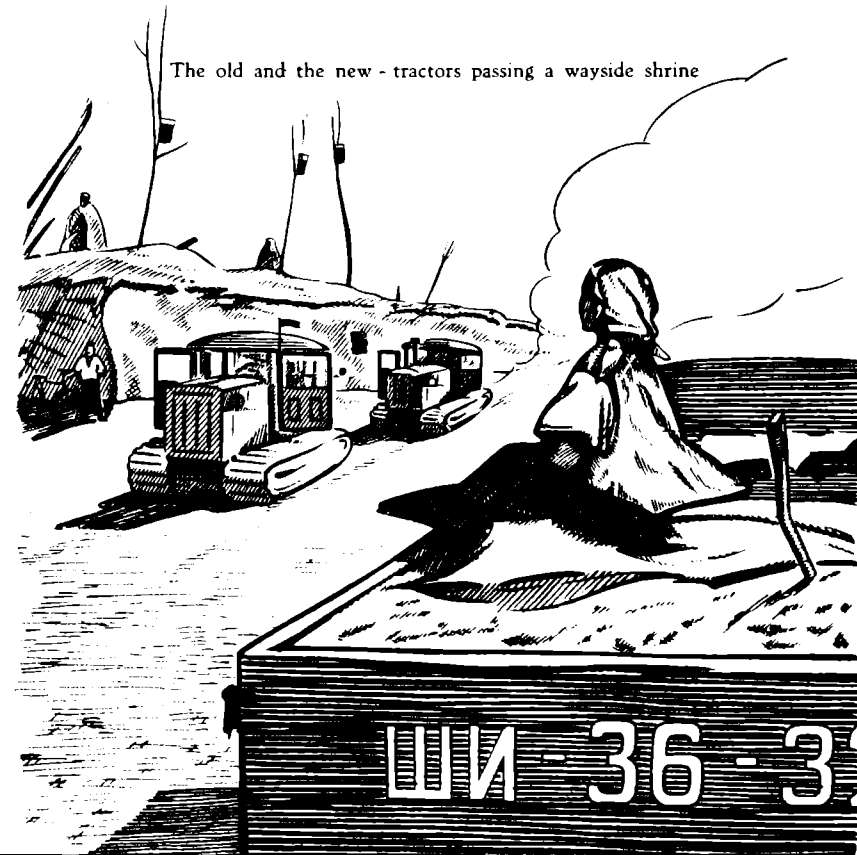
A grain storehouse

The old and the new - tractors passing a wayside shrine

A break for refreshment



A crossing over the Ural river



The West-Kazakhstan steppes have been the scene of many historic events - the Pugachev rebellion of 1773 started here, and here Chapayev met his death during the Civil War. These sketches by the artist Andrei Livanov, who visited West-Kazakhstan during the summer of 1954, show something of the drive for grain now in progress in Kazakhstan and of the old primitive conditions which exist side by side with modern methods.

The sketches are reproduced from Molodoi Kolkhoznik No. 10 of October, 1954.

its place a short and convenient road had been built.

It is no easy task to make habitable uninhabited lands. The problems are how to settle the people, where to get water, how to organize their food supplies, where to put medical posts and baths. The task is complicated by the fact that there are no woods in the neighbourhood and many lakes contain only salt water. These difficulties have been partly overcome but some still loom ahead. But despite the shortages and difficulties there is a feeling of daily progress and even of inspiration.

Immigrants from the Kharkov, Dnepropetrovsk, Zhitomir, Voroshilovgrad, Poltava and Odessa oblasts, and from Leningrad, Kislovodsk, and Alma-Ata are working on the Marinovskii sovkhov. This sovkhov took roots later than its neighbours, only in the middle of June. In a short time the "Marinovskis" made good progress both in ploughing and in the building of a small settlement. Mention must be made of the work of a good organizer, a Stalingrad man, the director of the sovkhov - Anatolii Vasilyevich Zandalov. By his well-planned and careful organization, his firm attitude, his just requirements and at the same time kindly attention to his people, he has won their affection.

Some Young Communist girls of the Marinovskii sovkhov recently appealed through Pravda to other girls to come and work on the virgin lands. This call has met with considerable support among the girls of Moscow, Leningrad, the Ukraine and other parts of the country, and as a result many new workers have come to the new sovkhoves. Recently a party of Moscow girls signed on with the Marinovskii sovkhov; on arrival they were comfortably settled and started work with zeal.

Anyone calling at the Kairakty sovkhov (Director Nikolai Maksimovich Mamontov) receives the same impression of friendship and cooperation. In this sovkhov there are 270 settlers who have come from the Ukraine, the Moscow oblast and Leningrad. There are thirteen Party members and 134 Young Communists. In the central farm buildings the number of tents is decreasing and there is a corresponding increase in the number of houses going up. It already has the air of a little town with defined streets - although in some places these are filled with building material put there for the construction of the future houses.

The Kairakty workers take an interest in public and cultural affairs as well as in the success of their productive work. Very often there are cinema shows and visits by theatrical artists. The workers arrange amateur performances among themselves; their dancers gave shows at the central farm buildings and also for the outlying tractor brigades.

The Komsomol members have issued a wall newspaper called Za Podem Tseliny. (Plough the virgin soil!), pamphlets, and a humorous paper. The football field lies alongside the tents. On the volley-ball grounds at the field station, the tractor and trailer men are preparing for matches with the brigade teams.

During their holidays students and schoolchildren from Alma-Ata came to Kairakty on their own initiative. Fifteen students from the Mining and Metallurgical Institute have worked from dawn to dusk building houses for sovkhos workers. These eager energetic young people recall the tradition of the students who worked on the constructional undertakings of the first Five-Year-Plan, on the Great Fergana and the Volga-Don canals.

One cannot get a complete idea of life on the sovkhos by looking only at the central farm building, but one must also see the tractor brigades. Thirteen kilometres away is to be found the chief sovkhos brigade under the brigade leader Vladimir Makhanov. He received us at his family tent; it was clean and comfortable and consisted of two beds and a dining table. From the very beginning of the drive the brigade leader decided to make his home on the virgin lands and so he sent for his wife and son. Work and family life go hand in hand. Makhanov speaks lovingly of the land which though new is already dear to him. "Formerly," he said, "this was just a desert, now there is not a hectare of ground which has not been traversed by man, tractor or machine. It's fertile here; when you go along at night the air is fresh, there's something dream-like about it. Our tractor men are all well-chosen - young, intelligent, good chaps. Some of them began their technical training here while working as trailer men."

When we started to make a note of some of their names he interrupted us - "If you are writing down any names don't forget one person, our washerwoman, Maria Krutayeva. She works splendidly for us." Talking of the adults, we must not forget the children - Makhanov's son, the pre-school age Vova, the darling of the brigade. With their parents' permission the tractor men take the children to their field stations and the drivers take them for trips on their lorries.

The workers of the new sovkhoses love the wide and beautiful steppes of Kazakhstan. The lands are fertile and provide an inexhaustible source for the production of vegetables and other crops; and they are especially suited for the cultivation of cereals. Only a few months have elapsed since the new sovkhoses were founded. The Government has assured them of first-class technical aid, and these new techniques and the enthusiasm of the settlers have produced the first significant successes. Kazakhstan has overfulfilled its plan for the reclamation of the virgin and derelict

lands. By 10th August, 6,522,340 hectares had been ploughed. The creation of sovkhoses in the heart of this land is transforming life in these far-off steppes.

II Fire!

As time went on and horses and cattle arrived at the sovkhos the problem of forage for them arose, and so a hay-cutting brigade was formed which consisted almost entirely of girls. The grass was both cut and brought to the places where the haystacks were to be erected, by mechanical methods.

On the day in question a fairly stiff breeze was blowing, always unpopular with the haymakers, as it hampered their work in building the stacks.

The travelling shop came along and the man in charge did some brisk business, especially in soap and razor blades. In five minutes all his stock had been sold and everyone's needs satisfied, whereupon he went off to refill and visit another brigade. Then they all trooped off to dinner and had hardly sat down before a cry was raised - "The steppe is on fire", and sure enough, three kilometres from the field station of the haymaking brigade, a cloud of grey smoke was rising from the crest of a long-shaped mound.

All thoughts of dinner were forgotten and one and all rushed off in that direction. The fire was advancing on a wide front, fanned by the wind, and it was soon seen that eighteen haystacks lay in the direct path of the flames, to say nothing of some thousand hectares of corn, all ready for cutting. The girls and their brigade leader rushed to meet the advancing fire with but one idea - that of halting it somehow or other. But the flames came on like a rising tide.

Chief agronomist Vasilii Arsentievich Gorbachenko, who happened to be in that region, hastily sent his driver to bring up a tractor which was working in the distance. The tractor driver of the first brigade, Burnos, then engaged his ploughs in the earth and started working with all possible speed to make a ploughed strip in the route of the fire and thus prevent its advance. The girls watched the flames advance to the ploughed strip and seem to surround tractor and driver. Then the engine failed.

Gorbachenko then sent his driver with all speed to get help from the third brigade. Burnos remained with his tractor. The girls ran towards him and attempted to beat down the flames, which were now one metre high,

with anything they could get hold of, their scarves, jackets, and even bundles of grass, and it became apparent that the conflagration was moving forward less quickly where they were fire-fighting than on the flanks. But all their efforts were not enough. Scorched and weary and ready to weep from sheer helplessness they had to give way slowly until the fire was only about ten metres from the nearest haystack. All seemed lost, but suddenly the first of the column of tractors arrived and at full speed started to plough up the ground and halt the flames.

ECONOMICS

CENTRAL ASIAN BUDGET DEBATES
AND PLANS

Industrial production in 1953 - Republican budget figures for 1953 - Payments to the Government - Oblast funds - Agriculture - Industry - Consumer goods - Education - Health.

During the first half of 1954 each of the four republics of Central Asia, and Kazakhstan, held a republican conference to discuss the budgets of the preceding and current years. The debates provide a mass of haphazard information on every aspect of the economies of these states, ranging from plans for a threefold expansion of agricultural investment in Kazakhstan to complaints that one of the finance ministries sends telegrams two hundred words long costing 325 rubles to an address in the same street. Much of the debates are taken up with exposures of inefficiency and even corruption. If misunderstanding is to be avoided the criticisms must be viewed against the background of rapid economic advance, evidence of which is to be found in many of the budget figures and also in the Gosplan reports on plan fulfilment in 1953 for these republics.

The material for this article is taken mainly from the budget debates, supplemented where possible by information from the reports of the execution of the State plan for 1953 issued by the State Planning Commission of each republic.

Industrial production in 1953

The overall increase in industrial production in 1953 for each republic is given in the Gosplan reports as follows:

TABLE I

<u>Republic</u>	<u>Percentage increase in production over 1952</u>	<u>Percentage of plan fulfilment</u>
Kazakhstan	13	97
Uzbekistan	6	101
Kirgizia	15	100.1
Tadzhikistan	14	103
Turkmenistan	8	101

Thus production in Kirgizia was 15 per cent higher in 1953 than in 1952, in Uzbekistan 6 per cent higher, while the figures for the remaining republics fall in between these two extremes. Naturally the value of these indices depends in the first place on how they have been drawn up and secondly on the level of production actually reached in 1952.

The figures giving the percentage of plan fulfilment for 1953 for the various industries are of less interest. They show, however, that the expansion of the economy was on the whole correctly planned. The weak spot as far as plan fulfilment is concerned (though of course not necessarily as far as percentage increase in output is concerned) is building materials. The output of bricks in Tadzhikistan was only 50 per cent of plan, in Kazakhstan 80 per cent of plan. On the other hand chrome leather in Kirgizia was 130 per cent of plan, meat in Turkmenistan 130 per cent also.

Republican budget figures for 1953

Before looking at the overall figures for budget revenue and expenditure it is perhaps as well to point out two ways in which the republican budgets differ from say the British budget. In the first place less than a fifth of total Government expenditure in the republics comes from the republican budgets; more than four-fifths come from Union funds. Secondly, a large part of investment in industry is done through the budget, so budget allocations give a much fuller picture of the republican economy than the British budget does of the British economy.

The figures for the 1953 budget are given as follows:

TABLE II

(All figures in thousands of rubles)

I Revenue

	<u>Republican</u>	<u>Local</u>	<u>Total</u>
Kazakhstan	3,701,232	637,311	4,338,543
Uzbekistan	2,631,343	732,004	3,363,347
Kirgizia	990,659	135,465	1,126,124
Tadzhikistan	984,746	118,153	1,102,899
Turkmenistan	923,821	136,378	1,060,199
	<u>9,231,801</u>	<u>1,759,311</u>	<u>10,991,112</u>

II Expenditure

	<u>Republican</u>	<u>Local</u>	<u>Total</u>
Kazakhstan	1,854,809	2,483,734	4,338,543
Uzbekistan	1,278,859	2,084,488	3,363,347
Kirgizia	511,598	614,526	1,126,124
Tadzhikistan	503,943	598,956	1,102,899
Turkmenistan	513,889	546,310	1,060,199
	<u>4,663,098</u>	<u>6,328,014</u>	<u>10,991,112</u>

The total budget expenditure of all five states added together is thus about 11 milliard rubles, and is thus roughly 20 per cent of the nearly 60 milliard ruble budget of the RSFSR.

In 1954 the total revenues for Kazakhstan were to be 5,350m. rubles, a rise of over 20 per cent compared with recent annual rises of 3.5 per cent. This reflects the extent of the drive for grain expansion in Kazakhstan.

Payments to the Government

The budget debates mention a number of interesting points about finance. There is a recurring complaint that revenues are not paid in on time. Some State enterprises evidently use tax monies due to the Government as working capital for as long as they can. In both Uzbekistan and Kirgizia much is said about this malpractice. Yet the proportion of planned revenue actually collected in both these republics is high, 97.6 per cent in Uzbekistan and 98.5 per cent in Kirgizia. This failure quite to achieve the revenue target is of interest because

in many branches of the economy large unplanned losses are reported, which mean lower revenue payments to the Government out of the profits. In Uzbekistan, for example, unplanned losses in industry in 1953 amounted to 125m. rubles, while the Ministry of Sovkhozes made only 12 per cent of its estimated profits. In Kirgizia the Ministry of Housing made a loss of $3\frac{1}{2}$ m. rubles instead of its planned profit of 2m., and the MTS paid 25m. rubles less than planned in taxes. Sovkhozes in Kirgizia were expected to make an 18m. ruble profit, and instead made a loss of 3m. In Kazakhstan, sovkhos losses averaged 100m. a year for three years, of which a considerable part is said to be due to embezzlement. In Tadzhikistan embezzlers are said to have made off with 2m. rubles. Since, in spite of these failures, revenue targets are so nearly achieved, it appears that the Government must allow for a considerable degree of non-fulfilment of plan by a number of branches of the economy.

Oblast funds

Republican governments exercise considerable control over the finances of the local authorities under them. Very varied treatment is meted out to different localities. In Kirgizia, for example, local authorities retain a certain percentage of "turnover tax": Osh oblast is allowed to keep 23 per cent and Frunze town 3 per cent, while the Tien-Shan and Talass oblasts keep the whole 100 per cent. From the agricultural tax and from kolkhoz income taxes all the oblasts except Tien-Shan keep 30 per cent, the latter once more keeping 100 per cent. From taxes on bachelors, spinsters, and small families, Osh retained 30 per cent and the other oblasts 40 per cent, except Tien-Shan which is allowed 70 per cent. Of MTS revenues, Osh and Dzhahalal-Abad keep 10 per cent, Frunze 20 per cent, Issyk-Kul 30 per cent, Tien-Shan 100 per cent, and Talass only 5 per cent. From personal taxes Frunze, Dzhahalal-Abad, Issyk-Kul keep 25 per cent, Osh 24 per cent, Tien-Shan 50 per cent, Talass 100 per cent, but Frunze town only 10 per cent.

Agriculture

Grain expansion in Kazakhstan dominates the economic scene. Vast sums from both Union and republican sources are being poured into the land. Including Union funds, $5\frac{1}{2}$ milliard rubles were to be spent on agricultural expansion in 1954, a figure larger than total expenditure on everything in the republican budget and several times as large as the total republican budget expenditure in any of the other republics. (See Table II.) Expenditure from republican sources on agricultural expansion (included of course in the $5\frac{1}{2}$ milliard mentioned) was to be 65 per cent greater than in 1953. Of the $5\frac{1}{2}$ milliard, no less than

2.5 milliard were to be (under Union appropriation) to expanding the MTS network.

Machinery, agricultural equipment and labour are reaching Kazakhstan in a steady stream. Expansion at this rate is giving rise to many problems of coordination. Deputies point out in the debates again and again that one or another part of the expansion is going too slowly or too fast and thus causing difficulties. 12,000 specialists arriving in Akmolinsk oblast, for example, found a shortage of accommodation of any sort in the main centre Atbasar, and even a shortage of drinking water. Buildings were planned in 1953 in this oblast requiring 100m. bricks when the output of the local brick kilns could not exceed 20m. per annum.

In the budget discussion of Kirgizia there was some discussion of rural electrification, which seems to have been proceeding unevenly. In the Chatkal raion of the Talass oblast, of 2.75m. rubles allocated for the construction of a power-station in 1954 only 100,000 rubles had been used by the end of March 1954.

There are big plans for expanding cotton cultivation in Uzbekistan and vast sums are being allocated to irrigation though in 1953 only half the irrigation plan was actually carried out. This seems only to have acted as a spur for still more extensive plans in 1954, for capital investment in irrigation was to receive appropriations four times as great as those made in 1953 and an extra 133,000 hectares of land were to be cultivated. In the first four months of last year, however, only 14 per cent of the irrigation appropriations were taken up. The plans for increased cotton output resting on this irrigation, and to which the whole economy of Uzbekistan is geared, are large. Between 1953-58 cotton output is planned nearly to double, going up from nearly 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. tons in 1953 to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. tons in 1958.

Large cotton expansion is also planned for Turkmenistan. Output has gone up 50 per cent since before the war, and rapid increases are forecast - 400,000 tons by 1955, and then a 50 per cent increase in three years to 620,000 tons by 1958. To achieve this target new irrigation works, 10 new MTS, 5 cotton ginneries, and 34 cotton-collecting centres are planned. The Kara-Kum canal is now under way, the republic receiving 100m. rubles from Union funds for it in 1954.

The part played by the sovkhoses is criticized in one republic after another. Sovkhoses are meant to be an example to all agricultural collective farms. Yet in Kazakhstan for years they have not fulfilled the Gosplan delivery targets for agricultural produce. The newest machinery sent to them in 1953 has been poorly

used, 15 per cent of the tractors and 25 per cent of the combines remaining idle. In 1953, 70 per cent of the sovkhoses operated at a loss and embezzlement was wide-spread. In Uzbekistan, the Ministry of Sovkhoses made only 12 per cent of its planned profits. In Kirgizia sovkhos profits were planned at 18m. rubles and instead they made a loss of 3m. Meat costs in this republic were twice what was planned, and many poultry sovkhoses delivered only 20 eggs per hen over the year at a price three times that of the market.

Industry

Uzbekistan, and particularly the Tashkent area, is the hub of industrial production in Central Asia. Yet even in this republic three times as much money was provided by the republican budget for agriculture as for industry. A great variety of capital and consumer goods are produced including textiles, machine tools, chemicals and tobacco products. The figures for increase in industrial production in 1953 given above (see Table I) show, however, only a 6 per cent rise for Uzbekistan, less than half that of the three best republics. Some possible reasons for this comparative lagging emerge from the budget debates. Mismanagement of every kind in industry is cited. Some firms have far too many rejects, and have failed to reduce their percentage. Others have produced much less than they planned, and so made large unexpected losses. Cotton ginneries, so important in Uzbek industry, find their costs 30m. rubles more than previously because of a higher output of lower grades of fibre and seeds. Careless warehousing and storage of raw cotton-seeds at the ginneries have led to losses of 60m. rubles, increased by imperfect grading to 80m. An interesting criticism made is that machinery is too often idle, to a total of 1½m. man hours in 1953. The Tashkent tobacco plant alone accounts for 100,000 man hours of idle machinery during the year.

Kazakhstan's chief industrial production is oil; the industry is a large contributor to Government revenue, and overfulfilled the 1953 plan target. Its output is expanding fast, going up 30 per cent between 1952 and 1953. More turbine drilling and "socialist competitions" are cited as the causes of this increase, but capital development is felt still to be lagging. The Kazakh oil trust works in extraordinarily difficult conditions in the semi-desert of the North Caspian lowlands, and efforts to improve the living conditions and amenities of employees are held up by shortages of all kinds. Shortages of cooperative factors are also preventing boring equipment from being fully used.

In Kirgizia industrial expansion in 1953 took place faster than in any other republic, output increasing by 15 per cent. As compared with 1950, output at the end of 1954 is planned to be up 60 per cent including

an increase of $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in oil production, 30 per cent for coal, 75 per cent for metals, and 50 per cent for consumer goods. Kirgizia is an important coal-producing republic, but deputies complain that the coal industry is not developing as it should. New fields are not being developed in, for example, Aksai, although they would save transport to some of the Tien-Shan raions, and although miners' wages have risen about 75 per cent since 1946, houses and amenities lay behind. Delegates also expressed much concern over the lack of variety of consumer goods, claiming that common things like pens and toys which could quite well be made in Kirgizia are being imported from other parts of the Union.

Consumer goods

Delegates in a number of the republics complain about consumers' needs not being properly studied by the trading organizations, and give some telling examples of the waste to which this can lead. In Tadzhikistan, for example, consumer goods worth 5m. rubles were sent to Garm and turned out to be entirely unsuitable for sale there. As a result, they had to be despatched back to Stalinabad where they came from. Repeated instances of this sort of thing had led the trading organizations into losses over 1953. In Kirgizia, the Chalvodar shoe plant is guilty of the same sort of neglect of the consumer. It turned out the right number of shoes in 1953, but unfortunately not in the sorts and sizes which people wanted. As a result it made losses of 8m. rubles and started 1954 with surplus stocks 300 per cent too large.

Education

A large proportion of the State budget allocations go to health and education. The Tadzhikistan Government, for example, is devoting over 30 per cent of its total outlay in 1954 to education alone. In Turkmenistan over half the budget outlay goes to education, health, and social security.

According to the Minister of Education for Tadzhikistan, quick advance is being made in the republic on the educational front. In the last four years four hundred seven-year schools, and ninety middle (i.e. ten-year) schools have been opened. The standard of textbooks has been raised, and curriculums brought more into line with local needs.

Another problem is that of finding enough properly trained teachers. In Kazakhstan, for example, higher education is held back because 60 per cent of the educational and welfare workers have only a five to seven year school training. In Tadzhikistan over 2,000 teachers have not

acquired middle-school graduation certificates, although compulsory middle-school attendance has been introduced in a fair number of towns. Complaints of poor equipment and delays in the construction of schools are made by many deputies from Kirgizia. Some schools are so overcrowded that they work three shifts, while there is no money for maps and equipment of any sort, let alone laboratories and gymnasias.

Health

More was spent on hospital buildings in 1953 than in 1952. In Kazakhstan the plan for investment in the health services was 100 per cent carried out, many new beds added to the hospitals, and doctors and nurses' qualifications raised. Nevertheless there are many complaints. In Dzhambul itself there are no proper, permanent hospital buildings, ordinary houses having to serve instead. Earnest requests were made by deputies for a proper hospital building with 250 beds.

In Kirgizia, 10 per cent more was spent on hospital construction in 1953 than in 1952, nevertheless there is much talk of unnecessary delays. The Dzhahalal-Abad maternity hospital for example has been under construction ever since 1951.

Turkmenistan invested more in health in 1953 than previously, but large amounts of money allocated were not taken up. This delay affected particularly the reconstruction of Ashkhabad after its devastating earthquake in 1948. Large Union funds were put at the disposal of the area for reconstruction but serious difficulties are apparently preventing the work being carried out. Only half the houses planned have been built, and 40 per cent of the population still live in temporary shacks. This inability to cope with plans for which ample funds are available is attributed to a manpower shortage, said to result from poor "mass political" work. Of 4,500 new workmen taken on for reconstruction during the year no less than 3,700 were dismissed.

PUBLIC SERVICES

HEALTH SERVICES IN CENTRAL ASIA

(UZBEKISTAN, TADZHIKISTAN, KIRGIZIA)

History and development - Medical education and research -
 Epidemic diseases - Tuberculosis - Mother and child welfare -
 Organization of health services - Urban services - Rural Services -
 Construction programme - Health resorts and sanatoria.

There were, in 1913, 57 hospitals and clinics (dispensaries) with 128 doctors in Uzbekistan. Kirgizia in 1914 had 6 hospitals with 112 beds, 30 clinics and 16 doctors, while Tadzhikistan had three medical officers and a few orderlies attached to the garrisons at Khorog, Pendzhikent and Ura-Tyube. The post-revolutionary expansion of the health services has been very great; by 1938 the number of doctors in Uzbekistan had reached 2,367 and by 1940 Kirgizia had 81 hospitals and 336 clinics with 4,644 beds, and 96 creches with 2,759 beds.

Post-war expansion has been similarly great. 48 new medical institutions were built in Uzbekistan between 1947 and 1954, and a further 100 are projected; by 1950 the republic had 550 medical centres and about 300 mother and child welfare institutions. In Kirgizia there were 406 clinics in 1952, 160 hospitals with 8,100 beds in 1953, and 1,736 doctors and 4,794 nurses in 1954. The number of creches rose from the 1940 figure of 96 to 128 with 4,724 beds. In Tadzhikistan there are now 250 hospitals and clinics, several hundred doctors, and over 2,000 feldshers and nurses; health expenditure has risen to a per capita allocation of 96.2 rubles - over two and a half times the 1940 figure. In Kirgizia the general total for 1952 was 148m. rubles - three times the figure for 1940; the figures for 1953 and 1954 are 161,603,000 rubles and 190m. rubles respectively.

Medical education and research

Medical education in Uzbekistan is provided by four institutes and fifteen tekhnikums for middle-grade medical personnel. The institutes (only three of which were in existence in 1953) train

4,500 pupils, most of whom are said to be indigenous inhabitants. The Tashkent Medical Institute in which, since its foundation, over 8,200 doctors have qualified - 3,700 of them between 1946 and 1950 - is the senior such establishment in Central Asia. Kazakhs, Tadzhiks, Turkmens, and Kirgiz attend it; the first Uzbek physician qualified in 1924 and since then 1,356 Uzbek doctors have been trained here. In 1954, 2,000 students were in attendance, 700 of whom were women of Central Asian nationality. 156 of its staff of 377 qualified at Tashkent. 14 of the 44 professors, half of the assistants and a third of the lecturers are Uzbeks. The institute has published 4,000 papers, 150 monographs and 20 symposia since its inception.

Several specialized medical research institutes work in connection with the Uzbek Academy of Sciences and the all-Union Academy of Medical Sciences.

In Tadzhikistan there are the Stalinabad Medical Institute, three medical tekhnikums and a few training schools for nurses. These establishments do not, it seems, meet the need for qualified workers, and the demand for more Tadzhik doctors, especially for women doctors, is very great.

There is a medical institute in Frunze, but the number of other training establishments in Kirgizia is nowhere stated. The Kirgiz Medical Institute is said to train hundreds of native doctors; one of them - Isa Akhumbayev - is a corresponding member of the all-Union Academy of Medical Sciences, and has been decorated by the Government of the USSR.

Between the 20th and 25th September 1954 a joint conference of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences and of the Uzbek Ministry of Health took place in Tashkent. The conference was attended by delegations from China, India, Indonesia, Burma, Pakistan, Mongolia, North Korea, North Vietnam, Egypt, Iran, Syria and the Lebanon. Ministers of Health led delegations from the other Central Asian republics. In his report to the conference, S.R. Karynbayev, the Kazakh Minister of Health, said that 1,410 doctors and 8,400 feldshers and nurses were at work in rural areas of Kazakhstan, and 471 hospitals and clinics existed in the republic. In the ensuing debate K.R. Farkhadi of the Samarkand Medical Institute, Professor G.A. Batkis, member of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences, F.U. Nurgazeva, the Kirgiz Minister of Health, K.A. Akhmedov, the Tadzhik Minister of Health, and other delegates took part. Altogether some thirty reports on different aspects of the regional pathology of Central Asia were read at this joint conference. "In the twenties," said Professor Zhdanov, "cholera was eliminated in the Soviet Union, and smallpox in the thirties,

while the incidence of several other infectious diseases including malaria, was greatly reduced. The eradication of malaria is our most pressing task for the next few years."

Epidemic diseases

Universal vaccination for smallpox was completed in 1936, and since then no case of smallpox has been reported in Uzbekistan. The Vaccines and Serum Institute in Tashkent was the first bacteriological laboratory to be opened in Central Asia. Rishta (dracunculosis) first described by Avicenna, was for centuries the scourge of Central Asia - about one in five of the population suffered from it. Prophylactic measures and a vigorous hygiene campaign, for which the Tropical Institute, founded at Bukhara in 1924, was largely responsible, have resulted in its extermination, the last reported case in Uzbekistan being in 1931.

Plague and cholera have been completely eradicated in Central Asia. Considerable success has been achieved by research in combating leishmaniasis, helminth infestations, brucellosis, and goitre. Trachoma, scab (mange), for the treatment of which a prophylactic clinic with 25 beds has been opened in Tashkent under Professor S.A. Massumov, Pendantskaya ulcer (Borovskii disease), and other skin diseases are being gradually eliminated.

Before the Revolution, eight out of every ten Uzbeks suffered from malaria. 150 anti-malarial institutions, headed by the Institute of Malaria and Medical Parasitology in Samarkand are combating the disease in Uzbekistan. In the last 15 years 90,000 hectares of marshland have been drained and 20,000 kilometres of waterways cleaned. 22m. cubic metres of soil have been excavated and over 100m. rubles spent on anti-malarial "hydro-technical operations", with the result that in all 17 raions of Uzbekistan no case of malaria was reported in 1953. Similar measures have been taken in Kirgizia and Tadzhikistan and the mortality rate has been sharply reduced.

Tuberculosis

Between 1911 and 1914 tuberculosis was responsible for one tenth of the total mortality in Uzbekistan. The first anti-tuberculosis clinic was opened in Tashkent in 1920; by 1926 five were in existence - two in Tashkent and one each at Samarkand, Kokand and Andizhan. The Uzbek Anti-Tuberculosis Research Institute, founded in 1936, is in charge of training, treatment and preventive measures. Four professors, six assistants and fifty doctors, twenty of them Uzbeks, work in its clinics and research department. Several new preparations have been

evolved in Soviet laboratories (sic) - streptomycin, pask, tibin, ftivazid, and others. Their employment, combined with sanatorial therapy, collapse therapy, and surgical treatment has resulted in many complete cures.

There are now thirty anti-tuberculosis clinics and 500 doctors in institutions combating tuberculosis in Uzbekistan. Most of these clinics have X-ray units, and mobile X-ray teams are employed among the rural population. Group examinations are being carried out. Anti-tuberculosis units have been organized in most urban raions in polyclinics and the medical and health centres of factories, large plants, and institutions. Only 18,407 people were embraced by the scheme of prophylactic and X-ray examination in 1944; in 1948 their number was 140,000 and in 1953 over a million. B.C.G. vaccination of children is becoming universal; only 1,000 new-born infants were immunized in 1938, but by 1953 such immunizations had become the usual practice in Uzbek maternity wards.

Mother and child welfare

The deputy Minister of Health in Uzbekistan, Z.M. Dzhamalova, has stated that in the last eighteen years the number of pediatric specialists has risen six times and the number of gynaecologists three times. Maternity homes, women's clinics, creches, and other mother and child welfare centres form a particularly important part of the Ministry's building programme.

Midwifery centres have been organized in kolkhozes, while clinics - and in larger rural centres, maternity hospitals - have already been created in great numbers.

The policy in Kirgizia is to allot the best available houses in the village for the accommodation of these services; and such centres are to be multiplied in the near future.

Organization of health services

Control is exercised over all institutions through a system linking town and raion councils with the republican and, ultimately, with the all-Union Ministry of Health. Bureaucracy in this system is widely criticized. The Kirgiz ministry is said to have issued 22,000 different directives, orders and instructions in 1953, although the Minister, her deputy, and other officials seldom visited the various districts of the republic. The conference of health workers in Frunze in July 1954 also found fault with the ministry's bureaucratic methods and ineffectiveness in carrying out resolutions taken.

Hospitals in the raion towns of Tadzhikistan are said to lack the proper ministry control; this produces an irresponsible attitude towards work and the patients. Pluralism is the great temptation in the present shortage of doctors. Dr. U.R. Mullovandov, a physician at the Stalinabad children's hospital, appeared before the Tadzhik Supreme Court in July 1954 on the charge of systematically abusing his official position. He worked not only at the hospital, but also at the Tadzhik Promstrakhsovet (council for industrial insurance), taught in two medical schools and held the position of a district doctor. He had no time left to visit patients; it was his practice to demand substantial bribes before sending people to sanatoria.

The Tashkent town council has heard complaints of the uneven distribution of the city's medical services. Readers' letters to Pravda Vostoka complain of the apathy and negligence of the staff of the city's clinics and hospitals, and of the inefficiency of the pharmacists - who are often without the prescribed medicines. Members of the council and of the Uzbek Ministry of Health seldom visit the medical centres of Tashkent.

Urban services

Health services, however, are more efficient in the towns of Central Asia than in the hinterland. There are now 26,800 beds in the hospitals and clinics of Uzbek towns - 29 times the 1914 figure, according to R. Sagatov, Uzbek Minister of Health. Frunze has 60 hospitals, maternity homes, clinics, and creches. None the less there is an acute need for more beds in some Tashkent hospitals, according to criticisms made by members of the town council. In Kirgiz and Tadzhik towns, the shortage of doctors and particularly of epidemiologists, is impairing services. The hospital at Tokmak has no X-ray unit; the maternity and isolation wards are inadequately accommodated, according to Dr. Bragin, the hospital's chief physician.

Town councils are also responsible for general sanitary conditions and hygiene propaganda. The state of the streets and yards of Tashkent has provoked sharp criticism of the town council. In Tadzhikistan, doctors in charge of town sanitation are said merely to register violations of the law and make no attempt to eradicate them. The local councils pay little attention to the problems of water supply and sanitation in towns, settlements and kolkhoz kishlaks. The sanitation of the Leninabad, Ura-Tyube, Proletarsk, Zakhmatabad and Shurak areas is particularly deficient.

The fear of epidemics gives impetus both to this work and to the work

of propagating knowledge of hygiene and prophylactics. This propaganda forms the subject of constant articles in the Central Asian press. Departmental heads in Kirgizia and the Red Cross committees are criticized as playing a small part in propaganda activities. The form that these activities take was described to the Frunze conference of public health workers by Dr. Sarchenko, an epidemiologist. She said that in her raion (the Proletarsk raion of Frunze) a hygiene group of 60 members had been organized to propagate preventive measures. The group distributed pamphlets, gave talks and arranged vaccination. She suggested the creation of special epidemic centres with a qualified epidemiologist in every medical institution.

Dr. Samenchenko, at the same conference, said that the second polyclinic in Frunze had organized a session taken by academic specialists. He said that propaganda had produced greater respect for hygiene and sanitation in many factories.

Rural services

Medical assistance in rural areas is treated as a special problem, as the distances to be covered are often vast. Ambulance aircraft are much in use. In Tadzhikistan, for example, there are three air ambulance stations, at Stalinabad, Leninabad, and Kulyab. Before the war their main function was transporting urgent cases for operation, but now they take specialists to assist local doctors. The number of sorties in 1953 was 700 (as compared with 432 in 1940); 52 operations were performed and 300 patients visited by this service.

The number of beds in rural hospitals in Uzbekistan is now 9,000 - as compared with 142 in 1914. Detailed information is available for developments in the Khorezm oblast, which had one hospital of 50 beds, one clinic, and 6 doctors before the Revolution. In 1954 it had 177 hospitals, clinics, and institutes of preventive medicine with 1,305 beds, 162 doctors and 750 feldshers, nurses and midwives. Shortage of staff, however, causes many cases to be dealt with by not fully qualified personnel. At the Nizhne-Chirchik hospital, for example, there are eight qualified doctors, but they all hold several appointments and the clinical work is in the hands of feldshers.

Medical services have not yet been organized in every MTS and kolkhoz - some of whom are obliged to go eight to ten kilometres for medical assistance. Many kolkhozes, however, are provided with first-aid chests by the Ministry of Health. During the cotton harvest, the town and larger rural hospitals send doctors into the country to organize special medical services - kindergartens, creches and health propaganda units. 150 doctors were sent

out in 1953.

Tadzhikistan suffers from the same shortage of personnel in rural areas. There are 32 doctors in Kurgan-Tyube, but not one in the surrounding raion or in two district hospitals; the same is the situation elsewhere, as for example, in the Isfara raion. In the Leninabad oblast 18 out of 27 district hospitals are without doctors. In the Koshteli, Rushan, Shugnan, and Tadzhikabad raions there is one doctor in each raion, whereas in the Ordzhonikidzeabad, Leninabad, and other oblast town raions there are from 15 to 20 doctors. In the Rakhatin raion, only 2 of the 8 medical centres have a full complement of qualified personnel - 35 members of the staff have left in the last two years.

82 per cent of Tadzhik doctors live in the towns, and of the lower-grade personnel - feldshers, orderlies, and midwives - only 20 per cent work in rural areas. The Stalin and Lenin kolkhozes of the Rakhatin raion have a medical staff entirely without qualifications. Specialists tend to stay in the towns and do not visit patients: Gussinov, the surgeon at the Sharkhar raion hospital never operates there, and obliges his patients to go to the oblast town. This is difficult for them as many kolkhozes do not provide transport for the sick.

Supplies are also a problem. Several drugs are not to be found in rural areas, and hospitals in the Kirovabad and Zakhmatabad raions lack fuel and food supplies.

Rural health services in Kirgizia were to be reorganized in 1954. Hospitals and clinics were to be opened in many MTS and sovkhoses. Midwifery services already exist there in considerable numbers, they are to be increased. Most of the newly qualified doctors from the Kirgiz Medical Institute are to be sent to the raion towns of the Osh, Dzhahal-Abad, Tien-Shan and Issyk-Kul oblasts.

The Kirgiz nomads had little chance of access to the pre-revolutionary hospitals which were mostly in the towns. By 1940 50 hospitals had been built in rural areas. By 1946 there were 70 hospitals, 120 clinics, 330 medical assistance and midwifery centres, 45 dental clinics, and 20 X-ray units in the rural hinterland, with more than 450 doctors and 1,000 orderlies, midwives and nurses. By 1952, 121 of the 160 hospitals of Kirgizia were in the country. New hospitals were opened in Stalinskoye, Petrovka, Dzhetty-Oguz and Ala-Beke in 1953; early in 1954 new clinics were under construction in Novo-Voznesenka and Dzhetty-Oguz, and seven medical centres had been organized in the grazing lands.

The situation in the Tien-Shan oblast nevertheless presents features similar to those of the Tadzhik rural areas. Medical institutions lack necessary equipment and surgical instruments. A speaker at the Frunze conference, Comrade Dzhumaliev, said that only 60 of the 155 doctors prescribed were working in the oblast. The Ministry, however, often transferred men to other areas from the Tien-Shan oblast and had no new constructions under consideration there despite considerable allocations for this purpose.

Construction programme

It is indeed a universal complaint that building programmes are not being carried out. Only half the amount allotted for building new hospitals in rural Uzbekistan was used in 1953 - in the Kashka-Darya oblast only 18 per cent. In Tashkent projects are being completed extremely slowly. The Tadzhik Ministry of Health, despite the allotment of considerable funds, did not build a single new institution for many years. The polyclinic at Kurgan-Tyube is accommodated in a small eight-roomed house which also contains three clinic dispensaries and a branch of the department of forensic medicine. The medical school at Naryn has no permanent building. In 1954 something was done to remedy the situation. Twenty new hospitals were put under construction in the Stalinabad oblast alone; but the budget allocation is still not fully used.

In Kirgizia less than 33 per cent of the quarterly building quota was achieved in the first quarter of 1954. In September Sovetskaya Kirgiziya noted that the construction of clinics in the Sverdlov raion of Frunze and in Kadamzhai, and of hospitals at Przhevalsk and Talass was far behind schedule.

Health resorts and sanatoria

Resort treatment plays a particular part in Soviet medicine, and Central Asia contains spas known throughout the Union. Many of them are designed to meet the needs of tuberculosis patients, who are particularly numerous in the area.

The main Uzbek resort is at Chartak, 25 kilometres from Namangan; 950m. rubles were spent on it in 1953. The waters contain iodine, bromine, and chlorine salts, and strontium, lithium and iron in small quantities. They are used for the treatment of rheumatism, nervous, and intestinal diseases. 170 patients were treated in 1953, and more than 340 in the first eight months of 1954. Three new blocks are under construction. A highway links Chartak with Namangan, and the construction of an artificial lake and a large park will, it is hoped, make it the most

popular resort in Central Asia.

A hot spring 20 kilometres from Tashkent is used for the treatment of skin and intestinal diseases. The water, which reaches a temperature of 50° centigrade is bottled and aerated. A sanatorium is being built at the springs in the Chimion oilfield 30 kilometres from Fergana; such springs and the Ashi-Kul, Dam-Kul, Khodzshakef lakes have been prospected by a team under Professor Yevseyev. Mud from the lakes is utilized in treatment in Tashkent and Fergana hospitals. For children there are over 20 sanatoria and a mountain resort at Takhimarlan.

The principal resort in Tadzhikistan is Khodzha-Obi-Garm whose waters are effective in treating rheumatism, varicose veins, women's ailments, skin diseases, radikulitis, brucellosis, and the effects of wounds. The resort, which had 1,000 visitors in 1953, is being modernized by the construction of new blocks of accommodation, new baths, a "steam emanatorium" and new X-ray and physiotherapy units. There are also resorts at Ak-Syon and Shakhanistan.

In Kirgizia the south shore of Lake Issyk-Kul is rich in hot springs particularly on the northern slopes of the Terskei Alatau mountains, and there are health resorts at Dzhety-Oguz, Ak-Su, Koi-Sary, Cholpovala, and at Dzhahalal-Abad, which together have over 2,000 visitors a year.

There have been complaints about the service provided by the resorts. One needs an hour to lunch at the Issyk-Kul resort - and the food is tasteless. The shop sells no cigarettes or confectionary. To get a hair cut, one has to go ten kilometres to Pokrovka. The electricity is only turned on for two or three hours a day; cultural activities are neglected. At Ak-Su and Koi-Sary no transport is provided; visitors have to hitch-hike to the sanatoria on lorries. About the medical service provided at the Kirgiz resorts, nothing has been reported.

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P U B L I C S E R V I C E S

E L E C T R I C P O W E R I N K A Z A K H S T A N

Hydroelectric power-stations on the Irtysh river - Hydroelectric power-stations on the Alma-Atinka and Ulba rivers - Inter-kolkhoz power-stations - Difficulties in rural services - Town services - Conclusion.

Before the war, electricity in Kazakhstan was a phenomenon of town life and was provided by thermal power-stations. Post-war development has extended services to rural areas, especially since the beginning of the drive for grain in the new and virgin lands. This has involved the building of many new power-stations, the majority using water power. Such a development was envisaged before the war, and its realization is still in progress. Thermal power-stations exist at Karaganda, Temir-Tau, Petropavlovsk, Semipalatinsk, Balkhash, Alma-Ata, and in factories at Chimkent and Aktyubinsk. Smaller stations serve various industries and rural areas. These have been supplemented by the building of hydroelectric power-stations. The potential hydroelectric power of the republic has been estimated at more than 18m. kilowatts.

Hydroelectric power-stations on the Irtysh river

The hydroelectric projects on the river Irtysh have already been described in Vol.I, No.3 ("Harnessing the Irtysh") and Vol.II, No.1 ("The Bukhtarma Dam Project") of Central Asian Review. New information throws light on the construction of the Bukhtarma dam, which began in 1953. Work seems to be confined to the right bank of the river. A settlement of wood and brick houses - some concrete buildings are later to be built - has been laid out for the dam workers at Serebryanka. A school, a hospital, canteens, shops and a club serve the inhabitants. The Irtysh is bordered by high, inaccessible granite cliffs. A railway and a road (later to give access to the power-station) have been blasted through, necessitating the excavation of two million cubic metres of rock and soil. The railway brings to the site tip-lorries, machine-tools, piping and tubing, bricks, cement, glass, and timber from the Osinskii lumber camps.

Work is now in progress on the excavation of the right bank

foundation pit. The chief engineer, A. Bakulin, has said that it will be necessary to erect a rampart to protect the pit from the waters of the fast-flowing Irtysh while a concrete bed is laid for the dam. 500,000 cubic metres have been blasted to build this rampart, which was begun in September 1954. Two automatic concrete plants will fill the pit; power lines have been brought to the site to work them. When the new normal level of the river has been established, a dyke of wood, stone and earth will seal off much of the river bed.

Power from the hydroelectric station is to work the Altai mineral resources and to help the mechanization of agriculture in East-Kazakhstan.

The first project on the Irtysh to be completed was the power-station at Ust-Kamenogorsk, which began operation in 1953. The fall of water is now about 2,000 cubic metres per second whereas before it was 3,000-3,500 cubic metres per second. Consequently, the flooding of the Irtysh plain in spring and summer, on which the fertility of the plain depends, no longer takes place. This seems to have been overlooked in constructing the new station. Before 1953 the 500,000 hectares of land flooded annually by the Irtysh produced hay, in quantities estimated variously at 18-20 and 34 centners per hectare, which supplied kolkhozes of the Kirov, Predgornenskii and Tavricheskii raions of the East-Kazakhstan oblast and most kolkhozes of the Semipalatinsk, Pavlodar and Omsk oblasts.

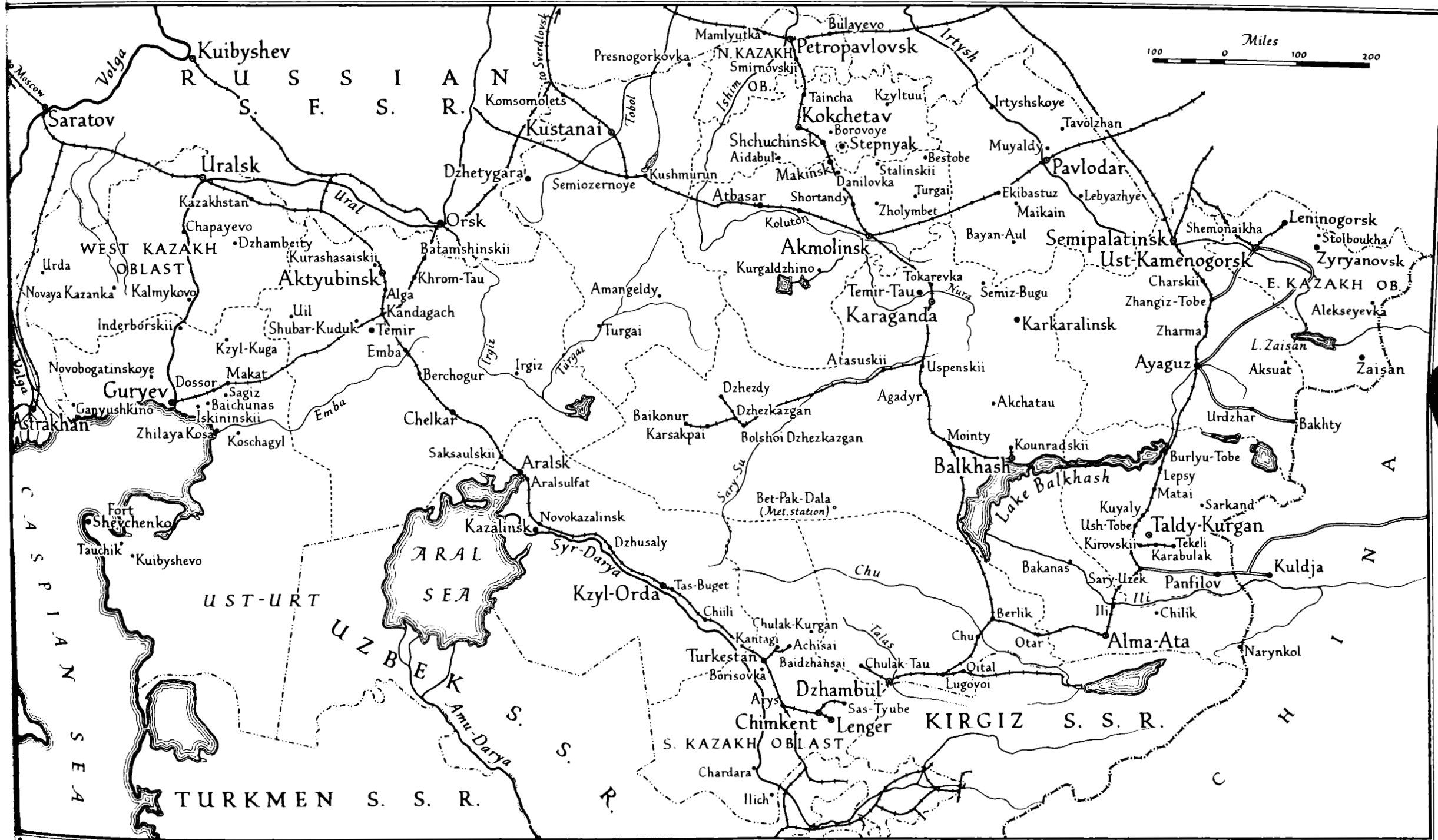
In 1953 only half the usual amount of hay was obtained in this area and the damming of the river had adverse consequences as far as its confluence with the Ob. It is proposed to increase the fall of water at the power-station and to flood the plain artificially twice a year in future. This seems as yet impossible because the working of the plant involves containing the Irtysh spring flood-waters.

The station is in some cases not fulfilling its intended purpose. An article in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda describes the village of Biryukovka, four kilometres from Ust-Kamenogorsk, as being without light or radio. The inhabitants at their own cost and by their own labours laid power lines. These have only to be switched to a transformer 400 metres from the village, but this has not yet been done.

Hydroelectric stations on the Alma-Atinka and Ulba rivers

Alma-Ata is supplied with electricity by the hydroelectric scheme on the river Alma-Atinka, of which the first plant - Ozernaya No.1 - has been completed. The river feeds a large lake in the Zailiiskii Alatau mountains, and has a fall of 600-700 metres in three or four kilometres;

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plans were made to use it for electric power during the war, and surveys were carried out as early as 1943-4. The first power-station was built where the river leaves the lake. Construction of the dam and plant took over three years. The work was difficult, not only had it to be done at an altitude of 2,600 metres, but pipe-lines had to be laid through the mountains to connect several plants in a grid, high tension lines had to be laid to link the plant with Alma-Ata, and twenty-four kilometres of roads had to be made. 2,000 tons of piping was laid in five months instead of in the projected ten.

The water feeding Ozernaya No.1 passes through a tunnel to Ozernaya No.2, now under construction, and then to other plants; there are to be nine, all automatically operated, when the project is fulfilled. Ozernaya No.1 was finished in 1953. It has the largest turbine in the Alma-Atinka project, and has doubled the output of hydro-electricity in Kazakhstan.

A similar "cascade" series of power-stations was completed in 1954 on the Ulba river in the Altai to serve Leninogorsk (formerly Ridder). There are three plants; Ishinskaya, Kharezovskaya and Ulba, all in the East-Kazakhstan oblast. Remote control was first installed at Ishinskaya; all three plants are now controlled from a single panel at the Ulba station. The grid has a vital importance for the Altai non-ferrous metal works.

Inter-kolkhoz power-stations

In the rural areas of Kazakhstan, small 50-100 kilowatt power-stations, serving one or two kolkhozes, are most commonly found. Experience has shown, however, the wisdom of creating hydroelectric plants of medium size to serve several kolkhozes because the potential power of an average small river is between 1,000 and 1,500 kilowatts. The cost per kilowatt of a small plant is double that of a larger station. Moreover, manual labour has to be used in construction as there is insufficient power for complete mechanization; and labourers are not always to be found, particularly in the summer. Finally, maintenance of a small station is as costly as that of a much larger one. The solution proposed therefore is to build medium-sized inter-kolkhoz plants. The cost of a 1,200-3,000 kilowatt plant should be not more than 3-4,000 rubles per kilowatt, while the cost of a 100 kilowatt plant, such as that at Ak-Su, may reach 6,000 rubles per kilowatt.

In summer 1953 the Ukrainian branch of Gidroselektro (Rural Hydro-electricity authority) completed a survey for the erection of five inter-kolkhoz power-stations, which are to have capacities varying from 1,200

to 3,000 kilowatts. The largest - Antonovskii on the Lepsa river - will supply kolkhozes of the Sarkand, Andreyevskii and Ak-Su raions of the Taldy-Kurgan oblast. The others - Abakumovskii on the river Ak-Su, Uspenskii on the Orta-Tentek, Budennovskii on the Kok-Su and Nizhne-Tentekskii (to be operated by remote control) - will serve agriculture in the Ala-Kul, Dzerzhinskii and Kapalskii raions of the same oblast. One inter-kolkhoz station has already been completed on the river Tentek; it was built by the Molotov, Koigeldy, and Thirtieth Anniversary of the Kazakh SSR kolkhozes of the Kokpetinskii raion, Semipalatinsk oblast.

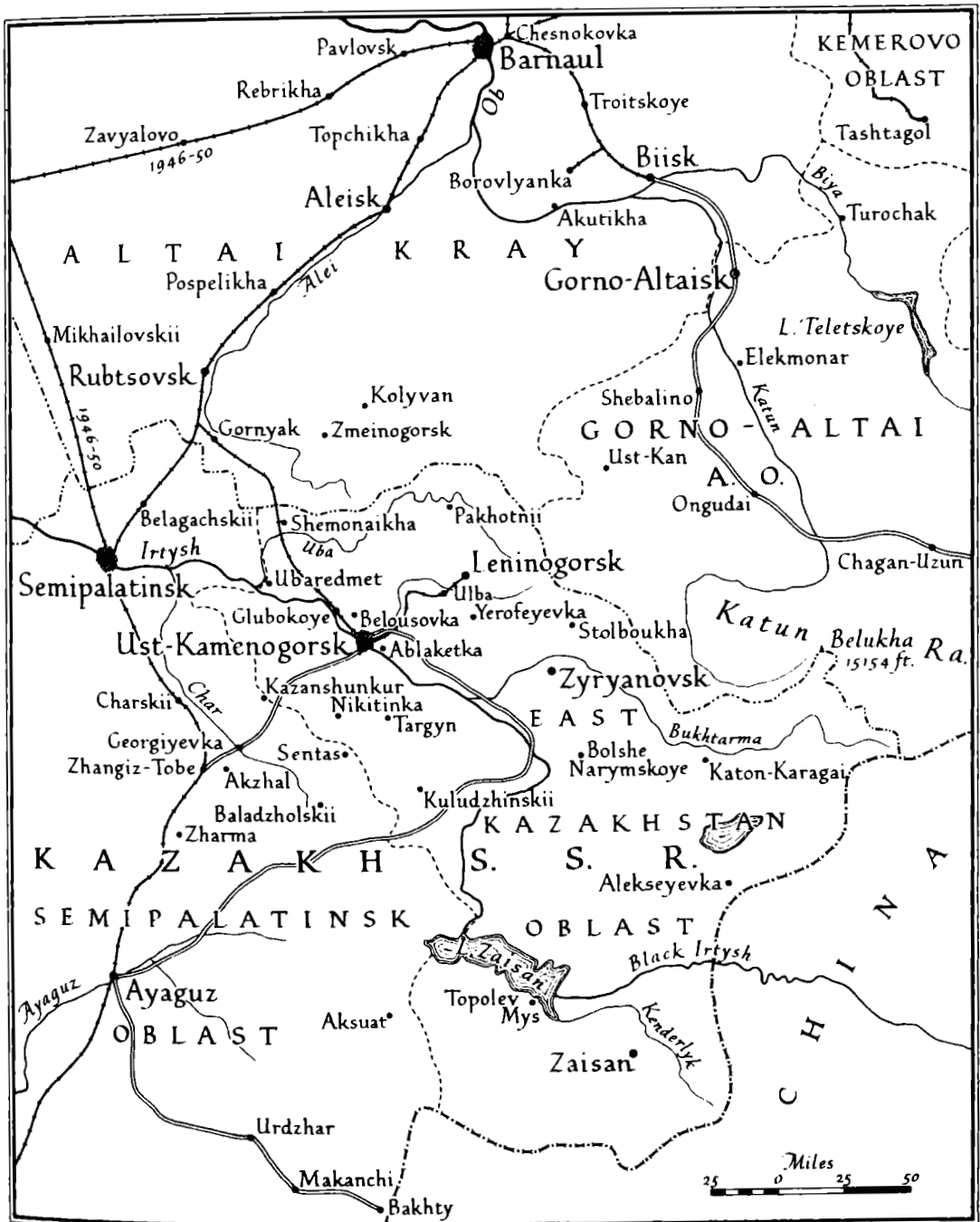
On the river Sharyn, eighteen kilometres from Zhalanash, the Ak-Togai hydroelectric plant has been under construction since October 1953. It will supply six kolkhozes of the Kegen raion of the Alma-Ata oblast. 150,000 cubic metres of soil have been excavated and 2,000 cubic metres of concrete will be needed for the dam. Power is provided by a mobile diesel plant. Houses, a canteen, medical centre, shop, library and public baths have been built, and a thirteen-kilometre road has been made linking the site with the main road.

Meshke (Dzhabul oblast) has a hydroelectric plant with a capacity of 520 kilowatts, serving seven kolkhozes. It began operation in 1954.

Within the next few years the Semirechye grid is to bring electricity to 65 per cent of the kolkhozes of the Taldy-Kurgan oblast. Plans have been drawn up for two hydroelectric plants with a combined capacity of 4,000 kilowatts on the river Terekhta in the recently reclaimed areas of the oblast. The Ukrainian branch of Gidroselektro is planning three more stations with six sub-stations and a total capacity of 15,000 kilowatts to be comprehended by the Semirechye grid.

Difficulties in rural services

In September 1953 there were 1,560 power-stations, thermal or hydroelectric, in the rural areas of Kazakhstan and 61 were under construction. 11,000 engines in kolkhozes, sovkhoses, MTS and MZHS, were working on electricity. Nevertheless, forty-nine kolkhozes of a scheduled 114 for 1953 remained without electricity. Even small power-stations take three to four years to build, and many start work before they are completed; these are soon in need of repairs. The losses of the South-Kazakhstan branch of the Kazselektro (Kazakh Rural Electricity authority) were more than 1m. rubles in the last three years. 1.5m. rubles' worth of building materials were left to deterioration and theft in the open air. In spring 1954 some 200 rural power-stations were idle. Many suspend activities for lack of fuel; such are the Novyi Put, Krasnoye Znamya, and Twelfth October Anniversary kolkhoz stations of the Kokchetav oblast. In



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ALTAI REGION

the same oblast shortage of engineers stops work.

Some plants when built are not fully utilized. Electricity supplies light but not power to the Abai kolkhoz (Karatal raion, Taldy-Kurgan oblast). Eight engines have been in store unused for three years. The First of May kolkhoz (Taldy-Kurgan raion) built a 125 kilowatt hydroelectric station at a cost of 500,000 rubles but only 20 kilowatts have been used for the last two years and only a third of the village has electricity. The Sarkand raion plant supplies three kolkhozes, yet only half of the plant's power is utilized at present; the same is true for other stations in the raion - such as that at Cherkasskaya. At Shet-Tentek (Dzerzhinskii raion) a 106 kilowatt plant was opened late in 1953 to supply two kolkhozes, but they only use 20 per cent of its power and the employment of a staff of nineteen gives a high cost to the kilowatt-hour. The Taldy-Kurgan oblast as a whole has 29 power-stations but only half of the capacity is used.

The power-station at the Karl Marx kolkhoz (Duvalinskii raion, Dzhambul oblast) was opened in 1952. But power is hardly used, and only half the kolkhoz is lit by electricity. The turbine often stops; some of the lines are iron wire which wastes much power.

Town services

Service is no less a source of complaint in the towns. The Ala-Kul fish-canning factory has had its own plant for the last three years. But the plant is not in operation; the processes are applied manually and the workers' homes lit by paraffin lamps. The Ministry of Fisheries pleads in answer to complaints that electric cabling and other materials are unobtainable.

The Tekeli power-station has not had a day without a break-down in the supply of light. Shops and garages in the town have electricity, but the clinic, the pharmacy and private houses are without it. In Akmolinsk not only is electricity not available for domestic consumption, but paraffin lamps are unobtainable. Electricity is not available for domestic use in many streets and houses of Karaganda. Readers' letters in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda blame "red tape" and bureaucracy for the deficient service.

Most surprising are the complaints from Alma-Ata, the capital, supplied by the recently completed station Ozernaya No.1. Many districts - particularly the suburbs - lack electricity. Citizens are advised to lay their own lines to the mains; then they will be given the power. The reporter accuses the Energosbyt (Energy Supply authority)

and the power lines administration of apathy.

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"Apathy", however, may not be an altogether justified charge. It seems likely that both in the country and in the towns there is a serious shortage of cable and other electrical equipment which prevents the full utilization of available power resources. Such cable as there is is given by priority to industry, and to the heavier industrial undertakings. Even the new lands of Kazakhstan - for whose mechanized cultivation some form of power is essential - take second place. Cable was, until the Revolution, imported from abroad into Russia or manufactured in five German-owned factories. The Soviet Encyclopaedia states that in the year 1950 the USSR produced "several tens of times" the 1913 quantity of cable. On consideration of the increase in demand for electric cable in the USSR between 1913 and 1950 this statement seems rather mild, especially when taking into account the enormous electrification schemes. The output of electricity in Kazakhstan in 1913 was 1,300,000 kilowatt-hours; in 1940, 633m. kilowatt-hours. The present Five-Year Plan calls for 1,810m. kilowatt-hours in 1955. In the light of this, the difficulties in the electrification of Kazakhstan may not be entirely attributable to organizational defects.

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ARCHAEOLOGY

1953 EXPEDITIONS IN KIRGIZIA

The following is a slightly abridged translation of an article by A.P. Okladnikov published in Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR of September 1954.

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Programme of exploration - I. Historical monuments: - Eleventh to thirteenth-century remains at Sretenka - The Balasagun temple - Ancient city of Uzgen - Turkic nomadic invaders - II. Stone Age monuments: - Chu Valley and Lake Issyk-Kul - Tien-Shan mountains.

In 1953 an archaeological and ethnographic expedition in the Kirgiz SSR resumed work begun by archaeological expeditions of the Institute of the History of Material Culture of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, and the Institute of Language, Literature and History of the Kirgiz subsidiary of the Academy. The expedition consisted of five archaeological teams: the first studying monuments of primitive communal social structure; the second excavating sites within the confines of mediaeval Balasagun, previously investigated by A.N. Bershtam's expedition; the third excavating mediaeval town-type settlements in southern Kirgizia at Uzgen; the fourth investigating monuments of the nomad population in the Tien-Shan; and lastly a special team investigated the remains of eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth-century settlements near Sretenka in the Stalin raion of the Frunze oblast. Two ethnography, and one anthropology team were also included in the expedition. The new investigations have clearly shown the need to establish permanent centres of investigation on a much wider scale than before.

I Historical Monuments

Eleventh to thirteenth-century remains at Sretenka

Among the more important archaeological discoveries of the investigation, mention is especially due to the remarkable settlement

near the village of Sretenka, where the remains of three buildings were investigated. These buildings are of the eleventh to thirteenth centuries A.D., and were inhabited for a considerable time, being at least twice rebuilt. (Fig.1.) Building No.1 in the second period of its habitation (twelfth to thirteenth centuries) was a structure of considerable dimensions, divided into three parallel rows of rooms running from south to north. In some of the rooms a facing of multicoloured tiles still lies intact on the floor in richness of ornament not inferior to any of the best examples of this type of floor-covering in Central Asia. Apart from the floor, a distinguishing feature of the building is the remains of an intricate terra-cotta facing on architectural details, executed with exceptional delicacy and mastery. The ornament on the terra-cotta slabs is both geometric and naturalistic, the geometric element being represented by triangles in relief, sunken circles, rhombi, polyhedrons of many small fragments of tile, and crescents; the naturalistic element principally by stylized foliage with fantastic tendrils along the edges.



Fig. 2.

Within the building were found two heavy cylinders about forty centimetres high, cast in gilt bronze (Fig.2). Both cylinders are unique artefacts in mediaeval Kirgizia. They are closely covered with very delicate ornament including decorated bands of engraved inscriptions in Arabic. The projecting figures of lions, as it were walking round the cylinder, are a completely unusual feature. In their technique, these sculptural representations recall the best examples of the casting work of eleventh to thirteenth-century Central Asia, and are masterpieces of their kind.

In the same place were found examples of glass work, bronze medallions, ornaments and discs with lettering in the form of Arabic ligature inscriptions, which had obviously served as ornamentation on some architectural details. In building No.1 were also discovered numerous iron artefacts, including an iron vessel.

No less remarkable are the objects found in building No.2; a cast copper medallion with representations of animals symbolizing the twelve-year calendar cycle, ornamentation of white Eastern Turkestan nephrite, and fragments of the head of a Chinese dragon modelled in clay - an architectural detail probably used to finish the roof-ridge. Roofing

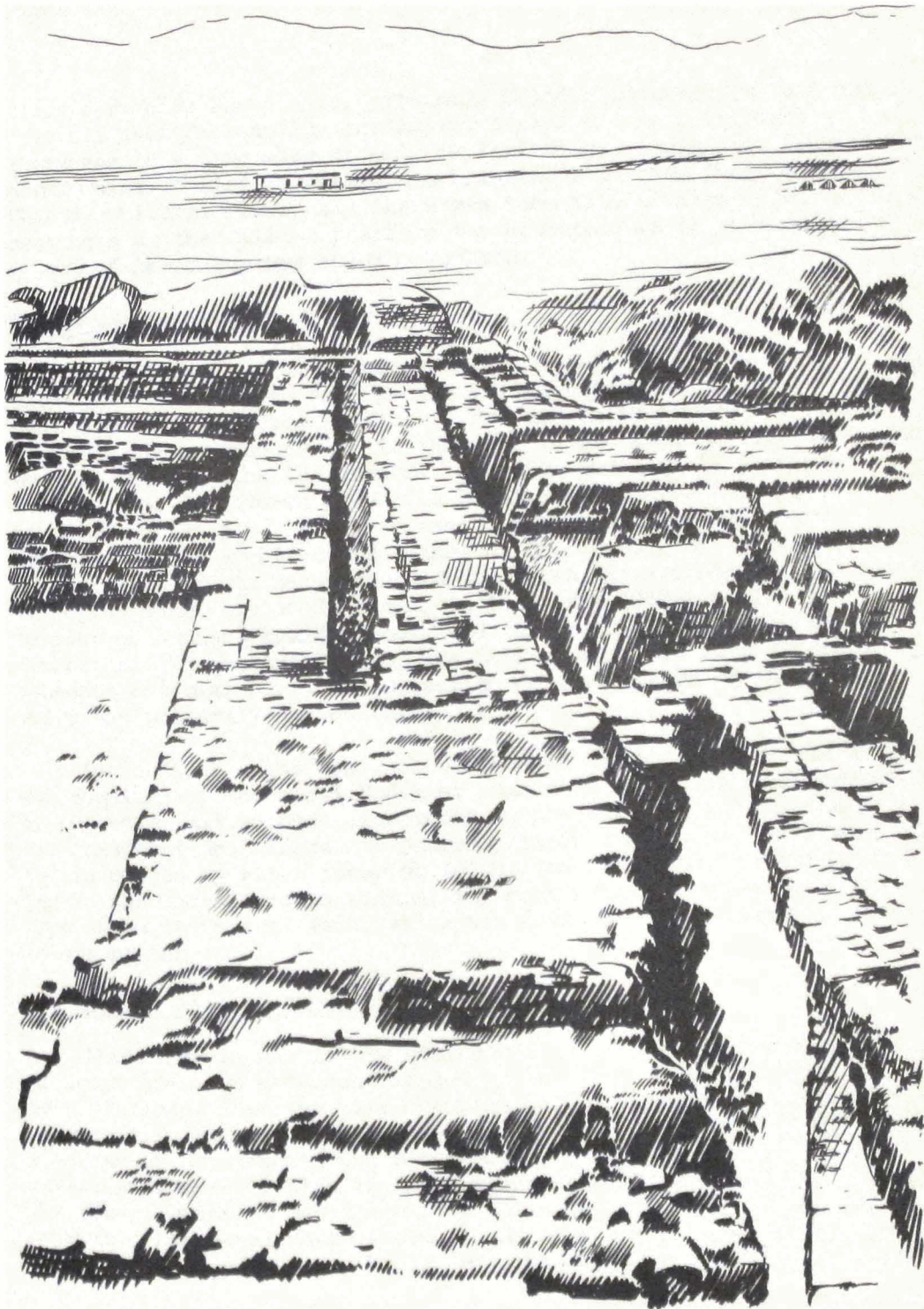


Fig. 1.

tiles were also found here, typically Chinese in technique and shape. This all justifies dating the latter period of the settlement's existence to a time when Kidani, or Kara-Kitai, immigrants from distant North China settled in Semirechye bringing with them their native Chinese culture. Obviously there was some kind of Kara-Kitai settlement here at that time - possibly the headquarters of a feudal ruler, if not of their supreme ruler - Gurkhan.

The Balasagun temple

The excavations at Balasagun have uncovered a bright page in the history of Semirechye, when pioneers of agricultural colonization had just arrived there from Sogdiana. The excavations have also thrown light on the ensuing events in the life of eleventh-century Balasagun, when it was taken by the nomads. In 1953, excellently preserved remains were discovered here of a Buddhist temple of the eighth to ninth centuries A.D., richly ornamented with wall-painting and sculpture. The architectural lines of the temple, the peculiarities of the style of its paintings and sculpture approximate it both to the analogous monuments of Sogdiana, in the first instance with the temples of ancient Pyandzhikent, and to the cave temples of Eastern Turkestan. The excavations of the Balasagun temple have afforded abundant material for the elucidation of the economy of that time, which was primarily agricultural.

Agriculture - the basic occupation of the builders of the temple, the Sogdians of the local Buddhist community - is clearly represented by the heavy mill-stones discovered in the building and also used in its construction. These, to judge by their dimensions, must have been set in motion by water power or animal traction. Still more interesting is the intact wooden plough, the most ancient implement of this type known in Central Asia, which was found set in an angle of a wall to strengthen it.

The ancient city of Uzgen

Much that is new in the historical topography of Uzgen and the adjacent area has been contributed by the team working there. It has been disclosed that the city occupied its maximum area in the eleventh century A.D. when it was the capital of all Maverannakhr (Transoxania). A series of settlements and strongholds has been investigated which reveal a picture of life in this region from the early centuries A.D. The distribution of settlements is connected with the ancient aryk network. Mediaeval Uzgen stood at the junction of four roads: the northern road led to the Chu Valley, the north-western went in the

direction of the modern Dzhahalal-Abad, and further along the Kara-Darya, and the south-eastern connected Uzgen with areas in the direction of Kashgar.

Turkic nomadic invaders

No less expressive is the material afforded by the excavations on the characteristics of the way of life and culture of the nomad Turkic peoples who a century later destroyed the temple (Ed: It is not clear whether this refers to the Balasagun temple described above or to another), smashed the images of the gods, looted the sacred vessels, and then settled within its walls with hearths for their cauldrons and barrel-shaped pits to keep their meat in. It is also clearly possible to establish how, later, in the second half of the ninth and in the tenth century, the nomad Turkic peoples gradually settled on the land and became tillers of the soil.

II Stone Age Monuments

The study of monuments of the epoch of primitive communal social structure has done much to fill gaps in the study of Kirgizia's archaeology and history. To this end it was first of all necessary to begin systematic searches for monuments of the more distant past of Kirgizia, for traces of human activity in the early stages of primitive communal structure in the Stone Age.

Until now, apart from doubtful isolated finds, not one Stone Age or even Early Bronze Age monument was known in Kirgizia, that is, of the period when stone-working technique was still in its early stages. As a result of especially careful searches in the Chu Valley, by Lake Issyk-Kul, and in the Tien-Shan, such monuments were finally discovered in 1953.

Chu Valley and Lake Issyk-Kul

The search for traces of Paleolithic and Neolithic man was begun by expeditions in the nearer environs of Frunze and Tokmak, where objects were soon discovered testifying to the existence of an ancient culture in the Chu Valley, the exponents of which made wide use of stone in fashioning their working tools. Such objects were found, for instance, on the high terrace-like slopes along the Alamedin and Shamsi rivers, where stone chips and pebbles were found worked by the usual Stone Age methods. Traces of human activity of the same level of culture were encountered near the Boam defile, on a high and ancient

terrace above the river Chu on its left bank, and also farther up this river near Rybachye.

In the investigations of the environs of Tokmak, near which lie the ruins of Balasagun (near Staraya Pokrovka), stone chips were found in the same stratum as crude pottery. The same picture was presented by investigations on the northern shore of Lake Issyk-Kul, where the cultural stratum of an ancient village was found in a ravine near Cholpon-Ata, consisting of ashes mingled with bones of animals, fragments of clay vessels of primitive make and crude chippings. These finds can be related to the Neolithic or Early Bronze Age.

Tien-Shan mountains

Analogous monuments were discovered in the Tien-Shan at a height of 2,400 to 2,500 metres above sea-level. The most interesting and expressive of them were found on the ancient terraces of the Naryn valley. In what appears to be traces of Neolithic settlements a significant amount of worked stone was collected, including hammered pebbles, small chippings and slabs recalling artefacts found in the Chu Valley. These finds were made six kilometres above Naryn on the left bank of the river of the same name, and similar finds were made on both banks of the river at Naryn itself.

On a terrace-like slope eight metres high, at the confluence of the river Sharktma with the river Naryn, near the town of Naryn, a well-expressed cultural stratum was found in a quarry at a depth of sixty to eighty centimetres. Animal bones lay together with pebbles chipped apart by human hands, pieces of charcoal, fragments of crude pottery and a well-polished disc-like stone artefact which probably served as a sun-dial.

The settlements on the river Sharktma, like the finds at Staraya Pokrovka near Balasagun, and at Cholpon-Ata, most probably relate to the end of the third and the beginning of the second millenium B.C. - the beginning of the Early Bronze Age in Kirgizia. Cultural remains very close to these in character have also been found in excavating a series of caves in the Tien-Shan, including the caves on the famous mountain Ala-Myshik and the Teke-Sekirik grotto near Naryn.

The special expedition to the river Sarydz haz, famous in literature for its caves, undertaken by Kh. Alnysbayev, one of the members of the expedition in the company of V.I. Ratsek, the famous mountaineer and explorer of the mountains of Central Asia, brought very interesting results. The Ala-Chunkar cave on the river Sarydz haz

proved to have served immemorially as a place of refuge for ancient man. It lies at a height of about 3,500 metres above sea level and is 45 metres long, 1.5 to 7.5 metres wide, while the vault of the cave goes from 12 metres near the entrance to 1.5 metres at the back. This is so far the only cave in Kirgizia where rock drawings are preserved of goats, bulls, snakes and human figures. These drawings are executed in red.

During excavation in the cave, hammered pebbles were found and chippings with distinctly visible signs of workmanship. It is thus for the first time established that man lived in the Tien-Shan heights at a very remote period indeed.

Still more interesting and unexpected was the discovery in the Tien-Shan of traces of an ancient culture of a stature considerably surpassing that displayed by all the finds mentioned above. While exploring the valley of the little mountain stream On-Archa, a tributary of the Naryn, the party found its attention attracted by an ancient terrace of pebbles and boulders rising more than 30 to 40 metres above the right bank of the river bed and clearly not corresponding to the natural contours of this area. In a deep hollow, excavated in the construction of the Frunze - Naryn road, a heavy rounded stone lay in an undisturbed state among large pebbles, in a position about 25 metres lower than the upper part of the terrace. One projecting edge had been worked with a chopping action and made into a long blade in the shape of a slightly bulging crescent. A second edge remained untouched and could have served as a sort of hand-grip. This is undoubtedly a crude chopping implement similar to the most ancient Stone Age tools of the hand-chopper type. It is distinguished, however, from the usual hand-choppers in Europe and elsewhere by the formation of its working end, which has the shape not of a prolonged point, but of a broad projecting blade. Artefacts of this kind made of whole pebbles, and at first glance recalling archaic nuclei, are well known as "pebble-tools".

Together with the artefact described above, other stones worked by man were found on the On-Archa in the same shale deposits of the ancient terrace, including a small scraper-like tool of a form no less characteristically archaic. It took the shape of a primitive, scraper-like instrument made from a flat pebble split apart by a strong cross blow at the sides. The roughly crescent-shaped projecting edge of the tool, formed as a result of this operation, had then been worked with crude but quite accurate chipping tools.

Scraper-like instruments of this kind, made from whole pebbles split by one cross-blow are widely distributed together with "pebble-tools" in southern and south-eastern Asia, where they are characteristic

of, for example, the Lower Old Stone Age, pre-Schellian and Schellian remains.

The ancient - that is at least Lower Old Stone Age - date of the find on the On-Archa is attested not only by the technique of manufacture and form of the tools found, but also by the geological conditions of their provenance. It is particularly noteworthy that this precious find was made in the very heart of the "Mountains of Heaven" at a height of about 2,500 metres above sea level.

These finds represent the most ancient traces of man not only in Kirgizia but in all Central Asia - the working tools of its first inhabitants dating from the infancy of mankind. It can therefore be stated with confidence that further investigations in search of Paleolithic and Neolithic remains in Kirgizia will afford results important for the reconstruction of the history of the settlements by man of Central Asia. Valuable results may also be expected from the study of later stages of Kirgizia's past.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

HIGHER EDUCATION IN UZBEKISTAN

System of higher education - Qualifications for entrance - Number of institutions - Universities - Technical VUZ - Tekhnikums - Teacher-training establishments - Language of instruction - Political higher education.

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The educational system of Uzbekistan is administered in accordance with the regulations and statutes pertaining throughout the Soviet Union. Readers are referred to "Primary and Secondary Education in Kazakhstan" in Central Asian Review Vol.II, No.2 for a description of many features and a diagram of the whole Soviet system of education.

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The system of higher education

In the Soviet Union higher education is given by institutions of two types. On the first level there are the universities and specialized institutes of university standard; these include technical and medical institutes, academies of the arts, and secondary teacher-training colleges. All these are known as VUZ - i.e. higher educational establishments. The second level comprises similar establishments with lesser standards for the training of mechanics, agricultural workers, pharmacists and dispensers, and teachers for primary schools and kindergartens. The Soviet term for these is "middle-grade specialized educational establishments", but in practice they are often said to give higher education. Collectively they are referred to as tekhnikums, whether in fact they give technical education or not.

Of these two types of institution, some are under all-Union and others, including all teacher-training establishments, under republican control. This is an important distinction. The head of every establishment and his deputies and the dean of every faculty are appointed by the controlling ministry or authority, whether all-Union or republican; other appointments to the staff, or to the status of

aspirant (research student), and dismissals are confirmed by it. In certain cases in Uzbekistan, control is exercised not only from Moscow but from Leningrad, the Crimea, Krasnodar, and other places outside the Uzbek republic. This is criticized as leading to much duplication of function and dissipation of resources (1). Even within the republic there is the same complication. At the republican conference of educationists held in Tashkent in August 1954 there were complaints of the lack of cooperation on the part of ministry officials, particularly in their dealings with the subordinated ministry in the Kara-Kalpak ASSR (2). It was admitted that a reorganization and an attack on bureaucratic methods were necessary, but apparently only a tightening up of the existing system of controls is possible.

Qualifications for entrance

The standard of higher education is necessarily dependent on the standard of secondary education, insofar as the latter is preparatory to it. The present Five-Year Plan (1952-55) calls for ten-year education in all centres of population by 1955, but even seven-year education is not yet universal.

Entrance to a VUZ is to be obtained by those with a ten-year education or those who have completed a course in a tekhnikum and three years work in production. During this latter period they may enter the postal tuition department of a VUZ. For entrance to a tekhnikum, in general a seven-year education, or a four-year education with a four-year period in a part-time factory school is necessary.

Unless they have won special prizes at their former educational establishment, candidates for a VUZ or tekhnikum must sit for entrance examinations, and have only one opportunity to do so. The director of the establishment may fill vacancies without examination if candidates have passed similar examinations elsewhere, and he may have even greater freedom of choice. In 1953 the practice of the Kara-Kalpak Teacher-Training Institute of allowing some advantage to candidates who made early applications was condemned. This establishment is under local control. Attempts are to be made in all Uzbek VUZ to organize the entrance examinations for the year 1954-55 competitively - as they should already be according to the statutes.

The reorganization of education under the present Five-Year Plan brought a rise in numbers in the year 1953-54 of seven per cent in VUZ and nine per cent in tekhnikums on the previous year (3). But the number of those taking full ten-year education rose by forty-three per cent. The complaint is made that while numbers rise, standards do not,

chiefly because though the schools are transformed, the teachers remain the same. The republican educationist's conference was particularly concerned at the wastage of pupils, especially among girls. In the year 1953-54 two-thirds of the Uzbek girls attending school did not finish their courses; many left to marry. In one school for many years no Uzbek girl has completed the tenth class. Coeducation is to be introduced in 1954-55 with special efforts to interest both sexes in study and intellectual pursuits.

The number of institutions

There are discrepancies in accounts of the number of higher educational institutions. Sovetskii Uzbekistan (by Kh. Abdullayev, Moscow, 1948) gives twenty-nine VUZ and ninety-six tekhnikums for 1940, and thirty-seven VUZ for 1948. Uzbekistan (Tashkent, 1950) a publication of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, gives thirty-six VUZ and ninety-six tekhnikums for 1948. The Soviet Encyclopaedia gives thirty-five VUZ for the beginning of the educational year 1949-50. The official hand-book for entrants in 1953 lists individually twenty-nine VUZ and ninety-two tekhnikums while an article in Pravda Vostoka heralding the beginning of the year 1954-55 lists thirty-six VUZ and ninety-six tekhnikums. One or two of the twenty-nine VUZ listed in the entrants hand-book have been founded since the war. It is possible that some institutes of the Academy of Sciences are included in the totals of thirty-five, thirty-six, and thirty-seven.

Numbers of students vary correspondingly. The article mentioned above gives the total number of students at both levels in the year 1954-55 as over 80,000. The figure for 1940 is 32,500 and for 1948, 56,000.

The universities

Of the two Uzbek universities, the Central Asian State University in Tashkent has an outlook at once wider and attracting more criticism than the Alisher Navoi Uzbek State University at Samarkand. It has eight faculties, whereas the university at Samarkand has five. The criticism it attracts is mainly in respect of its wider interests: the faculty of philology works on problems without meaning for the Uzbek republic; there are too few applicants for entry to the oriental faculty (4). It is noteworthy that the syllabus does not specify the native languages for philological study. The rector of the university, Tadzhamkhamed (Taj Muhammad) Sarymsakov, described as a brilliant young mathematician, has acknowledged elements of "scholasticism, talmudism, and pedantry" in its instruction, and deplored its failure to attract

Uzbeks, and particularly Uzbek women.

The Alisher Navoi University is less frequently mentioned, and is criticized principally on the grounds that it devotes too little attention to research. It gives correspondence courses. Like other VUZ, it has difficulty in enrolling Uzbek women.

The technical VUZ

Apart from the two universities, the VUZ fall into two categories: those giving technical instruction, and the teacher-training institutes, which are described below. Of the VUZ other than teacher-training colleges two are in Samarkand, and all the rest in Tashkent, which has an educational importance unparalleled in Central Asia and even beyond. For instance, in Tashkent is the only institute for training pharmacists in the whole of Central Asia and Western Siberia. The Tashkent Institute of Finance and Economics is the main such institution in Central Asia, and attracts students from Kazakhstan and Tadzhikistan as well as Uzbeks and Russians. There are institutes for the study of agriculture, textiles, law, trade, railway construction, irrigation, and the mechanization of agriculture. Most of them have been in existence for fifteen to twenty years and have grown steadily. An example is the Textile Institute, which since 1948 has added three new faculties, the third in 1953 being for the study of cotton-cleaning processes.

Criticism is mainly directed against the failure of the VUZ to maintain academic standards. Of 414 instructors of the "social sciences" 230 are without qualifications (5). The problem of post-graduate work - the aspirantura - is constantly discussed. Aspirants do not receive proper attention from their supervisors, and many have their theses rejected. Certain supervisors have not had a single success for a considerable time. Particularly few are the successes among Uzbeks, and especially Uzbek women. Only the urban population is being attracted to higher education; the rural areas are neglected.

All these institutions are under all-Union control.

The tekhnikums

Of the seventy-one tekhnikums in Uzbekistan, eighteen are under all-Union control; these are all concerned with the more technical branches of industry - railways, chemical and electrical engineering, oil, food-processing and hydrology. Fifteen of the rest are for medical attendants and midwives, nine for music and the arts

(preparatory for the State Conservatoire), eighteen for agriculture, and the remainder for local and light industries.

No criticism is forthcoming of the technical aspect of their activities; but many of their students on attempting entrance to the correspondence or ordinary departments of the VUZ fall down on the Russian language paper. An article in Pravda Vostoka in June 1954 complained of their general low level of literacy, and particularly of the ignorance of Russian. Dozens of mistakes appeared in a one and a half page essay. A teacher in a factory school, obtained the mark of 4 (unsatisfactory). It is admitted that the root of the problem lies in the teacher-training colleges. Both types are controlled and financed by the Uzbek Ministry of Education and have been deeply affected by reorganization consequent on the Nineteenth Party Congress.

Teacher-training establishments

It is necessary to explain that there is a difference of function between "teacher-training" and "pedagogic" establishments. A teacher-training institute (uchitelskii institut) trains teachers for the V to VII classes of seven-year schools and, where required, for the upper classes of ten-year schools. A pedagogic institute (pedagogicheskii institut) trains all types of teacher, the higher training department being incorporated or, as at Nukus, attached. A pedagogic school (pedagogicheskoe uchilishche) on the other hand, trains teachers for primary schools (I - IV classes); this is a middle-grade specialized educational establishment - i.e. a tekhnikum. For entrance the usual qualifications are required.

By 1953 the change-over to ten-year education had already caused the expansion of five institutes previously training teachers for classes V to VII - those in Samarkand, Andizhan, Kokand, Namangan, and Karshi; and a new institute is to be built in Termez. Up to 1952 there were eight such institutes in Uzbekistan; now there are fourteen. The speech of the President at the Third Session of the Supreme Soviet of the republic announcing these results shows that this expansion implies facilities for training teachers of ten-year schools. There are twenty-one schools (uchilishche) which under present conditions supply many of the recruits to the institutes. Great use is made of postal courses offered by nearly all teacher-training establishments. Two institutes and one school in Samarkand offer evening tuition, while in Tashkent there is an institute purely for evening classes.

The institutes are divided into faculties or departments, generally of language and history, and of physics and mathematics. In some of the

larger institutes there are separate departments of Russian and Uzbek, of natural sciences, geography and chemistry, and of teaching method. In Tashkent there is a special institute for the training of English, French, and German teachers, which has an aspirantura, as has the Nizami Teachers' Training Institute in Tashkent. This, the largest such establishment in Uzbekistan, is usually mentioned in the same breath as the universities, and a picture of its grandiose entrance facade illustrates most works on the subject of higher education in the Soviet Union. It is its practice to submit post-graduate theses to Moscow - a practice said by a senior member of the evening teacher-training institute in July 1954 to lead to the neglect of the aspirants, and to be the cause of the many cases of failure (6). He was discussing the problem of teaching Russian, and deploring the lack of theoretical study of method, and especially of a comparative grammar for the benefit of those learning Uzbek and Russian simultaneously.

Language of instruction

The language problem is necessarily most acute in education in Uzbekistan. Knowledge of Russian is required for entry to institutions of both levels. The examination for entrance to VUZ is conducted in writing in Russian though viva voce only in other subjects, while entrants to tekhnikums do a Russian dictation. Entrants to VUZ coming from tekhnikums are said to gain especially poor marks.

The language of instruction is always specified in the prospectus. It is Russian alone in the more specialized establishments: the State Conservatoire, the flour-milling, industrial, railway construction, building, topographical, hydrometeorological tekhnikums. All these are in Tashkent. Nearly everywhere else both Russian and Uzbek are used, sometimes varying according to the nationality of the instructors. Russian is not always taught in Russian; the Fergana institute carries on all instruction in Uzbek, and yet trains teachers of Russian for Russian schools. Pupils are always trained with particular national groups in view; teachers of Russian are trained to teach either Russian or Uzbek schools and vice versa.

There are other languages of instruction. The school training primary and kindergarten teachers in Khodzheili uses Kara-Kalpak, Kazakh, Uzbek and Russian. The Chimbai school for training primary teachers and senior Pioneer leaders uses Kara-Kalpak, Kazakh, and Russian. Some institutes use Turkmen and Tadzhik.

The proportion of Russian to indigenous inhabitants receiving higher education is nowhere directly mentioned. According to the 1939

census, Russians formed 11.6 per cent of the population of Uzbekistan and two-thirds lived in the cities, most of them in the Tashkent oblast where only 42.3 per cent of the inhabitants are Uzbeks. On the other hand in the educational year 1953-54 out of 187 finishing the course given by the republican Party school - all of whom would have received or be receiving higher education - seventy per cent were Uzbeks or of other native origin. This figure may require qualification. Many students have already received political education and Russians may not need the services of the Party school.

Political education

Political education is given in all higher educational institutions and is expected to help the work of raising standards. There are also eleven "evening universities of Marxism-Leninism" in the principal cities with off-shoots (filial) in large factories and in trade-union branches, including those in institutions of learning. Instruction is often in Uzbek (7). Attendance is voluntary, but there are criticisms of compulsory enrolment to boost numbers (8). Communists who had already taken courses at their VUZ are among those included, and no attempt is made to place the pupils in classes of their educational standard. Instruction is often given by the question and answer method. To improve poor attendance figures, instructors are to reorganize their groups and encourage independent work on the fundamentals of Marxism, to assist which the works of Lenin and Stalin have been translated into Uzbek and the first volume of Das Kapital is in the process of translation.

Conclusions

Higher standards and a higher proportion of Uzbeks in the universities and institutes can only be achieved by higher standards and more of the native population in schools; the expansion of the schools demands higher standards in the institutes training the teachers. The initial advance in education in Uzbekistan was made by an influx of Russian scholars, scientists, and educationists. But the ultimate leadership in education was established locally with the founding in 1943 of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences. Sharp and frequent criticism of the Academy from inside and outside the republic shows that it is finding difficulty in maintaining its role. Yet there is equally sharp criticism of institutions with all-Union connection from within Uzbekistan. It seems that higher and technical education is suffering from the shortcomings of the primary and secondary schools, which are due largely to the very great increase in the numbers of school children.

Notes

- (1) Speech of Comrade Mukhitchinov at the Twelfth Uzbek Party Congress held in February, 1954.
- (2) Reported in Pravda Vostoka of 22.8.54.
- (3) " " " 3.2.54.
- (4) Article by R. Bigayev, head of the department of Russian language in the Tashkent Evening Teacher-Training Institute, in Pravda Vostoka 10.7.54.
- (5) G. Sultanov, head of the science and culture department of the Central Committee of the Uzbekistan Communist Party, writing in Pravda Vostoka of 1.8.54.
- (6) Cf. (4) above.
- (7) Article in Pravda Vostoka of 23.8.54 on the beginning of the educational year.
- (8) Reported in Pravda Vostoka of 7.2.54.

Sources

1. Spravochnik dlya postupayushchikh v vysshiye i sredniye spetsialnyye uchebnye zavedeniya UzSSR v 1953 g. Tashkent, 1953.
2. Narodnoye obrazovaniye v SSSR. E.N. Medynskii. Moscow, 1952.
3. Sovetskii Uzbekistan. Kh. Abdullayev. Moscow, 1948.
4. Uzbekistan. Academy of Sciences of the Uzbek SSR. Tashkent, 1950.
5. Soviet Encyclopaedia, s.v. VUZ.
6. Central Asian press.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

ISLAMIC STUDIES IN RUSSIA

PART II

The following is a continuation of the analysis of Ocherki Istorii Izucheniya Islama v SSSR by N.A. Smirnov, the first part of which appeared in the last issue of this Review. The final and concluding part of the analysis together with a bibliography will appear in the next issue of the Review. The 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 those either of the author or of the writers and others whom he quotes.

Chapter IVIslamic Studies 1918 - 1934Attitude of the Soviet regime to Islam

From 1918 onwards the principal representatives of Islam and its sects encouraged and supported the counter-revolutionary movement against the dictatorship of the proletariat, one of the planks in their platform being "the libellous accusation that the Soviet regime aimed at suppressing religion."

In fact, the Soviet attitude towards religion was based on the Marxist principle of freedom of conscience, and in the proclamation of 24th November 1917, addressed to all the Muslim peoples of Russia, "whose mosques and shrines have been destroyed and whose beliefs and customs have been trampled on by the Tsars and taskmasters of Russia", these were informed that thenceforward their "beliefs and customs, national and cultural institutions are declared free and inviolable".

One of the first practical steps taken by the Soviet regime with regard to the Muslim religion was to comply with the request of the regional Muslim congress of the Petrograd National District that the Holy Koran of Osman, which at the time of the annexation of Central Asia had been removed from a mosque of Samarkand to the State Public Library, should be handed over to them.

The tasks of the Party in respect of Islam and the people of Muslim countries were defined by Lenin in 1920 as (a) support of the "bourgeois-democratic movement" in backward countries, (b) the fight against religious and other reactionary and mediaeval elements, and (c) opposition to pan-Islam and similar movements which were endeavouring to identify the movement for liberation from European and American imperialism with the strengthening of the position of the khans, land-owners and mullas. But both Lenin and Stalin emphasized the need for care not to offend the deep seated sensitivities of the Muslim peasantry by too precipitate action.

On the subject of the canonic law (Shariat) Stalin said that "the Soviet Government regarded the Shariat as being as competent a customary law as any which obtained among other peoples inhabiting Russia". Later, in 1921, S.M. Kirov said "the Soviet regime is in no way concerned with individual beliefs. One can believe in, pray to and rely upon what one likes. But when it comes to the Shariat, there is something more than the religious side; there is also the matter of general control". Replying to a Muslim delegate's demand at the Congress of Soviets of the Mountain Republic that they should be allowed to have the Shariat in its entirety, Kirov said that the Soviet regime's task was to create Soviet conditions of life irrespective of tribe, language or creed. If some agitation hostile to the Soviet regime were to move under cover of the Shariat, "we shall always fight it and scatter every anti-Soviet group". At the same Congress Kirov said: "Our Communist Party has never and in no sense aimed at establishing any kind of control over your Shariat. That is your affair. The Communist Party is not concerned with this question from any point of view".

Kirov's statements, pronounced during the years of the Civil War and intervention, "prove what a vast educational work was conducted by the Communist Party during the difficult period of the armed struggle". His initiative "unquestionably played a great positive role and gained the sympathy of a large section of believing Muslims". His pronouncements "clearly showed the difference in the attitude of the Soviet regime and Communist Party towards Islam and the Shariat on the one hand, and towards the counter-revolutionary activities of the Muslim clerical element on the other".

After the victorious conclusion of the Civil War, the Party took up in earnest the matter of anti-religious propaganda. At the XIIth Party Congress of 1923 a resolution was adopted on "the establishment of anti-religious agitation and propaganda". The resolution laid down the general lines on which the campaign was to be conducted. Dealing with the same subject, the XIIIth Congress of the Party adopted a

resolution on "work in the country". This included the following passage: "It is essential that any attempts to combat religious prejudices by administrative means should be decisively abandoned. Such means include closing of churches, mosques, synagogues, prayer-houses, and the like. Anti-religious propaganda in rural areas should consist of an exclusively materialistic explanation of the natural and social phenomena with which the peasants are confronted... Particular care should be taken to avoid offending the religious sensibilities of the believer which can only be overcome by long years of carefully planned work of enlightenment. Such caution is particularly necessary in the eastern republics and oblasts".

The results obtained by anti-religious propaganda were reviewed in two conferences held under the auspices of the Agitprop of the Executive Committee of the Communist Party in April 1926 and June 1929. These results were later summarized in a series of articles by Em. Yaroslavskii. He stated that: "The Socialist reconstruction of the people's economy is destroying the economic and material roots of religion. It is on this account that the kulaks are relying upon various religious organizations for the struggle against collectivization. No wonder that the mullas frightened the Kirgiz with the idea that the kara shaitan (black devil), that is, the Turksib locomotives, would soon traverse the steppe. Under the influence of the successes achieved by Socialist reconstruction the atheistic movement has become a mass movement".

Even after the end of the Civil War "bourgeois-reactionary elements" and the representatives of various Muslim and other religious sects continued a sporadic fight against the Soviet State. In this they were "supported by foreign imperialists exploiting the backwardness of eastern peoples". The state of affairs which resulted from NEP (New Economic Policy) contributed to the revival of "bourgeois nationalist ideology". In the resolution of the XIIth Party Congress relating to propaganda it had already been noted that the shortage of propaganda material in non-Russian languages had combined with NEP to strengthen the influence of the petty bourgeoisie and "nationalist-clerical" element among the people using those languages. Among eastern peoples this resulted in the growth of pan-Islam and pan-Turanianism. "Very important for all students of Islam is the resolution's finding that, owing to a number of historical and social circumstances, the influence of the non-orthodox churches and priesthoods among people of non-Russian nationality was and still remains, especially among Muslims and Catholics, stronger than the influence of the Orthodox church". Anti-religious propaganda, said the same resolution, should take this peculiarity into account.

It was the foregoing historical background and defined objects which conditioned the first Soviet literature devoted to the subject of Islam.

Publications on Islamic subjects, 1918 - 1924

The first Soviet literature dealing with the subject of Islam took the form of articles in periodicals, and of occasional books and brochures. Zhizn Natsionalnostei (The Life of the Nationalities), which first appeared as a daily in 1918, in 1922 as a weekly, and in 1923 as a monthly, contained a number of articles on Islam mostly dealing with its political aspect. Some of those mentioned are "The Koran and the Revolution" (1920), "The Muslim Poor and the Red Army" (on the experiment of attracting the indigenous population of Turkestan into the Red Army) published in 1920, and "Babism and Behaism" (1922). Most of the publications of this period were popular scientific works "designed to expose the class character of Islam and the anti-popular and treacherous activities of the clerical element". One book of this kind was The Basmachi Movement in Bukhara.

More specifically concerned with Islamic matters was the periodical Novyi Vostok (The New East) which lasted from 1922 to 1930. This was designed to throw light on living conditions in the Soviet East as well as in other eastern countries. It contained a great deal of factual material but "the editors were unable to turn it into a militant scientific and theoretical organ elaborating problems of the contemporary east on the required ideal (i.e. Communist) political level". Some of the notable articles mentioned were "The Religious Movements of the Kizil-Bash of Asia Minor" by Gordlevskii (No.1 of 1922); "The Brotherhood of Fighters for the Faith" (No.6 of 1924), a description of the Jamiat-ul-Mujahidin founded by Sayyid Ahmed in India; and "The appearance of Islam seen in a new light" (No.4 of 1923 and No.6 of 1924) by Professor Dobrolyubskii. The last mentioned discussed in detail the theory of the Italian orientalist Caetani who considered Islam to be the final phase of the emigration of Semitic peoples from Arabia, which began in 4000 B.C. Another magazine which paid considerable attention to Islamic matters was Kolonialnyi Vostok (The Colonial East).

During this period the so-called academic orientalists such as Bartold, Krachkovskii and Shcherbatskii displayed considerable literary activity, mostly on highly specialized subjects. Bartold in particular was "the first oriental scholar of the old school to recognize the need for spreading among the broad masses of Soviet readers accurate information on Islam based on scientific conclusions and free from any kind of missionary approach". Apart from purely academic work, he wrote a number of popular scientific works on Islam, the chief of which was Islam - a General Sketch which appeared in 1918. Although these books contain much which is of interest to Soviet students, they tended to minimize the importance of Russian orientalists as a whole. The work of

foreign orientalists is described in detail, pride of place being given to the British orientalists Gibbon and Muir and to others such as Caetani, Goldziher and Lammens.

1926 - 1934

During this period, the Party successfully realized its policy of the Socialist industrialization of the country and solved that most difficult problem, the amalgamation of millions of small peasant farms into kolkhozes. This, together with the liquidation of the kulaks as a class, "led to the destruction of the last roots of capitalism and to the victory of Socialism". Such an operation naturally necessitated gigantic efforts on the "ideological front" in order to expose all those who were "interfering with the onward march of Soviet society and were supporting and cultivating all kinds of outworn traditions, backwardness and illiteracy". "Religious organizations were widely used by the enemies of Socialism. Particularly in the national regions of the Soviet East, where the laws and traditions of Islam were preserved by the Muslim clerical element, and also by all the various 'Ishans, Dervishes and Pirs', they continued to play a very important role in the private life of the people, and especially in their family life in which they were intent on perpetuating the subordinate position of the eastern woman and preventing her from taking her place in society".

Apart from various commissions designed to better the lot of women, "societies of the godless" were created throughout the national republics and oblasts in order both to conduct widespread propaganda work, and to publish anti-religious periodicals, books and popular pamphlets in the national languages. In Moscow special publishing houses called "Bezbozhnik" (the Godless) and "Ateist" were specially created for the latter purpose. The authors of many of these publications, however, were "insufficiently educated on Marxist lines" and their works were consequently "of a very trivial character and quite unable to satisfy their readers". Of outstanding importance, however, are the many anti-religious works of Em. Yaroslavskii who laid down as a general principle the inculcation "in the child of a hatred of those fetters imposed by religion... and of the greatest love for the people of other races and other tribes".

Much of Yaroslavskii's anti-religious activity was directed towards Transcaucasia. "Transcaucasia", he wrote, "is to a certain degree the key to the East; in its way it is a strategic gateway, and if the interventionists gain possession of it, they can exercise tremendous pressure on a whole series of states. This ancient 'road of the peoples' still has a great political significance. In Transcaucasia, until quite recent times, there has been concentrated the attention of the international counter-revolutionary

movement not only of the Georgian Mensheviks, the Armenian Dashnakists, and the Musavatists, but of those who stood behind them - the British, French and other Imperialists. They support the counter-revolutionary clerical element and do not hesitate to give their backing to any new, subtle and 'adapted' religion such as Behaism. Even now (1931) the Muslim hierarchy plays a very important role in the Soviet East... Quite recently they have attempted to create in Azerbaijan 'saintly specialists for the struggle against collectivization. Mullas and kulaks have spread rumours that in such and such a place there is a saint whose 'speciality' is hostility to collectivization", but, he continued, "no prayers to Allah and other non-existent gods can turn the vast, teeming masses of the population of Soviet East from the Socialist path".

Most of the anti-Muslim propaganda material mentioned as appearing in this period seems to have been in the Russian language. An exception to this is the magazine Fen-em-Din (Science and Religion) published in Moscow in 1925 in the Tatar language. Russian articles appearing between 1927 and 1929 were on such subjects as "The Religious Movement in the Tatar Republic", "Atheist propaganda in Bashkiria" and "Anti-religious propaganda in the Soviet East"; a magazine called Revolutsiya i Gorets (Revolution and the Mountaineer) published in Rostov-on-Don in 1929 contained articles on such subjects as "Large-scale godless work in the national oblasts", "From the patriarchal family to the atheist family", and "Why I stopped believing in God".

Another prolific writer on Muslim subjects from the anti-religious standpoint was L. Klimovich whose works, and especially Socialist Construction in the East and Religion (1929), are still of great importance to students of Islam, in spite of the "numerous defects" which they contain. Klimovich also wrote a book entitled The Contents of the Koran (1928), the avowed object of which was to set forth the basic propositions of the Koran and "to provide the anti-religious man with a systematic exposition of its ideas". The author claimed that this book was the first exposure of the internal contradictions of the Koran and he draws a sharp distinction between "the exploiters, in the interests of whom the Koran was written, and the exploited, from whom submission, obedience and belief in a future life of heavenly consolation were demanded". The book is, however, "misleading" in many respects since Klimovich shared the theory expounded by Professor M.A. Reisner under the influence of the so-called school of Pokrovskii about the part played by commercial capitalism in the rise of Islam and the emergence of the Koran.

A book entitled Islam and the Modern East (1928) by N.A. Smirnov

was an attempt to consider in a single volume all the questions relating to the basic teaching of Islam, its political role, the organization of the Muslim hierarchy and the part played by Islam in everyday life. It contains a description of national liberation movements in such countries as Persia, Turkey, India and Egypt. There is much descriptive material written in a popular style but "the theoretical level of the first two editions is very low".

Specialized publications

Various works on Muslim festivals and ceremonies appeared at this period including Klimovich's article "Hajj (pilgrimage), the Vampire of Islam" (Ateist No.53, 1930); V. Shokhor's The "Holy" Month of Ramazan (Moscow, 1930); S. Turkhanov's Muslim Feasts (Moscow, 1931); L. Klimovich's Kurban-bairam (Moscow, 1931) and the brochure, Against Uraza (fasting), (Moscow, 1933). These combine accounts of the origin of rites and holy-days with modern examples of their "reactionary and poisonous" character.

Among works on the subject of woman, N.A. Smirnov's The Chadir (1929) on the origin of the Muslim woman's veil and the struggle against it, contained a "now inaccurate" account of the sources of the custom and an interesting chapter compiled on the basis of an address of the Central Committee of the Uzbek and Azerbaijani Communist Parties to the workers appealing for the emancipation of women. S. Agamali-Ogly's book Namus in Isolated Societies of the Islamic World (Baku, 1929) gives economic independence as the remedy for the imagined loss of namus (respect) by Muslim women. The author acknowledges that compulsion will be necessary, and that therefore legislation on the rights of women must be "reinforced".

Soviet studies of the Muslim sects have had as their object "the exposing of the reactionary nature which they share in equal measure with Islam itself". A.M. Arsharuni's brochure Behaism (Moscow, 1930) contains a chapter on the pretensions of Behaism to contain the essentials of Socialist doctrine; the author went "too far" in his attempts to find a revolutionary note in some Behaist slogans. I. Darov's Behaism - the New Religion of the East, an examination of the speeches and letters of Abdul-Beha, concludes that between Socialism and Behaism there lies the same difference as between Socialism and Capitalism. M. Tomar's article "The sources of Wahabism" in Ateist No.53, 1930 accounted for the new puritan element in Islam by the economic conditions in the Najd of Abd-al-Wahab.

The theocratic character of the caliphate was the subject of P. Gidulyanov's article "The Caliphate as a Peculiar System of Relations between Church and State" (Ateist No.58, 1930). It was based on Bartold's

work on the adoption of the title of Caliph by Selim I in 1517, though Bartold himself denies that this happened. Gidulyanov attributes the system to Muslim theories of the "Kingdom of Allah" on earth, and to the influence of Byzantine conceptions of empire. He denies that the Young Turks in 1908 opposed the religious authority of the Sultan. His statement that the Turkish reforms in the relations between Church and State - the abolition of the sultanate in 1922 and of the caliphate in 1924 - were modelled on and influenced by Soviet reforms in the RSFSR, particularly the separation of Church and State, are "completely incredible". This "absurd" assumption vitiates the otherwise interesting discussion of Britain's policy of using the caliphate and Islam to keep her Muslim subjects under control.

"Islam and Land-ownership", an article by M. Tomar in *Ateist* No.58, 1930, combats the opinion of Hammer, Worms, Perron and others that Islam denies the right to own land. M. Tomar affirms that the Koran is not the real source of Muslim law, but the sunna, which is based on the decisions of Muhammad and of the ashab (the companions of the prophet). He attempts to show that in seventh-century Arabia a system of private ownership was in force. This meant, in fact, that Islam sanctioned the "nationalization" of the land in favour of the ruling group around the Caliph Omar. Islam's most favoured system of land-ownership, the author concludes, was that of wakf.

Among other articles appearing at this time, S.M. Abramzon's "The Manaps and Religion" (*Sovetskaya Etnografiya*, No.2, 1932) was the outcome of an expedition to the Chu district of Kirgizia in the summer of 1930. The manaps, says the author, were the first to accept Islam in Kirgizia and used it to increase their hold on the people. By the beginning of this century the interests of the manaps and the mullas came to be completely identified. At the time of the 1916 rising the Muslim clergy agitated against the war with Turkey, and during the first years after the Revolution the number of mosques in Kirgizia grew considerably - which fact the author treats as an indication of the growth of pan-Islamic secret societies.

The Tatar Economic Institute published in 1930 a work by M. Sagidullin, Introduction to the History of the Vaisov Movement. This movement took its name from Vaisa-al-Kurani, a legendary associate of Muhammad; they also call themselves "Nakshbendi" after the dervishes of that name. Sagidullin says that they took these names to give an appearance of history to their movement. The sect was founded in 1862 by Bagautdin (Bahauddin), a Turkestan trader, who declared himself as a Ghazi in Kazan and opened a "State House of Prayer". The author claims that their doctrine "reflected the interests of the peasants", and he

compares it to the teaching of Tolstoi. Their essential demands were: "Do not acknowledge Muslim assemblies, Tatar mosques, or any Government institutions; do not wear uniform or bear arms as a soldier; do not pay taxes; do not submit to any civil power; do not accept summonses or sign papers". From 1906, the author remarks, Vaisovism began to attract the petty bourgeoisie and to formulate an attitude of staying outside the class struggle, and although they made addresses of loyalty to the Soviet regime, the "Vaisovtsy" after the Revolution were a reactionary movement. (Smirnov comments that the connections of Vaisovism and Pan-Turkism would form a profitable field of study.)

The Ateist collection

A group of scholars on the staff of the magazine Ateist published in 1931 a collection of articles under the general title of "Islam". The first three articles - L.I. Klimovich's "The Origin of Islam", V. Dityakin's "Islam and Today", and B.N. Nikolayev's "Islam and the State" - were written from the standpoint of the Pokrovskii school, that is, of "economic materialism", and are "in contradiction to Marxist-Leninist doctrine". M.L. Tomar's article, "Islam and Communism", however, though it states that the two are incompatible through the conflict of individual points of Islamic law with the principles of Communism and not through a fundamental opposition of weltanschauungen, rightly shows Islam to be "a defender and consolidator of the rights of property"; but he errs in saying that Islam ever was a peasant ideology. Belyayev's and Arsharuni's articles on the sects are an exception to the general level of the collection, which "reflects the level of Islamic studies in 1931 very poorly".

The bibliography, however, although it contains none of the pronouncements of Marxism-Leninism on Islam, is still not without value. It lists 246 Russian and 197 foreign titles under six headings: general works; Muhammad and the Koran; doctrine, ritual, and Muslim law; the sects (mysticism, Sufism, and dervishism); Babism and Behaism; and Anti-Muslim propaganda. Belyayev, in his general introduction, affirms that the Tsarist Government did not realize the need and importance of the scientific study of Russian Islam, and it must be admitted that he judges pre-revolutionary literature on Islam "with unwarrantable severity". It is not possible to dismiss the work of all but a few authorities; "Russian scholarship has always held the first place in Islamic studies". A similar bibliography of works on Islam in Tatar was compiled by Klimovich for Ateist (No. 58, 1930).

In 1931 Belyayev published an anthology, The Origin of Islam. His purpose was to supply students of Islam without a knowledge of foreign

languages with source material. He quotes Schprenger's and Grimme's theories, and in conclusion that of Caetani which, as he notes, has never found favour in the West although it is undoubtedly "the most developed" of bourgeois theories. Belyayev himself is not sufficiently critical of bourgeois works on Islam and mistakenly proposes that Islam was "a sort of social-economic movement" which is, of course, "ridiculous".

Theories on the origin of Islam

All theories of the rise of Islam, about which there was a particular amount of speculation at this time, took as their starting point the economic situation of the Arab tribes of the seventh century. These theories can be divided into five groups: (1) the theory held by M.A. Reisner, E.A. Belyayev, L.I. Klimovich, V.T. Dityakin, and N. Bolotnikov that the motive force of the nascent religion was supplied by the mercantile bourgeoisie of Mecca and Medina. (2) the theory of N.A. Rozhkov that Muhammad brought about a feudal revolution. (3) the theory of M.L. Tomar that Islam arose among the impoverished peasantry of the Hejaz. (4) the theory of N.A. Morozov - ingenious if unwarrantable - that until the Crusades Islam was indistinguishable from Judaism and that only then did it receive its independent character, while Muhammad and the first Caliphs are mythical figures. (5) the theory of S.P. Tolstov that Islam was a social-religious movement originating in the slave-owning, not feudal, form of Arab society.

(1) Reisner first propounded his theory in the article "The Ideology of the Koran" and his book Ideologies of the East (1926-27). He holds that the nomadic tribes of Arabia were an impediment to the development of the foreign trade of Mecca; Muhammad provided the unifying factor in Islam; Allah is "an apotheosized merchant-trader". This theory overlooks the fact that the Koran is essentially "a defence of the ruling classes, and intended to divert the attention of the proletariat from the class struggle". Despite its non-Marxist character, Reisner's theory has had a considerable influence on many Soviet Islamists.

Belyayev in the article "The Role of Meccan Trading Capital in the History of the Origin of Islam" (Ateist No.58, 1930) holds that Meccan merchants organized caravans in cooperation with the poorer classes of the city, and that the relations between Allah and men were those of trade.

Dityakin in "Marx and Engels on the origin and essence of Islam" (Ateist Nos.22-23, 1927) tries to support excerpts from the Marxist classics with the work of Caetani and Lammens (quoting K. Dobrolyubskii's

article in Novyi Vostok, 1924). He also uses the work of Reisner ("The Koran and its Social Ideology" Krasnaya Nov, Nos.8-9, 1926) and of Klimovich ("The Question of the Origin of Islam", Ateist, 1927). In "The Fundamental Principles of an Historico-Materialist Analysis of the Origin and Development of Islam" (Ateist No.27, 1928) he again claims that the initial work of gathering material has already been done by bourgeois scholars, and especially Caetani, and that the principal task of Soviet scholarship is interpretation. This leads to a neglect of sources such as the hadith (traditions). His reliance on the work of Caetani and acceptance of Bartold's theory that the creators of Islam were the town-dwellers involve him in the "mistaken theory of the Pokrovskii school - trade capitalism", which vitiates the work of all the members of the first group.

(2) Rozhkov's theory is expounded in the eighteenth chapter of his book Russian History in the Light of Comparative History (1928). He relies too much on his sources - Müller, Goldziher, and Kremer - to give a truly Marxist interpretation and he gives too much importance to the personal role of Muhammad.

(3) M.L. Tomar, in "The Origin of Islam and its Class Foundation" (Ateist No.58, 1930) holds that Islam was not a superstructure on an existing system, but an independent "category" taking its character from the population of Medina, whither trade capital had driven it from Mecca. This population he believes to have been agricultural, basing this theory on the reports of eighteenth and nineteenth-century travellers, and Islam was therefore a religion of the poorer and depressed classes. The incompatibility of this theory with Marxist views of Islam is evident.

(4) Morozov, in his book Christ (1930) propounds in the chapter of the sixth volume entitled "Whence comes Islam?" these theses: In the Middle Ages Islam was merely an off-shoot of Arjanism evoked by a meteorological event in the Red Sea area near Mecca; it was akin to Byzantine iconoclasm. The Koran bears traces of late composition, up to the eleventh century. The Arabian peninsula is incapable of giving birth to any religion - it is too far from the normal areas of civilization. The Arian Islamites, who passed in the Middle Ages as Agars, Ishmaelites, and Saracens, were indistinguishable from the Jews until the impact of the Crusades made them assume a separate identity. All the lives of Muhammad and his immediate successors are as apocryphal as the accounts of Christ and the Apostles.

Morozov throughout replaces scientific examination by the construction of hypotheses, often contradictory; for instance, he largely identifies the Koran and the Bible, but gives the date and place of the Koran's first

appearance as the thirteenth or fourteenth centuries in the Balkans and not in Arabia.

(5) Tolstov (known today for his work on the Khorezm Oasis) in his article "The Outlines of Early Islam" (Sovetskaya Etnografiya No.2, 1932) discusses some of the views noted above as presented in the special number of Ateist (1930). These found the motive power of Islam in the nomadic tribes, the trader bourgeoisie, and in the "impoverished stratum of the agricultural population". Tolstov's main criticism is that all these views tend to regard Islam as an unique phenomenon with an unique cause. In fact, Islam was not the result of any one social cause or the child of any one class. Although Tolstov does not bring out clearly the nature of Islam "as an ideological superstructure", his treatment is the most satisfactory of all the authors examined. Nevertheless, with the exception of Morozov, they all witness to "the originality of growth of Soviet scholarship" at a period when the question of the origin of Islam had proved "beyond the powers" of bourgeois Islamic studies.

The personality of Muhammad

Morozov's denial that Muhammad had ever existed had a considerable influence on Soviet Islamic studies, particularly on Klimovich's article "Did Muhammad Exist?" (Voinstvuyushchii Ateizm Nos.2-3, 1930) prepared from a paper read to the anti-religious section of the Communist Academy of the Institute of Philosophy. Klimovich points out that all the authors who give biographical details of Muhammad lived some considerable time after his death, and that it has been assumed by all subsequent historians that every religion must have had a founder. Tolstov, however, in the work mentioned above, remarks that such a purely negative approach to the question is not a sufficient basis for denying Muhammad's existence. Tolstov prefers to abandon the biographical approach to the Koran and to adopt Noldeke's division of the Koran into four groups - two Meccan and two Median. The Koran, he remarks, lacks any mention of the prophet's real name, of the place of the battle with the Kureish, or of the Hejira. The "myth" of Muhammad has much in common with the central "myths" of many religions; Tolstov finds parallels in the "deified shamans" of the Yakuts, the Buryats, and the Altai. Ali, who for half of the Muslim world is, if not a god then near to one, is another example of such deification. The social purpose of this myth was to check the disintegration of the political block of traders, nomads, and peasants, which had brought to power the new, feudal aristocracy.

Despite Tolstov's shortcomings, particularly in the field of Arab

philology, this approach to the central myths of Islam is interesting and well grounded. Equally interesting is I.N. Vinnikov's treatment in "The Legend of the Call of Muhammad in the Light of Ethnography" (Articles presented to S.F. Oldenburg, 1934). He distinguishes two variants in the legend, the "passive" - Muhammad's opposition to the call, and the "active" - his solicitation of it. Both are typical features of shamanism and are found at the root of all religions. An example of the "passive" tendency - Muhammad's desire to be wrapped up or to have water poured on him - is typical primitive magic. Indeed, the "passive" feature is the more ancient of the two, though both are found in pre-Islamic Arab cults.

Vinnikov's work shows traces of Marr's "work-magic" theory, and he obscures the fact that the "active" element in shamanism represents the transformation of magic into a lucrative profession. It is obvious that further work on the subject of Islam's origin based on the work of the three authors discussed will have great importance in clarifying issues in Islamic doctrines as well.

[To be concluded]



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.

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P O P U L A T I O N

T H E P O P U L A T I O N O F C E N T R A L A S I A

The following article relates to the area normally covered by Central Asian Review, that is to say, the four Central Asian republics and Kazakhstan. For the sake of simplicity, however, the whole area will be referred to as Central Asia.

In all so-called backward and sparsely populated regions with a considerable economic potential the extent and composition of the population are matters of great importance. This is especially so when the region in question has come under the domination of, and been colonized by, a people technically and industrially more advanced than the indigenous population, and intent on exploiting the natural resources to the utmost. The study of Central Asian population trends is therefore necessary for a proper understanding of current and projected developments both in agriculture and industry. Moreover, upon the relative proportion of settlers to natives will depend to a large extent the cultural future of the Central Asian peoples.

The available data on the population of Central Asia were set forth by F. Lorimer in his Population of the Soviet Union, published in 1946. They consisted of the censuses of 1897, 1926 and 1939 together with certain interim official estimates published both before and after the Revolution. The difficulty of compiling accurate population statistics in an area, where, at any rate until 1926, a large part of the population was tribal and nomadic, is obvious. Moreover, since the first census taken in 1897 there have been a number of changes and upheavals which affected the population; these phenomena include the migration of Russians into the area during Stolypin's administration (1905-11), the 1916 revolt, the Revolution and the Civil War, the migrations of the collectivization period (1928-32), the evacuations during the Second World War, and the settlement plan incident on the Kazakhstan grain drive which is still in progress.

The information available up to 1946, together with the small amount published since then, is incomplete, and even contradictory in certain respects. The 1897 census naturally did not include the large states of Khiva and Bukhara which were then nominally independent. The 1926 census

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was based on ethnic groups (narodnost) whereas the 1939 census was based on nationalities (natsionalnost). Although this may be a distinction without a difference, since the words narodnost and natsionalnost appear to be synonymous, it seems to have resulted in the omission from the 1939 census of many small ethnic groups included in the 1926 census as located in Central Asia. The publication of the full findings of the 1939 census was interrupted by the entry of the USSR into the Second World War and all its results may not have been available to Lorimer in 1946; all of them, indeed, may never have been made available to the West.

Recent Soviet official publications (for example, Uzbekistan published by the Institute of Economics of the Academy of Sciences of the Uzbek SSR, Tashkent, 1950) have, however, given more detailed ethnic surveys of the population of some of the Central Asian republics, quoting from the 1939 census. But it is curious that for some areas no mention of ethnic composition is made in the very place where one would expect to find it, namely in the current edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia. In the long article on the Kazakh SSR in the volume dated 1953, the population is given as containing "eighty per cent Kazakhs and Russians together" without any reference to the relative proportions. In those volumes of the first edition of the Encyclopaedia published after the war, i.e. those containing the articles on Turkmenistan, Tadzhikistan, Uzbekistan, broad ethnic break-downs taken from the 1939 census were given for these republics.

The accompanying tables are designed to show the main trends in population from 1897 to 1939 insofar as these are discernible from the available data. The 1897 census gave the population of "Turkestan and the Asiatic Steppes" (i.e. part of the area now under review except for the Orenburg, now Chkalov, region detached in 1925) as 7,747,000, to which must be added the population of the then independent states of Bukhara and Khiva, estimated at 2,175,000, giving a total of 9,922,000 (Table I). No detailed figures of non-native settlers were given, but the total of these was certainly less than 10 per cent of the native population.

In 1911, official population estimates were published showing a total population for the same area of 12,502,000, made up of 10,551,000 natives and 1,951,000 settlers described as Russians (Table II). An estimate in 1914 gave the total population as 13,279,000 (Table III).

The 1926 census showed an increase on the 1914 estimates of only about half a million in the total population (Table IV). By comparison with the 1926 census, the 1939 census showed an increase of about three

millions in the total population (Table IV), but apparently of only half a million in the native population, or even less (Tables V, VI).

Further research into Soviet sources may make possible a more detailed survey of ethnic trends in the different republics. In the meantime, the main conclusion to be derived from the available data is that between 1926 and 1939, whereas the native population increased by, at the most liberal reckoning, 5 per cent, the non-native population increased by 72 per cent. (A less liberal reckoning, see Table VI, gives 2.9 per cent and 84.3 per cent respectively). The accuracy of information on trends before 1926 is to some extent qualified by the absence of any precise figures for the states of Khiva and Bukhara, and of ethnic details of the population detached from Kazakhstan in 1925. From the available figures, however, it seems that the native population of the whole area did not increase by more than 503,000, or 4 per cent, between 1911 and 1939, while the increase in the total population during the same period was 4,124,000, or 33 per cent, and in the non-native population 3,622,000 or approximately 186 per cent. The most remarkable change in any single ethnic group - and one which has not been officially explained - was the fall in the total of Kazakhs from 3,968,300 in 1926 to 3,098,800 in 1939.

TABLES

I Census of 1897

Asiatic Steppes	2,466,000	
Turkestan	5,281,000	
Khiva and Bukhara	<u>2,175,000</u> (+)	
	<u>9,922,000</u>	

(+) Khiva and Bukhara were outside the area of the 1897 census and of the 1911 and 1914 official estimates. The figures for their population as estimated in 1897 have been preserved in the two following tables.

II Official estimates of 1911 (Aziatskaya Rossiya)

Asiatic Steppes	3,834,000	incl. 1,544,000 Russians
Turkestan	6,493,000	incl. 407,000 Russians
(Khiva and Bukhara)	<u>2,175,000</u>	
	<u>12,502,000</u>	incl. <u>1,951,000</u> Russians

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III Official estimates of 1914 (Volkov)

Asiatic Steppes	3,956,000
Turkestan	7,148,000
(Khiva and Bukhara)	<u>2,175,000</u>
	<u>13,279,000</u>

IV Total population by political divisions

	1926		1939
Kazakh ASSR	6,198,000	Kazakh SSR	6,146,000
excl. Kara-Kalpak AO	305,000	Uzbek SSR	5,831,000
Uzbek SSR	4,446,000	excl. Kara-Kalpak ASSR	451,000
excl. Tadjik ASSR	827,000	Tadjik SSR	1,485,000
Kirgiz ASSR	993,000	Kirgiz SSR	1,459,000
Turkmen SSR	<u>1,001,000</u>	Turkmen SSR	<u>1,254,000</u>
	<u>13,770,000</u>		<u>16,626,000</u>

These figures are given to the nearest thousand. Those for 1926 are from Lorimer, p.64; those for 1939 from Lorimer, p.162. (The 1939 figure for Kara-Kalpakia is from the Soviet Encyclopaedia, 2nd edition.) Some sources give different figures; for instance, figures for 1926 given in 1939 for comparison with the results of the 1939 census (Lorimer, p.163) are in total smaller than those given here by about 100,000. However, other Soviet sources consulted confirm the total given here.

It can be seen that the rise in the total population 1926 - 1939 is 2,856,000; and 1911 - 1939 4,124,000.

V 1926 Census

Native population by ethnic groups (narodnost)

1	Kazakh	3,968,289	All these groups are located in Central Asia and the Steppes. In addition, unspecified proportions of other groups, such as Iranians and Arabs, are noted as inhabiting this area; the total might amount to as much as 45,000. Their residence is of such long standing that they could be regarded as native.
2	Uzbek	3,904,622	
3	Kirgiz	762,736	
4	Turkmen	763,940	
5	Tadjik	978,680	
6	Kara-Kalpak	<u>146,317</u>	
		10,524,584	
7	Kurama	50,079	
8	"Turks" (+)	9,107	
9	Kypchak	33,502	
10	Kashgari	13,010	
11	Taranchi	<u>53,010</u>	
		10,683,292	

(brought forward)	10,683,292
12 Uighur	42,550
13 Yagnobts	1,829
14 Jews (++)	18,698
	<u>10,746,369</u>

- (+) "Osmanli" Turks and Turks of Fergana and Samarkand.
 (++) "Central Asian Jews" - such as the Bukhara community.

VI 1939 Census

Native population by nationality (natsionalnost)

Kazakh	3,098,764	The 1939 census apparently makes no mention of groups 7-13 included in the 1926 census. These groups may have been embodied in the larger groups given here, but Lorimer's suggestion that some of them, such as
Uzbek	4,844,021	
Kirgiz	884,306	
Turkmen	811,769	
Tadzhik	1,228,964	
Kara-Kalpak	185,775	
	<u>11,053,599</u>	

the Kypchak and Uighur, may have been included in the 1939 total of Tatars can hardly be accepted. There is, as in 1926, no indication of how many of the Iranians and Arabs enumerated in the census live in Central Asia. The total increase of the native population 1926 - 1939, if it is not assumed that groups 7-14 were embodied in groups 1-6, is then, to the nearest thousand, 529,000; or, if they are regarded as embodied, 307,000.

If the native population in 1911 is taken as 10,551,000 (see Table II), the increase 1911-1939 is approximately 503,000. The figures in Tables V and VI are taken from Lorimer, pp.58 and 138.

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INDUSTRY

BUILDING IN KAZAKHSTAN

Building materials - New sovkhoses - Urban expansion.

Kazakhstan is one of the most rapidly developing areas of the Soviet Union and the new drive for grain has extended to the rural areas of the republic the already intensive building activity of the towns and settlements. The building industry thus has a vital importance in the life of the republic today, but large and sudden demands have subjected it to a heavy strain, which has been further aggravated by the difficulty of communications over this vast and as yet not fully developed area.

Kazakhstan is rich in materials for building. It has limestone, marl, chalk, gypsum, slate, clay, bitumen and quartz sand. Its factories manufacture cement, bricks, glass, lime, tiles, alabaster, gypsum blocks and roof slates. Many of the factories that existed before the war have been enlarged, and since the war new ones have been built. The Chimkent brick mill, the Sas-Tyube lime factory and the Leiger building material kombinat, all of which lie in the South-Kazakhstan oblast, have increased their outputs, as has the brick mill at Alma-Ata. New cement works have been built in the South-Kazakhstan oblast, while others are under construction in the Karaganda and Semipalatinsk oblasts. New brick mills have been brought into production at Taldy-Kurgan, Ust-Kamenogorsk, Semipalatinsk and Petropavlovsk, besides one at Kustanai. Other new brick mills are planned and the output of the Akmolinsk mill is to be raised to 12m. bricks a year. Large factories are also being built to manufacture concrete and ferro-concrete blocks, which at present are made chiefly by the Altai Vinetsstroi (Altai Lead Construction authority) at Ust-Kamenogorsk in the East-Kazakhstan oblast.

Meanwhile the shortage of bricks is being somewhat relieved by the manufacture of breeze and gypsum blocks. Huge quantities of breeze have accumulated in the industrial areas of the republic, and about a million blocks are expected to have been made by the end of the winter at the new factory in the Taldy-Kurgan oblast. Large quantities of gypsum are available in the West-Kazakhstan, Karaganda

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and South-Kazakhstan oblasts, but it seems that, so far, the manufacture of gypsum blocks is confined to the Chernorechenskii area of the West-Kazakhstan oblast near Guryev. At Guryev itself a group of buildings was recently put up, the walls of which were mainly of gypsum blocks. These measure 40 by 30 by 20 centimetres, and a wall one block thick is said to offer better protection against cold than one made of two and a half ordinary bricks. Gypsum is also being used as a source of anhydrous cement.

Building stone is plentiful in the Akmolinsk, Kokchetav, Kustanai and some other oblasts, but as quarrying has not yet been mechanized, output is low. Little timber, it seems, is available in the republic and most supplies are imported. A locally made timber substitute is, however, produced in certain areas, in the form of pressed reeds. This has proved very useful in house building and is to be manufactured on a much larger scale.

Over fifty deposits of bitumen have been found in the Guryev and Akmolinsk oblasts, and these will be used for both road making and house building. Six asphalt plants are now under construction in north-western Kazakhstan. Marble is at present being imported from the Urals but a large local supply is available in the Markakol raion of the East-Kazakhstan oblast.

Prefabricated houses and fittings are also being imported. According to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 9th October 1954, 20,000 standard wooden prefabricated houses have been made in Irkutsk, Krasnoyarsk, Tyumen, and Kirov for the new settlers in the Kazakh SSR. Some of them are for one family, while others contain two, three, or four flats. The same factories are also sending thousands of prefabricated fittings such as floors, ceilings, doors, windows, and staircases. As a temporary measure, about 900 old railway-carriages have been converted and sent to the sovkhoses as living quarters. Each carriage is fitted with central heating and a shower bath, and accommodates twelve persons.

In the year ending August 1954, 93 new sovkhoses were brought into existence. At first it was the settlers themselves who did all the building, whether it was houses, barns, garages, or workshops. At a later stage, however, the Ministry of Sovkhoses of the Kazakh SSR took over responsibility for this work, leaving the settlers free to reclaim the land. Teams of professional builders, working under this Ministry, are now doing all the building on the new sovkhoses and will presumably continue to do so until the programme is completed. On the other hand, whenever a kolkhoz requires a new building it has to be put up by the farmworkers themselves. The erection of MTS is the responsibility of the

Kazakh Ministry of Agriculture.

An interesting feature of the housing programme on the new sovkhoses is that a settler can obtain from the Selkhoz (Agricultural) Bank a loan of between seven and fifteen thousand rubles for the building of his own house or the purchase of a prefabricated one. The loan is repayable within ten years. Those who take advantage of this scheme are given plots of a quarter hectare each for their house and garden, and judging from reports, the scheme is popular both on sovkhoses and at MTS.

The programme for the building of new sovkhoses in Kazakhstan during 1954 included the erection of 200,000 sq. metres of living space, the excavation of 1,235 wells, the boring of 226 Artesian wells and the making of 252 reservoirs. It appears that the housing part of this programme was achieved by the end of November, for it was then reported that at each of the 93 new sovkhoses between 25 and 35 had been built. On the other hand the general building programme seems to have been in arrears, for only 56.6 per cent had been carried out by the end of September. In some districts it was even worse. At the Kurzshukul and Krasnoznamenskii sovkhoses in the Akmolinsk oblast, building was said to be progressing "exceptionally slowly", while the Ozernyi, Maiskii and Chernigovskii sovkhoses in the Kokchetav oblast and the Moskvoretskii and Internatsionalnyi sovkhoses in the North-Kazakhstan oblast had only achieved 30 per cent by the autumn.

Judging from what the newspapers have reported at other times, the Akmolinsk oblast's housing record seems creditable. At 20 of the 27 new sovkhoses inaugurated in 1954, 525 houses with a living space of 45,000 sq. metres were built. At the Izobilnyi sovkhos the programme was more than fulfilled, by 12 per cent. The first street of the settlement consists of 45 standard prefabricated houses, in addition to which 75 small houses, a refectory, a bakery and public baths have been completed. But even so a large part of the sovkhos staff is still without houses. On the other hand at the Zhdanovskii sovkhos in the North-Kazakhstan oblast, where 2½m. rubles have been spent on building, the whole staff is living in new houses. Workshops and recreational buildings are under construction, and, according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of the 25th September 1954, the sovkhos was shortly to be provided with electric light and a wireless station. In the Semipalatinsk oblast the Karl Marx, Lenin, Khrushchev, Kirov, Lenin (Novo-Pokrovskii raion) and many other kolkhozes and MTS in the Irtysh valley are building new clubhouses. At the Kalinin kolkhoz a new "House of Culture" was completed towards the end of 1954.

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The supply of water presents great difficulties in some oblasts, and particularly in Kustanai, North-Kazakhstan, Akmolinsk, Karaganda and Pavlodar. The Lesnoi and Uritskii sovkhoses in Kustanai, for example, have to fetch their drinking water from a distance of 35 to 40 kilometres. To remedy this and similar problems the Kustanai branch of the Kazsov-khozvodstroi (Kazakh Sovkhoz Water Construction authority) planned to build, during 1954, twenty reservoirs each of an average capacity of 15 to 20 thousand cubic metres, besides a number of wells and smaller reservoirs. Owing to delays in delivering equipment this plan was not fully carried out: only 11 reservoirs with a total capacity of 193,000 cubic metres, 22 wells and 5 smaller reservoirs were completed.

Two Artesian wells were recently bored at the Zhdanov sovkhos in the North-Kazakhstan oblast, and by the autumn of last year 21 others had been bored in the Akmolinsk oblast, many of which yield five litres of water a second. At the Traktorist sovkhos in the Karaganda oblast an Artesian well 115 metres deep was completed in eight days; none of the others mentioned took more than ten days.

Since the new drive for grain in Kazakhstan is a vast project, launched hastily in an area whose building industry was ill-prepared to meet a sudden demand on such a large scale, it is not surprising that those responsible for building the new sovkhoses have come in for much criticism. Letters to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda complain of slow progress, poor workmanship and rising costs. There are frequent reports of the shortage of bricks, lime, tiles and drain-pipes. Equipment such as excavators, concrete-mixers, portable engines and even carpenters' tools is often said to be lacking. At the Uritskii sovkhos in the Kustanai oblast fifty houses remained uncompleted for months because the builders had no glass for the windows or tiles for the roofs. At Dzhaksy in the Akmolinsk oblast a grain-elevator, which was begun in 1951 and due to be ready in 1953, was only one third built by the end of that year, owing to the shortage of materials.

An acute shortage of bricks is reported from all quarters. Even if all the mills produced the maximum of which they are capable, supplies would still be insufficient. But they rarely produce the maximum. For example, the Ministry of Building Materials' new mill in the Kustanai oblast was due to produce 6,000,000 bricks in 1954, but in the first four months of the year it produced only 25,000. The new sovkhoses to be built in this oblast in 1955 will need no less than 140m.

Lack of transport has also hindered progress. The average distance between the new sovkhoses and their nearest railway station is 121 kilometres. Hence large fleets of lorries are needed, but the builders are

supplied with very few. At Tainche railway station in the Kokchetav oblast a consignment of timber for the Kzyl-Tus sovkhos lay undelivered for over two months because no lorries could be spared to fetch it.

So much for what was done - and left undone in 1954. For 1955 the building programme is still more ambitious. It entails the spending of 250 to 300m. rubles and the construction of no less than 260 new sovkhoses. These include 53 in the Akmolinsk, over 30 in the Pavlodar and 19 in the Kustanai oblast. Towards the end of November 1954 the Pavlodar oblast received a trainload of prefabricated four-flat houses, and a large number of converted railway-carriages was expected soon after.

A new "grain town" is to be built in the Kustanai oblast. It will cover an area of 90 hectares and its most prominent feature will be an elevator, 67 metres high. Round it will be grouped 47 granaries, and on the outskirts there will be houses, a power-station, school, kindergarten, day-nursery, shops and a club for 350 people. The elevator is to be of reinforced concrete and will hold about 600,000 tons of grain. It will require a staff of only 12 men, as its working will be controlled from a central panel and many of the operations will be automatic. The granaries, which will be of brick, will each have a capacity of 3,200 tons, and the temperature of the grain in them will be measured by electric thermometers which will record their readings on the control panel. The whole project will require some 44m. bricks.

To improve the supply of building materials and equipment it is proposed to set up what are called "auxiliary bases" at five railway stations - Yesil, Dzhaksy, Atbasar, Dzhaltyr and Akmolinsk. At these bases there will be timber mills, carpenters' shops, brick-drying yards, garages and machine shops, all of which will contribute towards increasing the flow of materials and equipment to the building sites. The construction of narrow-gauge branch railway lines in the reclaimed areas has been started.

In addition to the building entailed by the new drive for grain much is being done in the republic's industrial areas. As already mentioned, several new factories for the production of bricks, cement and concrete blocks are being built. In the new mining areas, and especially in the Karaganda oblast, there is a continuing demand for houses, community centres, schools, libraries, hospitals, cinemas etc. In the old towns, too, such as Alma-Ata and Ust-Kamenogorsk an extensive housing programme is in hand.

In Vol.I, No.1 of this Review, an account was given of Kazakhstan's

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urban development. This development is still going on. For example, a new suburb of Balkhash known as Novyi Gorod (New Town) is being built on the shores of the lake. It has wide asphalted streets, and possesses public gardens laid out with flower-beds. In Balkhash itself a number of small dwellings which were put up when the factories were built are now being pulled down and will be replaced by blocks of flats. Ust-Kamenogorsk is also growing every year. Four and five-storied buildings of reinforced concrete are being put up here in order to economize ground space. At Temir-Tau, 35 kilometres north of Karaganda, the Kazmetallurgstroi (Kazakh Metallurgical Construction authority) has a big building programme in hand which includes factories, housing and public utilities. In fact there is hardly an oblast in the whole republic where there is not a large unsatisfied demand for houses or other buildings of one kind or another.

But progress is being held up by shortage of materials. In the Taldy-Kurgan oblast a brick mill which has been under construction for two years was due to have produced 200,000 bricks by the end of September 1954. But the mill was not completed in time to do this, and even when it did go into operation, it experienced trouble with its drying process. Bricks were taking 81 hours to dry, compared with the normal 36 hours. Similar trouble was experienced at the Ust-Kamenogorsk No.2 and at the Sempalatinsk mills.

Owing to the inefficiency of the two Ust-Kamenogorsk mills - one of which is controlled by the republican Ministry of Building Materials and the other by the Altai-svinetsstroi (Altai Lead Construction authority) - the local supply of bricks has had to be supplemented by bricks from Leninogorsk and even from Alma-Ata, 1,000 kilometres away, thus adding greatly to the cost. Similarly, Alma-Ata bricks have had to be used at Sempalatinsk in spite of there being a brick mill in the town itself.

Concrete blocks are another item which is not being produced in sufficient quantity. Large numbers of these are needed for the reinforced concrete buildings now being erected at Ust-Kamenogorsk, but the local factory of the Altai-svinetsstroi cannot meet the demand. A block of sixty flats, which ought to have been finished long ago, is still shrouded in scaffolding. A shortage of timber has also contributed to the delay. The floors took four months to lay, whereas if enough timber had been available they could have been laid in ten days. It seems that the Altai timber is not being used as much as it might be, for almost all the timber for buildings in Ust-Kamenogorsk comes from Siberia.

At other sites in Ust-Kamenogorsk work is also being held up, and thousands of working hours are being lost. Instead of the 30 to 35

thousand bricks which they need daily, bricklayers have been getting only 11 to 16 thousand and hence are idle for two or three hours in every shift. Although there is plenty of lime and sand in the neighbourhood, deliveries to the sites are insufficient.

Mechanical equipment, even when it is available, often remains unused. The Kazpromstroi (Kazakh Industrial Construction authority) was given a tower crane for the building of a block of 25 flats, but the crane was never erected and the block was completed without using it. Similarly, excavators often stand idle while materials such as sand and clay are dug up with picks and shovels.

Press reports say that at Temir-Tau in the Karaganda oblast the construction of industrial buildings is behindhand and that those already finished are badly built. In spite of getting more mechanical equipment the labour force did not increase its productivity, and costs continue to rise. In 1953 a fifth of the capital spent on industrial construction was lost. Two hundred and fifty thousand rubles were lost when some conveyors were abandoned as scrap. Tons of cement, nails, bolts, etc. are being wasted, and large numbers of rails and sleepers have been lying in the steppe for two years, as nobody seems to be responsible for them. Over the past three years the housing target is short by 19,000 sq. metres. Many of the houses that have been built have no drains, nor are they connected to the water mains, and there are complaints that the gardens have not been cleared of rubble.

Such then is the general picture of Kazakhstan's building industry today. It is a picture of an industry flooded with more orders than it can readily fulfil, and working against great difficulties. Whether it can gather enough strength to carry out what is expected of it in 1955 remains to be seen.

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THE MINERALS OF CENTRAL ASIA

Iron ore - Manganese and tungsten - Chromium ore - Nickel and cobalt - Molybdenum and other ores - Copper - Lead, zinc, and silver - Rare and precious metals.

While the Urals provide the greatest mineral resources of Soviet Asia, the resources of Central Asia, and of Kazakhstan in particular, are of increasing importance. The output of some metals has already surpassed that from other parts of the USSR, not to say from other parts of the world.

Kazakhstan holds the third place in the Soviet Union for reserves of iron ore. The main deposits are at Atasu, Karsakpai; at Ken-Tyube-Togai (Karkaralinsk) where the Karaganda and Semipalatinsk oblasts adjoin; and at Abail and Ayat in the Kustanai oblast. The ore from Atasu is exploited by the Kazakh ferrous metallurgy works in Temir-Tau; in time, the Karsakpai and Karkaralinsk ore is also to be sent to Temir-Tau to be worked. The construction of this, the first Kazakh plant, was begun in 1943 and production started in 1945; the works were enlarged between 1946 and 1955, and the fifth Five-Year Plan provides for further development. It appears that this is slow in taking place, and the USSR Ministries of Metallurgical Industry and Building, who are held responsible, have been subject to criticism in the Central Asian press. The Abail ore is at present unworked, but is shortly to be used at the Uzbek metallurgical works in Begovat, which is to be expanded to take it. (See CAR Vol.II, No.3, p.217.) The Ayat deposit, discovered in 1945, promises to be one of the largest in the Soviet Union.

The manganese and tungsten essential for the making of steel and steel alloys are found in Kazakhstan in considerable quantities. The Soviet Union is the world's largest source of manganese, and in the Soviet Union Kazakhstan is the third largest source of supply after Nikopol in the Ukraine and Chiatara in Georgia. The Mangyshlak peninsula ores were known before the Revolution; the reserves there have been estimated at 33,000,000 tons, with a 22 per cent manganese content. The Dzhezdy deposits - in the iron and copper-bearing area of Dzhezkazgan - were discovered in 1944 and a steel plant was built at

Chebarkul to exploit them and the iron of Atasu. The 1953 output quota of ore at Dzhezdy was achieved with five days to spare; this was ascribed to the introduction of mechanization and deep-drilling techniques.

Tungsten is found mainly in Central Kazakhstan - at Severo-Kounrad, Akchatau, and Uspenskii (Karaganda oblast), at Stepnyak (Akmolinsk oblast) - and at Cherdoyak, Chernovaya and Chindogatul in the Rudnyi Altai. It is also found in Tadzhikistan in the Varzob mining area (Stalinabad oblast).

Kazakhstan, according to the reports of Soviet geologists, has larger reserves of chromium ore than "the Union of South Africa, Turkey and the other capitalist countries combined". It is true that the Aktyubinsk deposits have been estimated at 1,700m. tons. There are more than seventy bodies of ore, one of which contains 760,000 tons with a 54 per cent chromium content. The Kempersai deposits, near the villages of Kempersai, Donskoi, and Susanovka, were discovered in 1937. They cover an area of 1,000 sq. kilometres and the thickness of the bodies of ore varies between 0.5 and 10 metres. The ore has a high Al_2O_3 content, and a 15-20 per cent content of F_2O . The chromite mined here is processed at the Aktyubinsk ferrous alloy works, which were built in 1943. Chromite has also been found in the Karaganda, Kustanai, and Semipalatinsk oblasts.

The Aktyubinsk oblast is one of the largest sources of nickel and cobalt in the USSR, the chief deposits being at Kempersai, Buranovo, Batamsha, and Shelekta. The nickel content of the ores appears to be satisfactory, but cobalt content is very low. The ore is sent to the Aktyubinsk works, and since the war a large nickel refinery has been built at Ust-Kamenogorsk, supplied with power from the new hydro-electric station there.

Molybdenum is found in large copper ore deposits of the secondary quartzite type at Kounrad (Karaganda oblast), where it was discovered in 1941 and where a factory was built in 1942, and at Boshche-Kul (Pavlodar oblast). The molybdenum ore is extracted at the same time as the quartz is mined. In Kazakhstan deposits are also found at Chindagatui (East Kazakhstan oblast) and in Uzbekistan at Lyangar (Samarkand oblast).

The Karatau hills (in southern Kazakhstan) hold deposits of vanadium; the ore is not rich, but there are large reserves of it. It has also been discovered at Mailisu in Kirgizia (Dzhalal-Abad oblast). The uranium ore of Tyuya-Muyun also contains vanadium.

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Tin is found, and small placer and lode deposits are being worked in the Naryn mountains (Kalba raion, East-Kazakhstan oblast).

There are large deposits of antimony south-south-east of Akmolinsk-Turgai, in Tadzhikistan in the Zeravshan basin, and at Kadamdzhai in the Fergana valley (Osh oblast, Kirgizia). This last deposit, north-west of Fergana itself, lies in the 200 km. zone of tectonic dislocation along the northern slopes of the Altai and Turkestan ranges. At Chauvai (Osh oblast, Kirgizia), in the Isfara basin, are found antimony, cinnabar, quartz, fluorite and calcareous spar, and mercury; a larger deposit is at Khaidarkan in Uzbekistan, 15 sq. kilometres in area, where mercury is found at Glavnoye, Severnoye and Vostochnoye, and antimony, fluorite and cinnabar at Plavnikovaya Gora and Mednikovaya Gora.

The copper ore resources of Kazakhstan make up more than half the total reserves of the whole Soviet Union. Since 1938 the Balkhash area has become the leading producer of copper in the USSR. The Balkhash copper kombinat (see CAR Vol.I, No.3, p.80) was brought into production before the war, and has been greatly expanded during and since the war. It uses the ore from the mines of Kounrad. According to Leprince-Ringuet, these have been estimated to contain 2m. tons of copper; this is 1.1 per cent of the ore. The working of these mines has already been described in the article referred to. Although during the war their output was doubled, the quota for 1953 was not completed; production reached 88 per cent of the plan, and labour productivity 90 per cent. This production lag continued in the first half of 1954, but was to some extent worked off in the second half, though output still remained behind schedule. The press ascribes this to the non-utilization of the available machinery: out of twenty-seven locomotives, only twenty were regularly in service last year. The work of the drilling "brigades" was badly organized. Frequent accidents are reported - there have been 100 cases with trains carrying copper ore. Blasting is done at irregular intervals, and work is too often suspended for safety precautions.

The Dzhezkazgan deposits consist of 22 beds of ore in 16 small areas in the semi-desert area to the south of the Ulutau granite massif. The total area of the field is 100 sq. kilometres; this is the largest copper deposit in the USSR, and is second only to the Chuvikmata field in Chile. The reserves form 30 per cent of the copper of the Soviet Union, and 60 per cent of the copper of Kazakhstan. They were discovered before the Revolution and worked by the Spasskii Copper Mine, and later developed under the first Five-Year Plan. Since 1928, the ore has been sent for smelting to Karsakpai. The Dzhezkazgan mining and metallurgical kombinat is being enlarged to become the "Magnitogorsk of the non-ferrous metal industry"; it is to produce more copper than all the Ural smelteries

together did in 1953. The 1954 production was up to the target. The miners have bound themselves to get 30,000 tons of ore in excess of the quota, and to raise labour productivity by 25 per cent in 1955.

There are other deposits of copper at Boshche-Kul, between Akmolinsk and Pavlodar, and at Almalyk, 80 km. south of Tashkent. The Boshche-Kul copper was worked by the Uspenskii mine, opened in 1908 (Leprince-Ringuet) and then gave an ore with 16 per cent copper. This later dropped to 8 per cent. This area is now again being worked, as is the area of Almalyk, whose reserves the same source estimates at 3m. tons.

Lead, zinc and silver together - sometimes with gold - make up what is known as polimetal. There are many such deposits in the Altai and in Tadzhikistan. Those at Leninogorsk (formerly Ridder) - which contain lead, copper, silver and gold - were discovered in 1784. They lie near the town, on the upper Ulba, a tributary of the Irtysh. There are three other seams of lead in the vicinity: at Sokolnoye, Kryukovskoye and Filipovskoye. Their intensive exploitation began with the establishment of the Leninogorsk polimetal kombinat in the thirties. This concern has put mechanical mining into operation at the Sokolnoye and Bystrushinskoye mines and has increased labour productivity by 67 per cent in the last three years. The process of mechanization is to be continued; all lifting is already done by machinery. In all mines daylight lighting has been installed with miles of cable, and battery-run flash-lights are in use. Quotas were exceeded in 1954; Sokolnoye mine was the first to complete its target. The average earnings of the miners in 1953 were 20 - 30 per cent greater than in 1952. They have promised to reach the 1955 target by the end of November.

The Zyryanovsk polimetal kombinat, however, is said not to be using its machinery to the fullest extent. The loading machines are idle for two-thirds of the working day, and in the course of the last year boring machines and electric locomotives were idle for hundreds of hours. The obtaining of lead ore has only been 36 per cent mechanized; the rest is obtained manually.

The Irtysh polimetal kombinat controls the mines at Berezovskoye. A special "loading bureau" is at work there. Its staff, however, use shovels, and not machinery; the loading of one wagon takes six to eight hours instead of the four allowed by the schedule, which is calculated for mechanized loading. Concentrates are kept in a large open building, where they freeze in cold weather and have to be broken up with hammers.

The same area - and chiefly the Berezovskoye and Belousovskoye mines - produces zinc. Half of the all-Union output of this metal comes

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from Kazakhstan. The ore is treated at the Ust-Kamenogorsk zinc works and also at the Achisai polimetal kombinat in the Dzhabul oblast; this plant was ahead on its 1954 quota. The Achisai ore is also sent to the large Chimkent lead works which concentrates on the ore mined in the Karatau (at Achisai and Mirgalimsai) and in the Dzhungarskii Alatau at Tekeli.

There are large deposits of lead in the Kurama mountains north-east of Leninabad. There are mines at Kansai and Karamazar. The latter is the main mining area of Tadzhikistan; lead, zinc, tungsten, bismuth, arsenic, and silver are found. Lead, zinc and silver are also found in Tadzhikistan at Taryskan, Altyn-Topkan, Varsob Ravat, and Kshut-Zauran.

There are gold mines at Maikan in Kazakhstan (Pavlodar oblast); these reached their 1954 target before time, and increased labour productivity by 30 per cent on 1953. The Rangkul gold mines in Gorno-Badakhshan (Tadzhikistan) were abandoned in 1954 as uneconomic. Gold has been reported in the Pamirs and in the region of Darvaz.

Uranium has been found at Tyuya-Muyun in the Fergana valley, in the north-west Karatau, and in the Tien Shan. Leprince-Ringuet reports that it has been encountered on the Kazakh plateau, and above Khorog in the Pamirs, and that extractable quantities of radio-active elements are found in the petroleum of Bukhara and Cheleken.

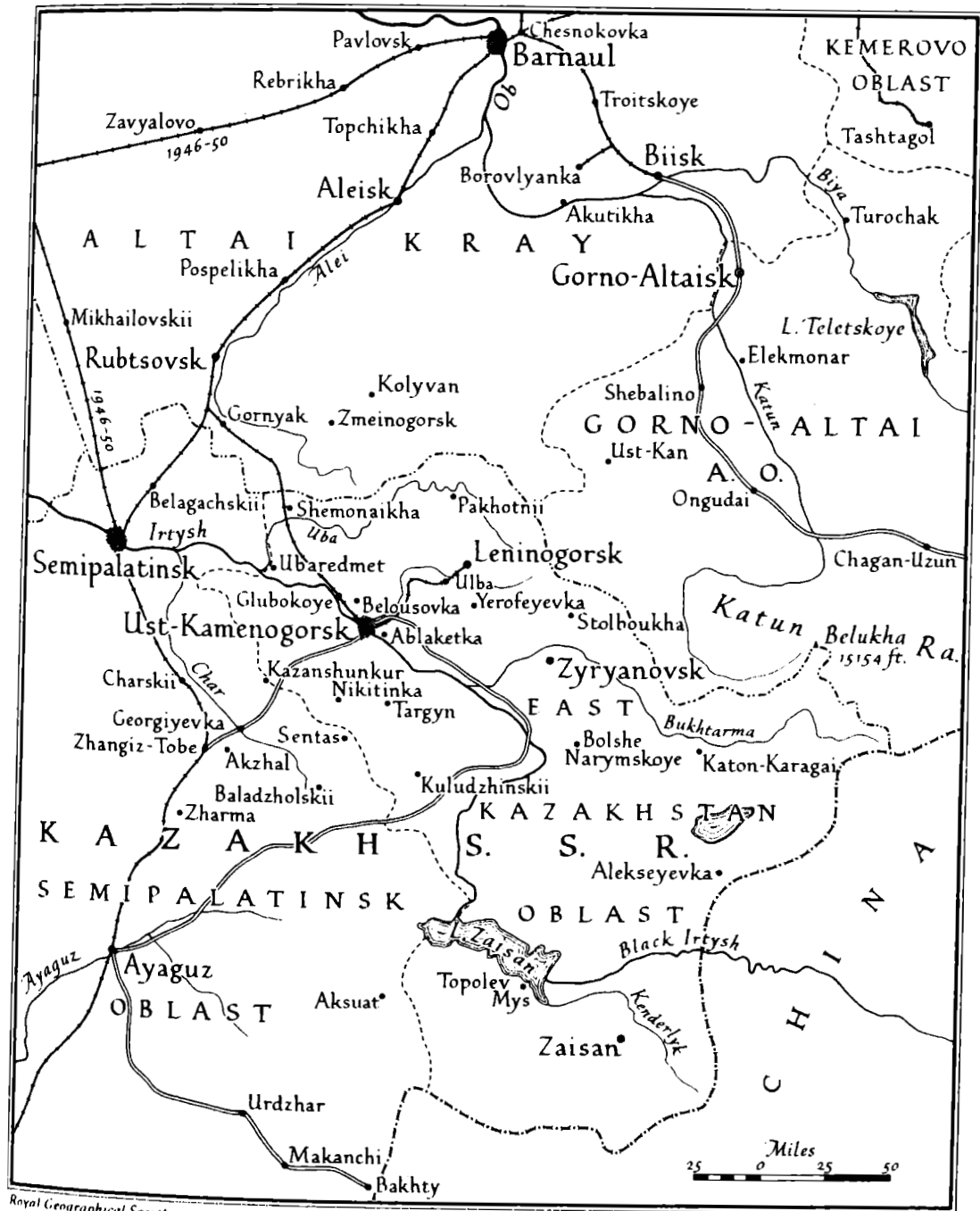
Cadmium is found at Taryskan and Altyn-Topkan in Tadzhikistan. The Zeravshan basin produces many rare minerals, among them arsenic; the main deposits of this are at Brichmulla (South-Kazakhstan oblast), Uch-Imchak and Chalkuiruk. Gold arseno-pyrites are found near Dzhetygara (Kustanai oblast), in the Leninabad oblast of Tadzhikistan and the Dzhahalal-Abad oblast of Kirgizia.

Brichmulla also produces bismuth; this is found in the eastern Karamazar deposits, at Ata-Rasul, and in small quantities in the Turkestan and Gissar ranges.

Bauxite is known to be found at Akmolinsk and Turgai in Kazakhstan; there are deposits in the other republics.

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It can thus be seen that the main areas of provenance are these: the Altai (copper, molybdenum, nickel, lead, zinc, silver, uranium); the Central Kazakhstan deposits worked at Dzhezkazgan (iron, manganese,



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tungsten, copper); the Aktyubinsk deposits (nickel, cobalt, chromite); Kounrad (tungsten, copper, molybdenum); the Karatau mountains (lead, zinc, vanadium, uranium and precious metals); and the Kurama mountains in the Leninabad oblast of Tadzhikistan (lead, zinc, silver, bismuth, arsenic and precious metals).

The development of mining is a vital part of Soviet plans for industry. For instance, by 1950 Central Asia came to produce 89 per cent of the Soviet Union's lead. According to the 1951-1955 Five-Year Plan, lead output is to increase 2.7 times. Further mechanization is necessary, and pre-supposed by the plan; yet it is not universally encountered, and the still primitive conditions at many mines must make the achievement of the plan seem a matter for doubt.

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THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY OF CENTRAL ASIA

Superphosphates and sulphuric acid - Potassium, magnesium, and boron - Nitrates - Salt, mirabilite and sodium sulphate - Ozokerite - Medical supplies and insecticides - Other concerns and future prospects.

Fertilizers are the main product of the Central Asian chemical industry. The great areas under cultivation require a constant supply, and the great areas to be brought under cultivation demand the industry's constant development.

The deposits of phosphorite in the area of Aktyubinsk (Kazakhstan), in the Karatau mountains on the borders of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, and at Gaurdak in Turkmenistan were discovered before the Second World War; but their exploitation did not begin until after the war. Of these areas the Karatau is the most important; the deposits here are expected to prove to be some of the largest in the world; their conversion into superphosphate for fertilizer is made at four factories, two in Uzbekistan and two in Kazakhstan.

The two Kazakh factories are at Chulak-Tau and Dzhabul, both in the Dzhabul oblast, and were opened in 1946 and 1951 respectively. The Dzhabul factory produced 16,000 tons more than its quota in 1953; this was said to be 26 per cent more than the 1952 output. The 1954 quota is planned to reach 15 per cent more than the quota for 1953.

The two Uzbek factories are at Kagan and Kokand; that at Kokand was opened in 1947 and is very large - it has the best equipment available in the Soviet Union. The factory has attracted many ancillary workshops - foundries and machinery repair and servicing departments - and a considerable settlement has grown up around it to house the workers. The sulphuric acid required to transform the phosphorite into superphosphate is manufactured on the spot. Output has grown rapidly - by 58 per cent between 1950 and 1954 for sulphuric acid, by 17 per cent for mineral fertilizer, and by 50 per cent for insecticides - a subsidiary product. During the same period the productivity of the equipment rose by 30, 30.5, and 50 per cent respectively for the three products, and this despite frequent suspensions of work - the result of bad organization - and interruptions in the power supply, which comes from the cotton-seed oil mill in the same town.

Of every ton of superphosphate produced, only 14 per cent is useful as a fertilizer. This makes freight costs very high in relation to the value of the product. The factory is therefore experimenting, in conjunction with the Institute of Chemistry of the Uzbek SSR Academy of Sciences, with ammoniated phosphate, 15 per cent of which is useful as a fertilizer. Ammoniated superphosphates pass more readily through the fertilizer-extracting machines and through agricultural drills, and can be stored for longer periods without absorbing moisture. Several thousand tons were distributed to the kolkhozes of Uzbekistan in 1954. Nevertheless, a really concentrated fertilizer has still to be discovered.

The Aktyubinsk deposits of phosphorite are treated at the Kirov chemical kombinat in Aktyubinsk, which began mass fertilizer production in 1953 with fully mechanized processing and internal transportation. The kombinat finished its 1954 quota by the 5th December, and at the end of the year had produced 1,900 tons of superphosphate more than the plan. The total output in 1954 was 75 per cent more than in 1950; the output of superphosphate was 50 per cent more than in 1953. However, the need is still greater than the supply; further expansion of the factory has been delayed by the shortage of building materials, and the use of the local deposits for making double superphosphates, a new departure, is still awaited. There has been an excessive consumption of some reactants, and no reduction of production losses.

The Kara-Kum deposits of phosphorite have been estimated to run into millions of tons. 26 - 30 per cent of the content of the rock is useful as a fertilizer. To work these deposits superphosphate works have recently been built at Gaurdak in Turkmenistan. This location is particularly favourable on account of the large deposits of sulphur nearby.

The sulphur on which the fertilizer industry of all Central Asia depends is found in Turkmenistan, at Gaurdak and in the middle of the Kara-Kum desert at Darvaza and Sernyi Zavod (i.e. Sulphur Works), and in Uzbekistan around Shor-Su (Fergana oblast). The sulphur outcrops at Darvaza and Sernyi Zavod have long been known, but the factories there were only built during the thirties. The sulphur, in cakes, has to be taken the 250 km. to Ashkhabad either by air or by road - by camel, or in good weather on lorries. From Ashkhabad it can be transported by train to the fertilizer factories.

Sulphuric acid is also obtained from pyrites, some of them valuable metal sulphides, at processing plants in Achisai and Tekeli in Kazakhstan (South-Kazakhstan and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts). Generally the

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sulphuric acid used in superphosphate manufacture is obtained by the conversion of waste gases from the smelting copper and zinc, and by recovery from spent acid from metal pickling.

On either side of the Emba oilfields in Kazakhstan lie the largest deposits of potassium, magnesium and boron in Central Asia. The Inder deposits were discovered in 1936 during exploratory drilling for oil; about thirty wells were sunk between 1939 and 1944. The Inder salt lake lies on the southern slope of a dome-shaped structure 250 sq. km. in area, 170 km. north of Guryev. Its waters contain bromine and magnesium chloride in large quantities; the potassium salts of the area include polyhalite and sylvinite. The borates found here are converted into boric acid and borax at Inderborskii, whose industry has reached proportions of all-Union importance.

Potassium salts have been found at a depth of 553 - 800 metres in the region of Sagiz, 110 km. north-east of Guryev. They have also been found at Ashcha-Bulak, 45 km. west of Temir (Aktyubinsk oblast) and at Ak-Dzhar, 20 km. south-east of Ashcha-Bulak, like the Inder deposits, at a depth of 60 - 80 metres. These are treated at the Kirov kombinat in Aktyubinsk, which in 1953 began to make a new fertilizer - magnesium boride - the waste from which is to be used to make boron superphosphates. Of this last an experimental quantity was in course of production towards the end of November 1954.

The principal producer of nitrates is at present the Chirchik electro-chemical kombinat, though two other factories to produce compound fertilizers in proportion to the output of ammonium nitrate, are soon to be built in Uzbekistan. The total area of potential cotton fields in Central Asia has been estimated at 4m. hectares; this area would need some 240,000 tons of potassium nitrite as fertilizer. As Central Asia is poor in coking coal, the use at Chirchik of electrolysis in the production of ammonia hydrate has a special importance. The kombinat controls several power sub-stations to redistribute electricity.

In the Guryev oblast of Kazakhstan there are 764 salt domes, covering a vast area. A group of larger salt lakes - averaging 7 - 10 sq. km. in area - lies in the Iskine-Dossor area; about thirty smaller lakes - 1-5 sq. km. in area - lie around Karabatan, 40 km. from Guryev on the Kandagach railway, and there is a third group at Koschagyl along the course of the River Emba, 5 - 20 km. from Zhilaya Kosa. In Turkmenistan rock salt is mined in the Nebit-Dag oilfield at Baba-Khodzha; common salt is obtained from Lake Kuuli, near Krasnovodsk. The large lagoon, the Kara-Bogaz-Gol, leaves deposits of mirabilite, or

Glauber salt, in enormous quantities on its shores from the middle of November to the middle of March, when the salt begins to dissolve back into the waters of the bay. The working of these deposits began in 1909. The salt is left in heaps under the sun for two or three days, until a crust of sulphate forms. Conditions are most favourable for this in July and August. The Kara-Bogaz sulphate kombinat, which is responsible for working the salt, produces sodium sulphate in large amounts. A similar process is worked in Kazakhstan on the Aral Sea at Aral'sk.

The Cheleken peninsula is one of the world's largest sources of the mineral ozokerite; it is also found and worked at a small factory at Sel-Rokho in Tadzhikistan. The factory in Cheleken processes not only ozokerite, but iodine and bromine salts, which are also found in the peninsula.

Medicinal chemicals are made by the Dzerzhinskii chemical and pharmaceutical works in Chimkent (South-Kazakhstan oblast) and the Tashkent chemical and pharmaceutical factory. The latter sends drugs to all parts of the Soviet Union and some of its products are manufactured nowhere else. It recently received an order for 30,000 first-aid boxes for the settlers in the virgin lands of Kazakhstan. The first of these were delivered in November 1954.

Insecticides are made by a factory at Kuvasai (Fergana oblast, Uzbekistan) which was opened since the war. One of its products is an oil preparation invented by the Uzbek SSR Academy of Sciences Institutes of Chemistry, Zoology and Parasitology. As already mentioned, insecticides are a subsidiary product of the factory at Kokand.

There are other smaller concerns in Central Asia, using a variety of raw materials: cotton pods are subjected to hydrolysis in factories in the Khorezm and Surkhan-Darya oblasts, and in the Kara-Kalpak ASSR. Spirit for industrial purposes is also distilled from them. There are factories making rubber from kok-sagyz, a variety of taraxacum. Coal by-products are manufactured in Kazakhstan as well as dyes and varnishes.

There is almost no information of any chemical industry in Tadzhikistan and Kirgizia. This is undoubtedly because the resources of these republics have as yet not been fully explored. Turkmenistan has only a rudimentary chemical industry; the treating of the mineral deposits is almost entirely carried on beyond her borders. It is in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan that the greatest development is to be expected. The total output of mineral fertilizer in Uzbekistan in 1950 was 300,000 tons, and an estimate for 1954 is 420,000 tons. It has been announced that new branches of the industry are to be set up in

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Kazakhstan, among them plastics, paints and synthetic dyes. At present, the by-products of coal appear to be neglected, and as a result the chemical industry is largely limited to fertilizers and medical supplies.

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A G R I C U L T U R E

S H E E P B R E E D I N G A N D W O O L P R O D U C T I O N

General background - Tadzhikistan - Uzbekistan - Kirgizia - Turkmenistan.

The catastrophic events of the collectivization period reduced the Soviet sheep population by as much as two-thirds. By the outbreak of the Second World War, however, the flocks had recovered sufficiently to give the Soviet Union second place among the major sheep-raising countries. In 1938 its sheep population (80m. head) stood at three-quarters of the Australian figure, outstripping the third largest producer (USA) by some 60 per cent. It was three times as large as the sheep population of Great Britain in the same year. The Soviet figures for later years are in most cases inclusive of goats, and may therefore be expected to exceed the sheep population proper by some 15 - 25 per cent. The following table shows the total population of sheep and goats in the USSR within current borders.

<u>Date</u>	<u>Million head</u>
1st Jan. 1941 (1)	91.6
1st Jan. 1946 (1)	69.4 (2)
1st Jan. 1951 (1)	99.2 (cf. target figure of 121.5)
1st Jan. 1952	101.8
1st Jan. 1953	109.9
1st Oct. 1953	135.8 (3)
1st Oct. 1954	138.4 (cf. target figure of 144.4)
1st Oct. 1955	160.0 (target figure)

According to Vestnik Statistiki No.1 of 1955 the population of sheep (as opposed to sheep and goats) on 1st October 1953 and 1st October 1954 was respectively 114.9 and 117.5 million.

The territory comprising the four Central Asian republics (within their present borders) and Kazakhstan accounted for some 30 per cent of the country's total sheep and goat population in the twenties of this century. Collectivization appears to have hit the area harder than the rest of the country, and by the middle thirties this figure had dwindled to a mere 18 per cent. Kazakhstan alone lost 80 per cent of

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its sheep between 1930 and 1933.

No precise figures for ensuing years have so far been found, but it seems likely that the territory increased in relative importance as recovery proceeded. Indeed, it is known that during the war considerable numbers of livestock were destroyed, especially in the Ukraine and the lower Volga region, and that the depleted herds had to be built up anew with animals sent from Central Asia, and particularly from Uzbekistan. Since then the territory appears to have progressed somewhat faster than the country as a whole. This conjecture is based on the fact that since collectivization the Central Asian republics, and particularly Kazakhstan, have had a disproportionately large number of sheep-breeding sovkhoses for which the highest performance levels in sheep farming have consistently been claimed. Whenever planned targets are broken down according to organizational forms, it is invariably the sovkhoses which are given the most ambitious tasks, both as regards levels of performance and rate of progress from one year to the next. Thus, while wool deliveries from all sectors are to be increased by 180 per cent between 1954 and 1960, the corresponding rise in deliveries from the sovkhoses is set at 220 per cent. Unfortunately little is known about the fulfilment of targets. The latest figure for total deliveries is 182,000 tons for 1952 while the target for 1954 was 230,000 tons. It appears that in setting these targets equal hope is placed on increases in flocks and on improvements in the wool clip per head of sheep. Here again it is the State farms which are credited with relatively greater performance and given more ambitious tasks: by 1960 sovkhoses are required to obtain 4.2 kg. of wool per sheep whereas the target for kolkhozes is set at 3 kg.

The rapid post-war increase in livestock has made the need for more pastures a matter of some urgency. In Uzbekistan the problem has been more or less solved by the sinking of 1,400 wells in the Tamdy-Bulak, Kyzylkum, Bukhara, Kashka-Darya and Surkhan-Darya districts which has provided breeders with a further 8m. hectares of new pastures. Elsewhere, however, the position is still far from satisfactory, and the 70 per cent increase in the area under fodder for the whole of the Soviet Union envisaged in the Five-Year Plan (1951-1955) does not seem to have taken place. Grass growing is still poorly developed, and insufficient quantities of silage and root crops are planted. As livestock raising depends largely on fodder supply, the present shortage considerably hampers the further expansion of sheep breeding. The announcement in January of this year of a new plan to extend the area under maize should, however, improve the supplies. In the current year 600,000 hectares are to be planted with maize in Kazakhstan alone where, it is hoped, the area under maize will increase to 2.5m. hectares by 1960.

These attempts to increase the fodder supply will, however, have to be linked with a general improvement in kolkhoz and sovkhos management, the provision of more shelters and pens and an increase in the number of trained shearers and breeders, as existing conditions do not in themselves, appear to be adequate. In Tadzhikistan, for instance, the mountain pastures provide excellent grazing ground for sheep, and yet wool yields are still below the set norms. Results were particularly bad in 1952 and 1953 and although there was a slight improvement in 1954 the position is still far from satisfactory. The main reason for this, according to the local press, is that the shearing of sheep is carried out haphazardly; a third of the sheep are not sheared at all. In the Lenin kolkhoz of the Gissar raion, for instance, over 1,500 sheep were not sheared in 1954. In this raion the kolkhoz managers had "for some unaccountable reason" decided to do the shearing by hand which inevitably resulted in a considerable loss of wool and waste of time. Reports also tell of bad and untimely shearing and of the squandering of wool in the Garm and Kulyab oblasts. In the latter, of 34 electric shears only 16 were in use, but even these were not worked to full capacity owing both to the shortage of able and experienced shearers and, occasionally, to power cuts. The inexperience of the shearers accounts for a loss of 150-250 grams of wool per sheep. In a number of kolkhozes of the Dagan-Kiik, Molotovabad, Shakhriatau and Isfarin raions the dipping of sheep before shearing was not done and the wool handed over at the receiving centres was in a dirty and matted state.

As might be expected, an exception to the general rule appear to be the sovkhos. According to a press report of 28th August 1954, the sovkhos Kafirnigan in the Mikoyanbad raion fulfilled the plans by 153 per cent on Farm I and by 141.5 per cent on Farm II. The average yield of wool per lamb was 980 grams, which was considered a record. The sovkhos Yakkodin, the largest Karakul-breeding farm in the republic, fulfilled the 1954 plan for the rearing of lambs by 116 per cent and for the procurement of Karakul skins by 112 per cent. On the 21st January of this year it was also reported in the press that another sovkhos, the Kabadian, run by the Tadzhikkarakul authority had averaged 3.5 kg. of wool per sheep, obtained a 108 lambs for every 100 ewes, improved the quality of the Karakul skins and delivered to the State 203 centners of wool over and above the quota, i.e. fulfilled the plan by 126.4 per cent. These results, it is felt, could be augmented and made more general. As a means to this end widespread and intensive cross-breeding is advocated. In this republic Darvaz goats are crossed with Vyurtemberg rams and the wool yield of the resulting animals ranges from 2.8 kg. to 4.2 kg., though even this is said to be lower than that obtained from some breeds of fine-fleeced sheep. At present there are 14,000 of these cross-breeds in the kolkhozes of the

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mountain raions.

The prevailing impression is that the republic has both the means and the resources for a further substantial increase in the output of wool provided the organization and training of labour is improved and the whole management of the kolkhozes overhauled. By making the fullest use of the advantages afforded by the natural conditions and resources, the republic could increase its fine-fleeced sheep population in the next three years to 800,000 with an annual yield of 3,000 tons of fine and semi-fine wool.

Uzbekistan is one of the leading livestock-breeding areas of the Soviet Union and the main region for the rearing of Karakul sheep, producing about two-thirds of the Karakul of the USSR. This breed was introduced into Central Asia by the Arabs and the name probably derives from the Karakul oasis since originally the breeding area for Karakul sheep was limited to the steppe regions near this oasis between Bukhara and Karshi on the right bank of the Amu-Darya. Today the Bukhara region is still the leading Karakul-breeding area and in it are concentrated over 50 per cent of the total Karakul sheep of the republic. In 1952 Uzbekistan was said to have 9,650,000 goats and sheep of which 5,500,000 were Karakul sheep.

In spite of the large number of sheep, wool yields in the republic have fallen short of the set norms. By the 5th September 1953 the procurement plan for wool had been fulfilled by only 75 per cent in the Kashka-Darya oblast, by 63.9 per cent in Andizhan, 62.1 per cent in Surkhan-Darya, 61.9 per cent in Namangan and Samarkand, 61.5 per cent in Bukhara, 56.8 per cent in Fergana, 53.1 per cent in Kara-Kalpakia, 49.1 per cent in Tashkent and 45.4 per cent in Khorezm. It was felt at the time that there was no justification for these poor results as all the conditions favoured the fulfilment, if not the overfulfilment, of plans. The main reason for the failure to reach targets seemed to be the limited use of available equipment. Of 498 electric shears only 392 were in working order and of these only a fraction were actually utilized.

An improvement appears to have taken place over the past year and, according to a report of 5th October 1954, Surkhan-Darya overfulfilled the production and purchase plans for wool. In the Fergana oblast a number of kolkhozes had achieved the set targets ahead of schedule. Fulfilment of plans was also reported from the Tashkent and Samarkand oblasts.

Plans for 1955 envisage a further sharp increase in wool yields. This it is hoped to achieve not only by the substitution of coarse-

fleeced fat-tailed sheep by fine and semi-fine -fleeced breeds, but also by improving the wool productivity of goats. Possibilities in this respect are said to be enormous. The goat population of Uzbekistan is one of the largest of the Soviet Union; at present 81.2 per cent of the goat population consist of local breeds with a wool clip of 0.4 - 0.7 kg. of coarse wool per goat. These figures could, however, be considerably increased by selective cross-breeding. In the Chust and Baisunsk pedigree sovkhoses, for instance, this has already been done. The local goats were crossed with Angora he-goats. The resulting animals are better adapted for pasturing on steep stony slopes, have a higher fertility rate and a wool yield of from 2.5 to 3.5 kg. per goat. The wool is also said to be whiter, more silky and from 17 - 22 centimetres in length. Although these animals at present represent only 18.2 per cent of the total goat population of Uzbekistan they are a potential source of further development. According to the latest reports, zones of rearing are now being fixed, the intention being to stock kolkhoses in those areas to the maximum.

In the hope of achieving the targets for the procurement of wool stipulated in the provisions of the XIXth Party Congress the State instituted in 1952 a new system of payments for wool. According to this for every kilogram of fine wool delivered to the State the kolkhoses received 6 kg. of forage grain, for every kilogram of semi-fine wool 3 kg. of grain, and for every kilogram of coarse wool 1.5 kg. of grain. The kolkhoses which reached the set targets, received for 1 kg. of fine wool 1 kg. of meat, and for 1 kg. of semi-fine wool 0.5 kg. of meat. Moreover, the kolkhoses which handed over the wool through the consumers' cooperative, were paid for each kilogram of fine wool 6 kg. of concentrated fodder, and for each kilogram of semi-fine wool 4 kg. of concentrated fodder; they were also sold rope, sacking, tarpaulin, leather felting (koshma) and felt boots. Kolkhoses which exceeded the production targets, i.e. delivered 2 tons of fine wool or 2½ tons of semi-fine wool over and above the set norms, were entitled to acquire a truck and were awarded a premium equivalent to 50 per cent of the value of the wool supplied.

Reports for wool yields in Kirgizia for 1952 were conflicting. On the one hand, it was stated that the total number of sheep in the kolkhoses was 2½ times greater than that recorded in 1940 and that substantial gains were realized by the kolkhoses; these received 11,000 tons of grain, 100 tons of meat, 12,230 tons of concentrated fodder, 22,000 pairs of felt boots, 36 tons of leather felting and 35 trucks. On the other hand, the average wool yield per sheep was said to have diminished from 2.05 kg. in 1940 to 1.45 kg., and results were not much better in the sovkhoses.

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In 1953 achievements were varied. The total wool yield was 754 tons more than in 1952, but in many of the kolkhozes the average yield per sheep was not more than 1.6 kg., and in some cases as low as 1.15 kg. These figures, it was felt, would have to be at least doubled, and the targets for 1954 were set at:

3.7 kg. for fine fleeced sheep
2.7 kg. for semi-fine fleeced sheep
2.0 kg. for coarse-fleeced sheep

Results in 1954 were as varied as those in 1953. Whilst some sheep-breeding kolkhozes, such as those of the Kirov raion in the Talass oblast, fulfilled the plan by 125 per cent and more, others showed little or no improvement. In the kolkhozes of the Novo-Voznesenovka raion of the Issyk-Kul oblast where conditions for sheep-breeding are near perfect, the average wool yield per sheep in 1953 was 1.3 kg. as against the stipulated 3.4 kg. In 1954 this figure was only increased by 200 grams. In the kolkhozes Elkorgo and Stalin of the same raion, the wool clip did not rise beyond 1.1 kg. per sheep. Even in the leading kolkhozes of this raion, the Budennyi and Novyi Put, which in December 1954 were reported to have 14,000 and 11,000 fine-fleeced sheep respectively, the average wool yield was 2.5 kg. and only in exceptional circumstances 3.1 kg., and even this figure was below the set norms. It may be significant therefore that the figure set for 1955 is 2.9 kg. per fine-fleeced sheep.

The main reason for the failure to reach targets is put down to the poor exploitation of winter pastures, the insufficient reserves of fodder and the consequent inadequate feeding of the flocks. This, it is said, retards the growth of wool, dries it and reduces the animal to a "starved thinness". Another reason is that the improvement of herds by cross-breeding and artificial insemination is not sufficiently widespread.

As in other republics the complaint is also made that there is a shortage of experienced shearers and that not all of the available machines are utilized. Owing to cold weather the spring shearing in 1953 was delayed, but even in the additional time thus gained a number of electric shears had not been overhauled and made ready for use. In the Dzhahal-Abad oblast, of 67 shears only 19 were in working order, and to the Kenes-Anarkhae sovkhov where some 100,000 sheep were to be sheared the Frunze oblast MZhS delivered only 3 instead of the required 17 sets of shears. In 1954, 192 shears were used in the Przhevalsk oblast, but elsewhere shearing was still not properly organized and often lasted well into July, which meant that sheep as well as the new-born lambs had to be kept at the shearing centres for well over a month. This in turn resulted in the animals being kept away from the pastures at the best time of the year,

a condition which did not aid their growth and development.

Reports of achievements in Turkmenistan are mixed. Sheep of the Karakul breed form the basic herds of the republic, and in 1952 the average yield of wool per sheep was 3.25 kg. and in some of the leading sovkhoses such as the Kazandzhik, where 90 per cent of the shearing is mechanical, the average yield was higher still. The kolkhozes too had exceeded their quotas and delivered to the State 14 per cent more first-grade Karakul skins than in the previous year, and in return were given 262 trucks of the Gaz-51 type, some of the kolkhozes getting as many as ten trucks each.

On the 25th May 1953, however, it was announced that the delivery of wool to the receiving centres was progressing too slowly and that the agricultural artels, Lenin, Karl Marx, Malenkov, Bolshevik and Rabochii of the Mary raion had not delivered a single kilogram to the State by the 20th May. Bad organization was held to account for the failure. On the 7th October 1953 reports gave a somewhat different picture; 58 kolkhozes, it was claimed, had delivered to the State a quantity of wool over and above the stipulated quota and had earned 110 trucks. By the end of the year the procurement plan for wool was fulfilled by 107 per cent. This improvement was continued in 1954. According to a report of the 28th October, the kolkhozes of the Chardzhou oblast achieved the targets for the delivery of wool ahead of schedule and handed in 59 tons more than in 1953. Satisfactory results were also claimed for kolkhozes of the Merke, Kizyl-Ayak, Kerki, Charshanga, Sayat and Khalach raions, in the last of which plans were fulfilled by 132.7 per cent. High yields were also reported from the sovkhoses, especially from the Pobeda and the Kala-i-Mor which had considerably exceeded the plans for the increase in livestock, acreage under fodder and improvement in quality of Karakul skins.

In 1946 the Kazakh Livestock Institute, after 14 years of research, finally worked out a method of variable cross-breeding which has since been generally adopted and has on the whole proved quite effective. Coarse-fleeced Kazakh fat-tailed sheep, noted for their hardiness and weight, are crossed with fine-fleeced Merino rams. This cross-breed is again crossed with fine-fleeced sheep of another breed. The resulting animals are said to be more adaptable to pasturing in the open air all the year round and are also more productive and have a higher fertility rate. By 1952 the number of fine-fleeced sheep was reported to equal half the total livestock of the republic. More recent reports show, however, that in the black earth regions sheep breeding is badly developed, and that in the

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North-Kazakhstan and Kokchetav oblasts, in spite of favourable conditions, the flocks do not exceed 5.5 per cent of the total number of sheep in the republic, whereas in the regions of the dry steppes, such as the Akmolinsk, Pavlodar and Semipalatinsk oblasts, the number of sheep in each of these oblasts is equivalent to that possessed by two oblasts of northern Kazakhstan. This fact is reflected in the high yields of wool. In the Beskaragaisk pedigree sovkhov of the Pavlodar oblast, where variable breeding was carried out on an extensive scale, the average wool yield per sheep was 5.5 kg. and for a ram 13.4 kg., the best yielding as much as 17 kg.

It is, however, pointed out that the total yields for the whole republic are still not as high as they might be, in spite of the fact that sheep raising is the main branch of livestock farming in Kazakhstan and that sheep represent nearly 70 per cent of all stock. The conditions in which sheep breeders operate have improved somewhat over the years. Until 1947 sheep farmers were unable to benefit from information collected and put out by the main meteorological stations of the republic. In 1947, however, a decision was taken to open a series of small stations throughout the districts of the main pasture lands visited by flocks of sheep during their yearly migrations. Since then stations have been established in the Kyzylkum desert, at Tarlyn, in the Balkhash area and near Lake Dengiz.

Although in recent years a number of wool mills have been built in Central Asia and the 1952 production plans for wool fabrics were fulfilled by 109 per cent in Kirgizia, the overall output for Central Asia appears to be low. Only a small quantity of pure wool fabrics are produced, by far the largest number being mixtures, the commonest that of wool and kapron (the Soviet equivalent of nylon) which is said to produce a fabric not unlike cashmere. The range of wool dyes at present appears to be limited.

Judging by available information the enormous potentialities of wool production in Central Asia thus appear to be exploited unsatisfactorily and the measures adopted in recent months by the Central Committee of the Communist Party for the reorganization and improvement of livestock breeding will have to be stringently enforced if in the years to come, production of wool in Central Asia is to approach the required level.

Notes

- (1) The same figures are sometimes quoted as "end-figures" for the previous years.
- (2) This figure is taken from S.K. Prokopovic's Der Vierte Fünfjahrplan der Sowjetunion, p.60.
- (3) F.P. Koshelev. Novyi Etap v Razvitii Narodnogo Khozyaistva SSSR. Moscow, 1954.

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RURAL ELECTRIFICATION IN KIRGIZIA

General review - Rural electrification plans - The Chu Valley area
- The Issyk-Kul basin - Other areas - Complaints and future prospects.

The potential power resources of Kirgizia are very great, and over the last few years much has been done in the work of harnessing the republic's many mountain rivers and streams. Before the war the few small thermal power-stations which supplied power to the towns of Kirgizia worked on imported fuel. During the war, when many industries were evacuated to Kirgizia from European Russia, a number of large industrial hydroelectric power-stations were built: these included the Voroshilov and the Alamedyn power-stations in the Frunze area, and the Przhhevsk power-station in the Issyk-Kul oblast. Between 1940 and 1950 the general capacity of the electric power-stations of Kirgizia increased 2.8 times and the power production of the republic 3.5 times. Between 1946 and 1950 a number of new hydroelectric power-stations were put into operation; the total capacity of these reached 38,000 kw. The annual power production for 1950 was 180m. kw-hours. Since 1950, besides the construction of several large plants for the mining industry, particular attention has been paid to the needs of rural areas. The figures for the numbers of rural electric power-stations built since 1950 are given as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of power-stations built</u>	<u>Number of kolkhozes served</u>
1950	52 in existence	140
1951	30	150
1952	15	31
1953	31	no figures
<u>Totals</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>(321)</u>

By 1954 three rural raions of the Kirgiz SSR (the Pokrovka, Dzhetty-Oguz, and Ton raions of the Issyk-Kul oblast) were completely electrified and in four others work was progressing well. In May 1954 it was reported that a quarter of the kolkhozes and 67 per cent of the MTS of the republic had been supplied with electric power; this is now used for

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threshing, sorting and cleaning grain, for milking cows, and for sheep-shearing, as well as for lighting.

Until recently, rural power-stations have usually been built as isolated units designed to serve the nearest consumers. Recently, however, efforts have been made to make a general appreciation of the needs of an area taken as a whole. In 1948 the Government of the Kirgiz SSR suggested a plan for the creation of eighty local power networks to be supplied by 350 existing and projected rural hydroelectric power-stations. But this plan was not put into practice and individual power-plants continued to be built without consideration for the needs of a whole area. In 1952 the Kirgiz branch of the Sredazgidrovodkhlpok authority was instructed to prepare reports on the development of the power systems in the western areas of the Frunze oblast and in the Pokrovka raion of the Issyk-Kul oblast; a year passed before this work was begun and it was apparently never finished. In 1954, however, more serious efforts were made to integrate the power systems of republic: early in the year the Ministry of Agriculture and Gosplan were to examine the hydroelectric networks of the Frunze and the Issyk-Kul oblasts and to submit a report. Finally in the summer of 1954, the Institute of Energetics of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR elaborated a general scheme according to which local electric power networks (energosistema) were to be created; these would group together all power-stations whatever their type or capacity and whether in existence or still projected.

At the same time the construction of the larger type of power-station serving more than one kolkhoz is being encouraged; such a power-station can supply electricity to several collective farms, and is more economical, both to build and to maintain, than the more frequently found one-kolkhoz type. Grants from the Government up to the value of 75 per cent of the cost of construction are available to kolkhozes wishing to build a hydroelectric station; in 1953 grants totalling 1.6m. rubles were paid to the kolkhozes of the Issyk-Kul oblast.

The two areas in which electrification work is at present concentrated are the Chu Valley and the Issyk-Kul basin. The Chu river has immense potentialities as a source of hydroelectric power. The building of the great dam at Orto-Tokoi (see CAR Vol. II, No. 2) is envisaged as but the first stage towards the utilization of the river's power. Not only on the Chu itself are power-stations to be built, but also on the many mountain rivers which run down from the Kirgiz range into the Chu Valley. On the Karabalty river a "cascade" series of power-stations is to supply the Kalinin, Petrovka, Stalin, and Kaganovich raions. The 1,120 kw. Kalinin hydroelectric power-station was brought

into operation on the Karabalty river near the village of Sosnovka in 1954; the completion of this power-station - one of the largest in Kirgizia - has made possible the electrification of eight kolkhozes, two MTS, the Karabalty sugar refinery, and the township itself. Within the next two or three years this station is to be linked with smaller kolkhoz power-stations already existing near Sosnovka and along the Aksu river, and the network will be further extended by the construction of a number of rural hydroelectric stations, thermal power-plants for industrial undertakings, and large hydroelectric stations along the Chu river.

In 1954 a large inter-kolkhoz power-station was completed in the Kaganovich raion of the Frunze oblast, and on the Sokuluk river another hydroelectric station, said to be the largest in the Frunze oblast is now under construction; when completed it is to supply power to the kolkhozes of the Kaganovich raion and higher up the same river yet another power-station is to supply the collective farms of the Stalin raion.

More than fifty mountain rivers and streams flow into Lake Issyk-Kul and the area around it is thus rich in potential hydroelectric power. By 1956 the Issyk-Kul oblast is to be completely electrified. This is to be achieved by means of four power networks which will take the place of the many individual and uncoordinated small power-stations now in existence. The first energossistema is to group four hydroelectric power-stations in the Ton and Balykchin raions and will have an annual power output of 2,500,000 kw-hours; the second network is to group several kolkhoz power-stations in the Issyk-Kul raion; the third will supply the Tyup and Taldy-Su raions; and the largest of all, energossistema No.4, will group the power-stations of the Novo-Voznesenovka, Przhevalsk, and Dzhety-Oguz raions with the Arasan and Przhevalsk town hydroelectric power-stations, and is to supply thirty-two kolkhozes with power.

One of the first power-stations to be built in the Issyk-Kul oblast was the inter-kolkhoz station at Ananyevo; others built before the war included the Stalin (Przhevalsk raion), Deishin (Dzhety-Oguz raion), and the Red October (Tyup raion). During the war the Przhevalsk town hydroelectric power-station was built and work was begun on several others. By 1954 the number of power-stations was three times greater than in 1940, and twenty-two hydroelectric stations, yielding over 12m. kw-hours, were in operation.

By 1956 ten hydroelectric stations and five thermal power-stations are to be in use in the Issyk-Kul oblast; seven hydroelectric stations were under construction by the summer of 1954. Among these is one which, situated on the Arasan mountain river above the town of

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Teploklyuchenka, will have a capacity of 900 kw. and will supply ten collective farms. Five more inter-kolkhoz stations should have been brought into operation by early in 1954, but there have been serious delays. The power-station on the Ichke-Su river which is to be built by the Stalin, Khrushchev and Erinty kolkhozes, was started in 1952 and scheduled to be completed by 1954, but by June 1954 only fifteen per cent of the work had been done. Similarly work has been extremely slow on the Orto-Koisu station. Another hydroelectric power-station in the Balykchin raion has been under construction since 1950. Such delays are said to be the result of the unwillingness of the kolkhozes to supply the necessary manpower. In 1953, for example, on an average 36 people were working every day instead of the 238 which were needed, and only 48 per cent of the construction programme for the year was carried out.

Although greater efforts at electrification are being made in the Issyk-Kul and Frunze oblasts, power-stations are also being built in other areas of Kirgizia. In the Osh oblast two inter-kolkhoz stations were built in 1953 and the large inter-kolkhoz power-station, at Myyan, was completed in the Osh raion in 1954; the Bashkaindin plant supplies two kolkhozes of the At-Bashin raion of the Tien Shan oblast. The previous year one hydroelectric power-station was completed in the Kirov raion of the Talass oblast. In the Dzhahalal-Abad oblast the power-stations at Maili-Sai and Lenin-Dzhol were brought into production in 1954, as was the Orto-Azya in the Suzak raion; the construction has started of a hydroelectric station in the Toktogul raion. The Dzhahalal-Abad oblast, however, was criticized for excessive slowness. Only six hydroelectric stations had been built by the end of 1953 and only thirteen kolkhozes supplied with power.

Delays, indeed, appear to be a general complaint. The secretary of the Kirgiz Communist Party at the Seventh Plenum of the Central Committee criticized the unsatisfactory work of Selenergo - the body responsible for the construction of rural hydroelectric stations - which in the last five years had completed only 46 kolkhoz and inter-kolkhoz stations instead of the 109 planned.

Another, and more serious, complaint is that the capacities of existing power-stations are not fully used. Indeed taken as a whole, it has been estimated that only 30 or 40 per cent of the available power is consumed. Many more kolkhozes could be supplied with power from already existing power-stations. Many power-plants are inefficiently run, repairs are in arrears and no one seems responsible for maintenance. The reorganization of power systems into larger networks should, however, make for greater efficiency in the future, and

indeed there are ambitious plans for the republic: the new power networks should make possible the introduction of electric ploughing in certain raions of the Issyk-Kul oblast, and the complete electrification of the rural areas of the Frunze and the Issyk-Kul oblasts is to be completed by 1958.

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3. Soviet Encyclopaedia.
4. Central Asian press.

S O C I A L C O N D I T I O N S

T H E M I N E R S O F K Y Z Y L - K I Y A
P A S T A N D P R E S E N T

The following is an abridged translation of an article by S.M. Abramzon which appeared in Sovetskaya Etnografiya, No.4 of 1954. A more detailed account of the Kyzyl-Kiya coalfield appeared in Central Asian Review Vol.I, No.1, pp.55 - 56.

In pre-revolutionary Kirgizia the number of workers engaged in the rudimentary industry of the time was fewer than 1,500; in the three uyezds of the Semirechye oblast 2,011 men were employed, including 513 "Kirgiz". Most of these were in the Vernen uyezd, now a part of Kazakhstan, and most of the "Kirgiz" were in fact Kazakhs. In the whole of the Fergana oblast, as it was in 1914, only 16 men were employed in industry - in brick works and cotton-oil mills.

Coal - known as "burning stone" - has been used as fuel in Kirgizia from very early times. In 1868 a Russian trader, Fovitskii, started coal workings on the river Kok-kene-sai in the Kokand khanate (now in the Osh oblast, Iyailyak raion). The Russian geologists Romanov and Spechev discovered deposits of coal in the Dzhindzhigan defile, and in 1898 a certain Shott began to work them. (The Kirgiz called him "Chot-bai".) The capitalist Foss started to work the Dzhai gorge in 1903, and he was followed in 1906 by Rakitin. Shott's mine soon became flooded, while Foss's passed in 1908 into the hands of another speculator, Batyushkov, who in 1912 sold it, with other mines which he had begun in the same area, to the Kyzyl-Kiya Company.

Conditions of work at these mines were exceptionally hard. The basic structure was the "pipe" - a round mine shaft like a well, from which long, winding drifts or burrows went off in various directions. The coal was brought by hand to the shaft on sledges and drawn to the surface in a wooden tub, in which the men were also conveyed to the face. The tub was drawn up and down by horses. In time these primitive methods were improved: Rakitin introduced horse-drawn tubs to bring the coal to the shaft, and made a sloping gallery to give access to the surface. From 1910 a steam crane lifted coal to the

surface in the Sulyukta mine. The greatest innovation was the building of a narrow-gauge railway to take coal from Foss's mine to Skobelev; but Rakitin's coal was taken there by carts.

The miners' tools consisted of the miner's hack (Kirgiz: chung), the hand brace (parma), the sledge-hammer (bazgan), the crowbar and the spade. Tin lamps with cotton wicks fed by cotton oil or mazut lit the mines. The conditions of work were very dangerous; there were ten accidents in these mines in 1907 alone. Shifts were long; one of the oldest Kirgiz miners, K. Musafimov, says that in Rakitin's mine in 1916 they worked in two shifts of twelve hours. The average wage, quoted by K.K. Palen in Otchet po revizii Turkestantskogo kraya (St. Petersburg, 1910), was 80 kopeks a day in winter and two rubles in summer. The older miners, however, say that only the better workers earned 20 - 30 rubles a month; the average unskilled worker earned 10 - 15 rubles with a yearly bonus of one ruble, and payment of wages was frequently delayed.

In 1908, 64 men were employed at Sulyukta (Ovsiannikov's pit), 55 at Kyzyl-Kiya (Foss), 25 at Dzhindzhigan (Shott), and 15 at Dzhak (Rakitin). But Palen gives much larger figures in his general catalogue of industry, for example, 207 at Sulyukta. It is obvious that much of the labour was seasonal; and it appears that most of the Kirgiz labour was of this type. They disliked work in the mines.

The seasonal workers lived in their scattered kishlaks; the rest, including some Kirgiz, lived in mud huts and dug-outs around the mines or in the barracks built to house them by Batyushkov. There were no pit-head baths.

When the news of the October Revolution reached Kyzyl-Kiya, the miners formed a mine committee and helped in the nationalization of the pits.

After the reorganization of the economy of Kirgizia according to the Communist Party's plan of industrialization, Kyzyl-Kiya, Sulyukta, Kok-Yangak and Tashkumyr became the centres of Kirgizia's coal industry and the "stokehold of Central Asia". In 1927, in No.1 and the Dzhak shafts coal was still being brought to the surface by a horse-

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drawn windlass; today, the whole field of operation of the Kyzyl-Kiya Trust is fully mechanized. Electricity is used for cutting, drilling, loading and conveying the coal. The first Donbass combine began work in pit No.4-4 bis in 1953.

The working conditions of the miner have been completely changed. They now work an eight-hour day and have leisure for political and cultural education and for social service. (The Dzhal mine has been taken as typical for the purpose of these observations. 15 per cent of the miners there are Kirgiz.)

Many of the miners, on arriving at the pit, put on a special over-all (shakhterka). Some of them leave their helmets there too. They wear special rubber boots and sometimes over-socks. The Dzhal pit has pit-head shower-baths, where the miners usually wash and change after work. There is a canteen, used mostly by bachelors, a "red corner" house, a shop, and a small wooden hut which is used by the first-aid detachment - a feldsher, three nurses, and a sanitarka (assistant nurse) - who have supply of everything necessary in case of accident, and who are responsible for the prevention of ankylostomiasis, the miner's occupational disease.

Most of the miners are Russians; but the Kyzyl-Kiya Coal Trust employs Kirgiz, Uzbeks, Tadzhiks, Tatars, and others. The Kirgiz form 12 per cent of the total employed; of them almost 60 per cent work from one to three years at the pit, and over 25 per cent more than five years. In 1950 nearly 10 per cent of the Kirgiz at Dzhal had been miners for over ten years. Nearly 55 per cent were under 30, over 35 per cent were under 50 and over 30. Some of the men are the second generation of their family to work there. The majority of them are from the area of the Trust's operations, or the adjoining regions.

The first Kirgiz miners, who form the nucleus of the skilled labour, were instructed in the first place by skilled Russian miners. They came from the poorest classes and began work at the age of twelve or thirteen. For their long service they have received many medals and decorations from the Government: 1,437 miners were decorated in the last five years from the Kyzyl-Kiya Trust alone.

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(There follows a detailed description of the career of one of these miners, from which the following are excerpts.)

Born in 1900, he worked as an agricultural labourer until, in 1928, he was drafted by his artel with fifteen others for work in the mines. He rose to be a brigadir (team leader) and a timberman; in 1947 he joined the Communist Party, and in 1948 was named a Hero of Soviet Labour. In 1954 he retired and is at the present time a deputy of the Kirgiz Supreme Soviet.

He has a house of a special design, particularly favoured by the "intelligentsia" of Kirgizia, combining traditional features with others of a purely modern character. In the first room there are two tables - one of them a dining table - four semi-soft chairs, a cupboard and a nickel-plated bed. Lace tablecloths, a frilled bed-spread on the bed, a strip of coloured calico over the bed, all witness to a desire to beautify the room. The walls are hung with framed photographs, diplomas, and posters. At the windows are white linen curtains. The second room is furnished only with a bed. Everything else - the dzhük (bed linen) on a chest, the felt on the floor with a rug spread over it, the komuz (musical instrument) etc., is the traditional furnishing of a Kirgiz home. In the first room, where a daughter of school age was doing her home-work when we made our visit, Russian guests are received; Kirgiz guests are received in the other room. (There is also a kitchen, a bathroom and a veranda.)

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For the last twenty years there has been a mining tekhnikum in Kyzyl-Kiya. In 1949 the first five Kirgiz graduated there - out of 49 pupils of all nationalities taking the course. In 1953 there were 15 Kirgiz among the 52 finishing the course, including the first four Kirgiz mine-surveyors. At the moment there are 296 Kirgiz among the 728 at the tekhnikum, six of them girls.

On finishing the tekhnikum, the miners go to work with the Sredazugol (Central Asian Coal) kombinat, or at Kazakh pits. There are 22 of them at work with the Kyzyl-Kiya Coal Trust; 32 of the miners there have gained extra qualifications by taking courses while working. Party organizations, intercourse with Russian workers, and training courses have enabled Kirgiz miners to attain great success. For instance, a timberman with 28 years mining experience achieved 28 per cent more than his quota in 1953. His average monthly earnings, including long-service allowance, total 2,100 rubles. Another, who took the course at the colliery school, earned 17,000 rubles in 1953, excluding health allowances and long-service pay.

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The town of Kyzyl-Kiya is composed of scattered settlements. Much has been done to make it a more pleasant place; trees have been planted in the larger settlements, and many streets have been surfaced with tar. Bus services connect focal points, and there are many hydrants. Drinking water, however, is still scarce; the electricity supply is not sufficient for ordinary needs, and streets in the outskirts are not all they should be. Since 1927 the Government has been building housing blocks (Ed: apparently of one storey). In 1953 the Trust built 1,700 square metres of living space and spent 854,000 rubles on repairs. The miners, however, prefer to live in detached houses so that they can have a garden and keep a cow, or a goat or two. 300 individual houses were built by miners during the fourth Five-Year Plan.

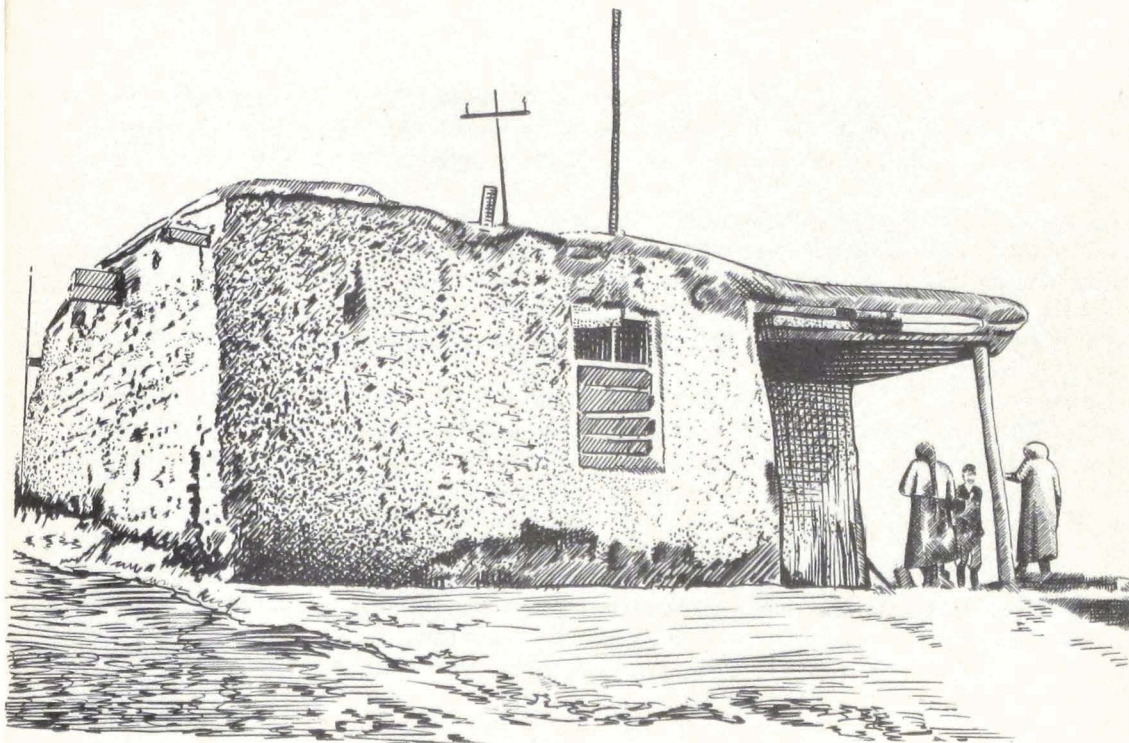
In the blocks (called korpus) belonging to the Trust, there are from four to ten flats of two rooms. Some blocks are built on the corridor system; here the flats have one large room of up to 30 square metres. The newer blocks have two to four flats in each. The builders of private houses receive a loan of 5-10,000 rubles to be paid back within seven to ten years. These houses consist of two rooms. One is a kitchen (ashkhana); the stove is connected with the heater in the other room, which is a bedroom where guests are usually entertained. Outside there is a terrace or veranda. Often there is a clay stove in the yard for bread-baking with a hearth where the cooking is done in summer.

Most of the Kirgiz, however, still live in houses of the old type, with walls of rounded lumps of clay or of adobe bricks and an earthen roof and floor; some of the floor-space is often taken up by a beaten clay platform some 30 cm. high. Some houses have a veranda where the family live in summer, with a wooden bed-cum-dais and a table, and a fireplace in the wall of the usual Fergana type. The windows are usually of the ordinary pattern, but there are examples of the old-type small windows set just below the ceiling.

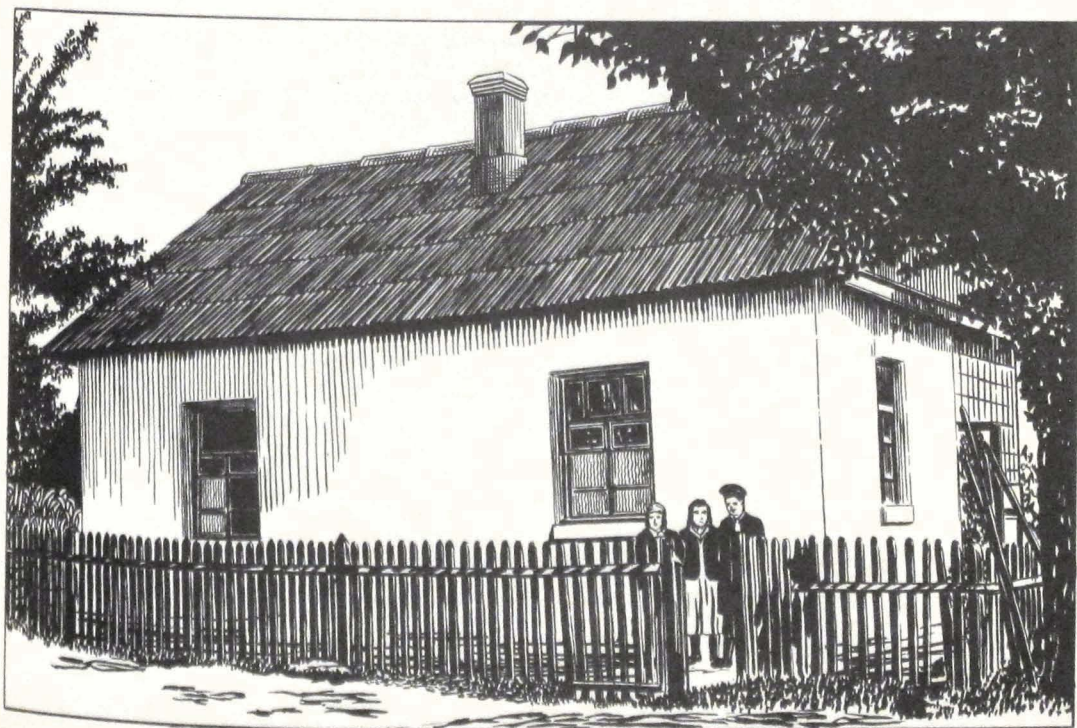
Inside the houses there is invariably the traditional pile of bed linen (dzhŭk) in a niche in the wall opposite the door. There are blankets - fifteen or more - bolsters (dzhastyk) and pillows (balush), and long narrow bags with embroidery on one side (chavadan). The pillow-cases are particularly elaborately embroidered. The dzhŭk is often placed on top of wooden, tin-bound chests or trunks. Sometimes there is a low, longish cupboard with folding doors (dzhavan). The floor is covered with a carpet of narrow strips of cloth sewn together and often embroidered; the cloth is usually cotton. Underneath this is a layer of felt; over this, or over the carpet, are put quilted rugs. On ledges around the walls stand dishes, plates, cups and china tea-pots, earthenware dishes, and enamel or aluminium tureens. All

MINERS' HOUSES AT KYZYL - KIYA

(Reproduced from Sovetskaya Etnografiya No. 4 of 1954)



1. Old type.



2. New type.

this is the typical decoration of houses in the Fergana area. Some of the utensils are used for local dishes, and in the houses of the older miners there is nearly always a komuz - the national musical instrument.

The daily intercourse with Russian workers has brought elements of the new urban culture into Kirgiz homes. Many have metal bed-steads, sometimes with springs, mirrors, clocks, sewing machines, and chairs. In some houses the table is covered with a lace cloth and a piece of oilcloth on top, as one would see in the house of a Russian worker.

Most of the men wear European dress, but often add a quilted chapan (cloak) and a black skull-cap embroidered in white. They use coloured handkerchiefs as belts. The older workers occasionally wear shirts of the old Kirgiz type and heelless boots. The women and children wear the traditional costume: the women the shirt-dress with a projecting collar and wide sleeves, invariably brightly coloured, a sleeveless apron (kämzir) with silver or mother-of-pearl buttons, a short coat (kästyum), trousers, and a head-scarf. The younger women and girls wear rat-tail plaits. All wear silver bracelets, rings, and jewellery of coral or crystal, and possess silk dresses from Osh or Margelan.

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Most of the miners marry women from the kolkhozes of the neighbouring raions. This is an example of the still-surviving tendency only to take a wife from another section of the same clan. The parents have a great, often decisive, influence on the young miner's choice of a wife. One miner chose wives for all four of his sons, and the sons acknowledged his right to do so. The wife of one of the miners died; his mother and other relatives agreed that he should now marry his wife's sister's daughter, according to the at one time universal rule. There is, however, no trace of the former inferiority of women.

Hospitality is a traditional obligation among the Kirgiz. The beneficial influence of the Russian worker is apparent in the deep-rooted feelings of international goodwill prevalent among the young Kirgiz miners.

It is still the custom for the first or second child to be given to the grandparents to bring up; and there is always an assembly of guests at the "birth" of a child, which officially takes place when it is placed into the cradle. Kirgiz children go to Russian schools as

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well as to their own; there are five of them at the No.1 Russian seven-year school, one of whom himself asked to be sent there. Besides the tekhnikums, Kyzyl-Kiya has two ten-year and three seven-year schools (one of them is the No.2 Kirgiz ten-year school), and two worker youth schools. There are three times as many pupils now as in 1940, and 30 per cent of the Kyzyl-Kiya miners have seven-year, ten-year, or tekhnikum education.

The town is a proud possessor of a fine Palace of Culture; next door there is a cinema seating 650 on whose roof are fixed red stars - as many as there are mines and sectors in the mines. When the latter achieve their quotas, their stars are lit from within. So the miners have a daily record of their progress.

Nearly every miner's family takes one of the local newspapers - the Russian paper Za Ugol (For Coal), established in 1922, or Komyur Uchun in Kirgiz. Many are subscribers to the republican papers. Some Kirgiz workers take Russian newspapers - "They're easier to read". Their daily intercourse with Russian workers has so familiarized them with Russian political and industrial terminology that they find it hard to comprehend the Kirgiz equivalents.

The workers of Kyzyl-Kiya are the leaders of political activities in the surrounding raions. They help the kolkhozes during the cotton harvest, and give lectures on the Party and governmental policy in agriculture. Many of them have become members of the highest organs of government: two are deputies of the USSR Supreme Soviet.

The Kirgiz working class has been formed in a relatively very short period. This explains the presence among them of many traditional forms and customs; but these are not out-worn survivals of a negative past; they are the distinguishing marks of a people whose real present and future are to be found in the new light on their lives cast by their association with Russians, and the Russian worker.

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THE STAGE IN CENTRAL ASIA

Formative years - Wartime and post-war productions - Opera and ballet - Theatres: their numbers and administration - Current productions - Amateur activities - Conclusions.

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This article covers the republics of Kazakhstan, Tadzhikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. For a survey of the theatre in Kirgizia see Central Asian Review, Vol.II, No.4.

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Although a rich and varied folk art flourished for centuries in Central Asia, theatrical conventions were until recently non-existent and the institution of the playhouse was unknown. Entertainment was provided by itinerant performers. The Kazakh akyn (bard) and the Turkmen bakshi (folk minstrel) sang improvised songs and ballads to the accompaniment of traditional musical instruments. In Uzbekistan, the askiyabaz (wit) used to organize wit contests, and the maskarabaz (jester) imitated animals and men, sometimes acting in market squares or on platforms by the roadside whole scenes portraying unjust judges, shifty merchants, mullahs and others. Puppet shows were also frequently held; these were of two types, the Chadyrikhayal or "Tent of Apparitions" which used marionettes, and the Dast Kurchak or hand puppets, whose protagonist was the bald hero Palvan Kachal.

There were no regular theatres, however, and it is only since the Revolution, with the advent of the Soviet regime that the foundations of a national theatrical art were laid.

Much of the initial impetus in the creation of national theatres in Central Asia came from local enthusiasts but the actual work was mainly done by Russians, Armenians and Azerbaidzhanis. It was left to choreographers, composers and producers from Moscow, Leningrad and Baku to apply occidental forms and techniques on the folk songs and dances

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of traditional market shows and to construct opera and ballet around approved historical themes and popular heroes.

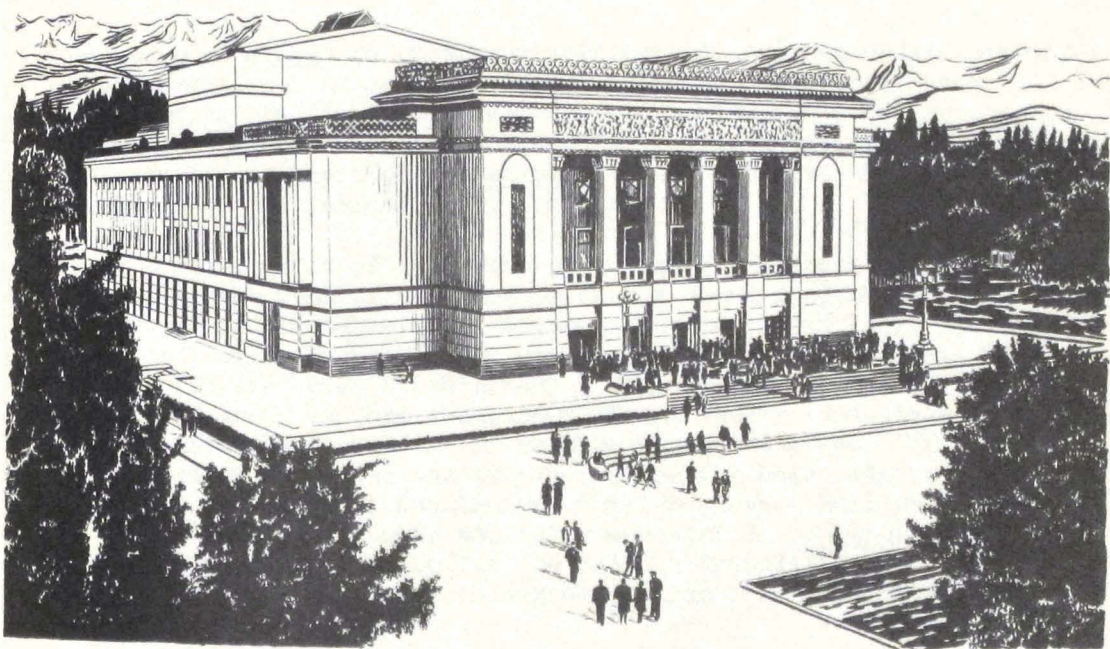
The earliest attempt to establish an amateur theatre on the European model was made in Uzbekistan shortly before the First World War by Mahmud Khodzha Bekbudi who, in 1913, got together a small troupe to perform his play Padarkush (The Parricide). This play was a poor imitation of what was then being done in the West but in spite of its scant literary merit it none the less "inspired a number of mediocre talents to civilize the masses through the theatre."

In 1920, to meet the demands of those who favoured the westernization of the stage, the first regular national theatre, the Khamza Theatre, was established in the headquarters of the Turkestan front in Tashkent; shortly afterwards similar theatrical groups were started in Bukhara, Fergana, and elsewhere. By 1924 there were eleven theatres in Uzbekistan. In that year a group of actors (among them A. Khidoyatov, S. Ishanturayeva, Y. Babadzhanov, L. Nazrullayev, Kh. Latypov - now Peoples' Artists of the USSR) was sent to the newly organized Uzbek Theatrical Studio in Moscow where instruction was given by the Russian producers, Simonov and Sverdlin. In 1925 another group, including the now famous singers Kh. Nasyrova and Kh. Khodzhayeva, left for instruction in Baku. The same year saw the founding of the first Kazakh theatre at Kzyl-Orda, the then capital of Kazakhstan. The founders of the theatre, K. Kuanyshpayev, S. Kozhamkulov, K. Dzhandarbekov and E. Umurzhayev have since become well known in the theatrical world, and after the last war were awarded the Stalin prize. The theatre opened with Enlik ve Kebek, a play by Auezov about the Kazakh counterparts of Romeo and Juliet; it was the most accomplished dramatic work of its day.

In 1929 two events occurred which had a telling, albeit diverse, effect on the development of Central Asian theatres. On the one hand the murder of Niyazi (see CAR Vol.II, No. 3, pp.225 - 226) deprived the Uzbek stage of both a talented playwright and a capable organizer. On the other, the beginnings of a national theatre were laid in Tadzhikistan with the formation of the first drama group in Stalinabad to produce Yashen's play Two Communists. By 1930 a regular theatre-going public was beginning to form; such actors as Umarov and Saidov in Tadzhikistan and the Uzbek producers Manon Uigur and Sharif Kuayumov "greatly contributed to the formation of a discerning audience."

In spite of the severe setback sustained by the Uzbek stage with the death of Niyazi, it continued to be professionally the most advanced. The Khamza Theatre company visited Moscow twice in 1930 for the all-Union Olympiad of national theatres, and again in 1936 when the

THE ABAI OPERA HOUSE AT ALMA - ATA
(Reproduced from Stankoimport calendar for 1951)



SCENES FROM TADZHIK THEATRICAL PRODUCTIONS.

(Reproduced from Voyage au Tadjikistan by P. Luknitskii, Moscow, 1953)



A Tadjik production of Shakespeare's *Othello* with M. Kasymov in the title role and S. Tuibayeva as Desdemona.

A Tadjik production of the Uzbek play *Alisher Navoi* by Uigun and Sultanov, with A. Burkhanov in the title role and A. Rakhimov as Abdurakhman Dzhan.



production of Hamlet in an Uighur setting elicited favourable comments from the critics. Among the national plays produced were Khamza's Bai ve Batrak (Landlord and Labourer), Yashen's Tarmar (Havoc), Namus ve Muhabbat (Honour and Love), Zinat Fatkhullin's Istiklal (Liberty) and Yashen's and Umari's Kholishkon. In 1940 work was begun on the adaptation of the national epic Bohadir.

The development of the theatre in Tadzhikistan was assisted in the thirties by the arrival from Moscow of the young producer E. Mitelman. By 1932 musical-dramatic theatres were functioning in Leninabad, Ura-Tyube, and Kurgan-Tyube; others were opened in Khorog, Kulyab and Garm in 1936. In that year the Stalinabad drama group was amalgamated with the musical group to form the Lakhuti Drama Theatre and the following year the Mayakovskii Russian Drama Theatre was started. Thereafter a more ambitious programme was adopted, attention being centred on the production of classical Russian and foreign plays. Earlier attempts at westernization were only partially successful. Othello, and Romeo and Juliet had been produced in the Tadzhik translations of Banu and Lakhuti, but failed to make an appeal outside the small educated class.

In Kazakhstan a musical-dramatic theatre and a regular Russian theatre were started in Alma-Ata in 1933. Of the plays produced in the following years mention may be made of Musrepov's adaptation of the folk legend Kozy Korpesh and Bayan Slu, which has as its theme the abuses of the clan system, his Isatai and Mukhambet with the contrary theme of clan friendship, and Auezov's Echoes in the Night, which deals with the insurrection of all the Kazakh clans against the Tsar during the First World War.

Unlike the other republics of Central Asia, Turkmenistan had no established theatre until 1937, when the Stalin Theatre was opened in Ashkhabad. During its early stages it produced short plays based on folk-tales; in later years Bazaramanov adapted for the stage the eighteenth-century novel Zokhre ve Takhir and Berdy Kerbabayev wrote a play on the life of the Turkmen poet-philosopher Makhtum Kuli. However, many of the plays produced during this period such as Hypocritical Ishan and Usmanov's The Struggle appear to have been little more than rickety vehicles for propaganda and did not greatly enhance the reputation either of the authors or the producers. The standard of acting also left much to be desired.

During the Second World War a number of patriotic plays dealing with the defence of the country were produced. The best known of these were Yashen's Death to the Occupation Forces in Uzbekistan; and

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In the Fire by Ulug-Zade, To the Battle by Akubdzhanov and Zeleranskii, and Ikrami's A Mother's Heart in Tadzhikistan.

In 1941 Ulug-Zade's Redsticks and Pirmukhamed-Zade's Rustam ve Sukhrob (Sohrab) were shown in Moscow. This was considered to be of enormous cultural significance and testified to the progress of the Tadzhik theatre which was well on the road to the creation of a true art based on "socialist realism". The standard of acting was said to be on a level with that of Russian provincial theatres and the actors, S. Tuibayeva, F. Zakhidova, A. Burkhanov, Kh. Rakhmatullayev and M. Khalilov received much praise. For his performance in Othello M. Kasymov was awarded the Stalin prize. Only in the conditions of the Soviet system, it is asserted, could the art of the Tadzhik people attain such a flowering, "impossible and unimaginable to the workers of the bourgeois countries of the East, and not only of the East."

In the spring of 1945, on the occasion of its twenty-fifth anniversary, the Khamza Drama Theatre in Tashkent staged Uigun's and Sultanov's eponymous drama Navoi based on the life of the celebrated eighteenth-century Uzbek poet.

Since the end of the war attention has been devoted to the production of plays dealing with themes from contemporary life. In Kazakhstan six such plays were produced in 1953, among them Imanyapov's My Love, Khussainov's Spring Wind and Tazhibayev's Dubai Shubayevich. Saodat by M. Rabiev and S. Saidmuradov, which treats the role of women in contemporary Tadzhik society, and Ulug-Zade's "most original" play, Shodman, received much-publicized productions in Tadzhikistan. In Turkmenistan a play about Turkmen kolkhoz girls by the poetess, Tovshan Yesenova, was produced at both the Russian and Turkmen theatres in Ashkhabad, and Mukhtarov's plays When the chocolate is bitter and Merry Guest are shortly to be taken on a tour of seventy kolkhozes by a junior company of the Stalin Theatre.

Complaints have, nevertheless, been made that too many performances are of works already well established - Shakespeare, Ostrovskii, Moliere, Schiller and Gogol. There are several reasons for this. Few plays by native authors touch on any vital aspect of contemporary Soviet life, the writers having lately shown "an increasing tendency to look for inspiration in other traditions." They have abandoned the realistic approach and now "pay tribute to the canons of the formalistic dramatic art." Commissioned plays are hardly ever ready on time and some are not written at all. Competitions organized by the various national ministries of culture and writers' unions do not produce results. Thus no plays have been written on the subject of oil-workers, the Mointy-Chu

railway or the building of the Ust-Kamenogorsk dam. On the other hand, a number of plays are badly constructed and lack "conflict." Others again "slanderosly distort Soviet reality" by emphasizing the wrong aspects of contemporary life. Thefts and drunkenness are shown to the audiences as typical features of workmen's lives. This was pointed out in an article in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda by Baizhanov, himself a playwright. He writes: "... of course, there are cheats and careerists among responsible educated men, but this does not imply that a few such individuals represent the general run of Soviet workers and one should not waste time writing plays about them. By all means let us have plays which expose faults and which are permeated with a healthy Party criticism, but do not let us rummage in the garbage heap of life." The characters of many plays also have no counterparts in real life. This appears to have been the case in Ulug-Zade's recent play Iskateli (Prospectors). The characters reflect none of the qualities of Soviet scientists; they look "very amateurish and depend entirely on blind chance." Indeed an atmosphere of chance pervades the whole play, "the very idea of which is at variance with the actual experience of Soviet people." A new play by a young Turkmen playwright Annakurban Esenov, Burnye Poryvy (Gusts of Passion) about the builders of the Kara-Kum Canal has come in for similar criticism. Even such established favourites as the play Navoi continually come under fire. In this work "the authors failed to treat profoundly the social aspect of the struggle between the exploiters and the exploited; this has resulted in a certain idealization of the past." In depicting Navoi as a great poet and thinker, a just and honest man with a deep love for his people, the dramatists at the same time ascribed to him certain qualities which, it is felt, he did not possess as, for instance, atheism. Moreover, Khusein Baikar who long and sternly ruled over Khorasan is represented as a weak, vacillating and even kind ruler compelled by the vile machinations of his vizier, Medzhiddin, to countenance evil deeds of which he did not approve. All these faults are considered to derogate from the social significance of the play.

Only the works of Yashen and Niyazi appear to have escaped censure, and Central Asian drama as a whole is adjudged unsatisfactory. It is felt that Soviet Gogols and Shchedrins are needed to set it on the right road, and the precept that "without a positive hero and a positive conception of life on the part of the author there can be no true play about Soviet life" is constantly reiterated in the press.

The scarcity of good local plays often compels the managements to stage such foreign works as an adaptation of Jack London's Theft. At the same time "a misguided idea of the needs of the theatre-going public has induced a number of producers to present plays in a manner

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characteristic of western melodramas and vaudevilles as typical productions of the national theatres." An instance of this is the production of Svet v Gorakh (Light in the Mountains) which deals with the Basmachi revolt. In the production folk songs, dances and even national wrestling have been introduced which are alien to the subject and obscure the main theme. Moreover the characters have been simplified and their monologues cut, with the result that instead of a "realistic play a spectacle was produced." Another instance is Ikrami's comedy Sitora (The Star) which deals with contemporary kolkhoz life in Tadzhikistan. Although structurally weak it could have succeeded if well produced; its recent production, however, appears to have induced boredom in the audiences. Many operas also receive "raw productions"; in 1954 the performances of Rigoletto were said to have been considerably below the level demanded by the public.

Some good plays have been written and produced. Of those that have found favour with critics and producers alike are A. Kakhkhar's Sholkovyi Syuzane (The Silk Embroidery) and the one-act comedy Tarif Khodzhayev by Dekhoti and Rakhimzade. The latter is, indeed, the only successful Tadzhik play. After a successful run in Stalinabad it was produced in almost every provincial theatre and by amateur groups. In this play, the authors analyzed the life of Tadzhik kolkhoz peasants and took for their principal characters "some typical negative representatives of the rural society." They have created a witty satire and in so doing "have provided the kolkhozniks with a sharp weapon for the criticism of their local leaders." Following the initiative of Dekhoti and Rakhimzade a number of one-act plays were written but none are on a level with Tarif Khodzhayev.

The standard of acting and production of provincial theatres is varied. Conditions in Uzbekistan appear to be the least satisfactory. At the Bukhara Musical-Drama Theatre, for instance, the repertoire has been narrowed since the end of the war and now includes only twelve plays many of which are by "ressurrected authors and are quite worthless." The productions of these plays are unsatisfactory. For this, however, the producers are not entirely to blame, as actors are often required to double parts and have to sing and dance as well as act. Many of the actors are self-taught and lack not only specialized training but an adequate general education; in its twenty-four years the company has recruited only one fully trained actor. On the other hand the actors complain that the authorities never give them a thought except when they need to send a troupe to the kolkhozes or to hire out the theatre building for a conference. Conditions are hardly better in Kara-Kalpakia. Plays dealing with the ancient past predominate, and the Kara-Kalpak Philharmonia Orchestra after ten years still has no permanent concert

hall and no really qualified vocalists and chorus masters. In 1953, Comrades Vasilyeva and Vasiliyev were sent out from Tashkent, at the direction of the Uzbek Ministry of Culture, to train the chorus. Their only achievement was to teach it The Song of the Cotton Cultivators with music by Yudakov and words by Gulyam.

The unsatisfactory condition of many of the provincial theatres in Uzbekistan is in part ascribed to the mistakes which had been tolerated during the formative years. The producers who had been in charge of the theatres have not, it seems, justified the trust that was placed in them.

In Kazakhstan contemporary plays as well as plays by Gorkii and Ostrovskii are produced. In September 1954 the Semipalatinsk Drama Theatre staged A Place in the Sun by Kryvlev, a lecturer at the Pedagogic Institute. The play which deals with questions of morality in Soviet society was well received. Modern works are also presented at the Kustanai and Karaganda theatres. Last year the Taldy-Kurgan Korean theatre produced Schiller's Perfidy and Love and Shakespeare's Othello. The productions testified to the growing professional mastery of actors and producers.

Opera and ballet on western lines developed gradually in Central Asia and, as with drama, began in Uzbekistan. In 1920 the Sverdlov Russian Theatre of Opera and Ballet (the first opera house in Central Asia) was opened in Tashkent and remained in existence until 1947. During the twenties it exercised considerable influence over the native concert ensemble which, set up in 1926 under the direction of the popular singer Kari Yakub, ultimately grew into the Navoi Theatre. In 1929 the ensemble was taken over by the State and changed from purely concert programmes to performances of musical plays. The first of these, the music drama Khalima and the musical comedy Comrades were performed at the all-Union Olympiad in Moscow in 1930. The music for the plays was composed by Toktasyn Dzhaliyev, Mukhtar Ashrafi and Talie Sadykov. In 1939 the theatre staged the best music drama in its repertoire Gulsara with libretto by K. Yashen and music by the Russian composer R.M. Glier. In the same year the first original opera Buran, on which the Uzbek composer Ashrafi and the Russian Vasilenko collaborated, was performed and soon after was followed by Leili and Medzhnun (Leyla and Majnun) composed by Sadykov and Glier. In 1943 the opera Ulug Beg with music by A.F. Kozlovskii was produced. Since the end of the war the operatic repertoire has been extended. At present besides the above-mentioned operas the following may be seen: Sadykov's Kyz Takyrigi, Ivan Susanin, Eugene Onegin, The Queen of Spades, Boris Godunov, The Bartered Bride, Carmen, Aida,

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La Traviata, Rigoletto and Gounod's Romeo and Juliet. The best Carmen is said to be the young Uzbek soprano Oinisa Kuchlikova. In August 1954 in Tashkent Kirov Park the Chkalov operetta company produced the one-time popular western musical Rose Marie.

Until the Revolution only men and boys, the latter dressed in women's clothes, used to dance in public on holidays and other festive occasions. Women were allowed to dance only in the zenana. Since the Revolution a number of dancers both male and female have been trained, and many more are now attending the Tamara Khanoum Choreographic School in Tashkent. This ballerina of Armenian origin has devoted most of her life to Uzbekistan and is herself unrivalled in Uzbek ballet. Her best known work is The Silkworm which is said to have utilized all the richness, variety and expressiveness of Uzbek folk dances. Since the war most of the classical ballets - Coppelia, Sleeping Beauty, Swan Lake - have been performed. Last year the ballet Seven Beauties by the Azerbaidzhani composer K. Karayev received its premiere.

In Tashkent, opera and ballet is staged at the Navoi Theatre. The present building, which seats 1,500, stands on the site of the "Market of Drunkards" and was completed in 1947. Work on it continued right through the war and every district sent a team of workmen and building materials, especially marble and granite. The building is in the style of ancient Uzbek architecture and the interior is "magnificently decorated" in gilt alabaster. The walls of the central hall are covered with frescoes depicting scenes from Navoi's work, and the six exhibition halls reflect the art styles of the various oblasts of Uzbekistan. Uzbek women have contributed by embroidering in gold thread the velvet stage curtain. A large pool with a fountain has been laid out in front of the opera house so that it may be reflected in the water, as, according to an ancient Uzbek adage, "everything that is reflected in water is eternal in Heaven."

The Kazakh opera opened in 1930 with Aiman Sholman, a musical drama based on a folk epic. Since then Brusilovskii's Golden Grain, the Georgian opera Daisi, Puccini's Madame Butterfly, and most of the Russian operas have been staged. The opera consists of two permanent companies, one Russian under Rutkovskii and the other Kazakh under Zhandarbekov. The companies perform on alternate nights. In 1953 was produced the opera Birzhansal and Akyn Sara by the young composer, Tulebayev. It is the first Kazakh opera to have been written in the classical manner. In 1954 another new opera Dudarai, with libretto by A. Khengeldin and music by Brusilovskii was to be produced. The opera is about the friendship of the Kazakh and Russian people. The outstanding event of the year, however, was the presentation in December of Tchaikovsky's little-known opera

Charodeika (The Sorceress) with Gulyam Abdurakhmanov and Sattar Yarashev in the leading roles. The opera was produced by S.A. Malyavin, Peoples' Artist of Kirgizia, whose treatment was said to be "schematic"; the crowd scenes were lifeless and the timing erratic. The principal singers were praised for their rendering of the parts, but the singing of the chorus was indifferent; the reason is that many of the sixty-five members have had no proper training.

The Tadzhik State Philharmonic Society and the Theatre of Opera and Ballet were started in 1938; in that year was produced the first Tadzhik musical play, Lola. Among later productions have been the operas Rebellion in Vos (libretto by Tursun-Zade and Dekhoti), and Blacksmith Kova with libretto by Lakhuti and music by the Armenian composer Balasanyan, who in 1947 was awarded the Stalin prize. In 1953 Kabalevsky's The Tarass Family and Prokofiev's Cinderella were produced. Excluding all the above-mentioned works the repertoire of the Tadzhik opera parallels that of the other republics. Last year was staged Zlatogorov's production of Balasanyan's latest work Bakhtier and Nisso (libretto adapted by Luknitski from the novel by S. Tsenin, and translated by Amin-Zade). The leading parts were sung by Mavlyanova, Mullokanov, Akhmedov and Tolmasov. The opera was criticized on practically all grounds. The production was hurried and lacking in finish; it was full of "raw unelaborated fragments"; crowd scenes were static and others were too sketchy or too realistic, as, for example, the scene depicting the Basmachi rising, where the horrors of the raid were over-emphasized; many scenes were introduced for no particular reason and only served to hold up the action. The singing was unequal, and Tolmasov especially, intoned monotonously. For this, however, neither he nor the rest of the cast were entirely to blame, as the music was originally written to the Russian text and the Tadzhik translation does not fit the score, which results in a "dislocation of harmonies." The score on the whole is somewhat complicated and there is a general crowding of themes and melodies. Furthermore the orchestra dominates and tends to overwhelm the vocal parts. In spite of all these faults the opera is considered to mark an important advance. The orchestration is rich and colourful. The composer employs leitmotif and Tadzhik and Pamir folk melodies in the traditional framework of solo, ensemble and recitative. The seventh scene trio (Azizkhon, Nisso and Bakhtier), for instance, is set against a pathetic theme identified with Bakhtier. In the second scene a chorus in 7/8 time utilizes the melody of the folk song, Dzhamdzhamai.

Ballet has achieved a high professional standard in Tadzhikistan and is very popular, for the Tadzhiks have always been great lovers of the dance. Classical works are frequently performed but not to the

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exclusion of folk dances. Since the end of the war two popular ballets have been Leili and Medzhnun and Lenskii's Du Gul (Two Roses) and Dilbar. The latter tells of the struggles of a kolkhoz girl, Khosiyat, who wants to become a dancer against the wishes of her parents. The choreography blends in "harmonic union" the basic steps and gestures characteristic of folk dancing with classical forms, such as the waltz. The role of Khosiyat has been danced by both Lyutfi Zakhidova and Ashura Nasyrova, the leading ballerinas in the republic. Although the work has much to recommend it, it is none the less criticized for its lack of balance. The dramatic line is not sustained and the music becomes duller towards the end. There is also no connection between some of the divertissements and the story.

The Turkmen Theatre of Opera and Ballet was founded in Ashkhabad in 1943, since when a number of classical and several Turkmen operas have been produced. Among the latter may be mentioned Shakhsehem and Garib by Sapozhnikov and Ovezov; Takhir and Zokhre by Dzhaliilov and Girgilenko, and Veli Mukhadov's Kemine and Kazi based on the life of the eighteenth-century Turkmen poet, Kemine.

Ballet is a fairly recent creation in this republic but has already gained all-Union recognition with such works as Aldar Kose (The Beardless Cheat) and Mukhadov's Ak Pamyk (White Cotton), which is said to have brought the composer "immense popularity not merely within the borders of Turkmenistan." Mukhadov is the author of the Turkmen national anthem and today the leading composer in the republic.

It will be seen from the foregoing that despite a few isolated cases by far the largest proportion of works produced are by non-native composers. This fact was stressed at the congresses of Central Asian composers held last autumn. It appears that many native composers seek "amenable co-authors" who, in actual fact, write the music for them. In this they find willing collaborators among the newly-arrived Russian and other composers who, being unwilling or uninterested to learn the language and customs of the people amongst whom they find themselves, are only too happy to collaborate.

Today there are theatres in most of the principal towns of Central Asia. The capital towns each have a theatre of opera and ballet and at least two drama theatres - one Russian and one national. All these have repertory companies. The most recent estimate of the number of theatres in any republic is that for Tadzhikistan, where there are sixteen; these are situated in Stalinabad, Leninabad, Kanibadam, Kulyab, Kurgan-Tyube, Garm and in the Pamirs. In Kazakhstan, according to reports published in 1952, there were six theatres (including an Uighur and a Korean) in Alma-

Ata, twelve in the oblasts and ten in kolkhozes and sovkhoses. Figures for the other republics are less easy to come by and are not so reliable. Little, for instance, is known of the number of theatres in Turkmenistan beyond the three in Ashkhabad. In Uzbekistan there are said to be forty-five theatres. This figure must, however, be accepted with certain reservations. Tashkent only has five theatres: the Alisher Navoi Theatre of Opera and Ballet, the Khamza Theatre of Drama, the Mukimi Theatre of Music and Drama, the Gorkii Theatre of Russian Drama, and a children's theatre. The other towns - Bukhara, Samarkand, Leninsk, Katta-Kurgan, Kokand, Yangi-Yul, Shakhrisyabz, Mirzachul, Gizhduvan - and Kara-Kalpakia have at most two, and generally one, theatre. Moreover it is open to question if the various acting groups in the army and in the larger kolkhozes counted as theatres can properly be so called; for it is not known if they consist of full-time actors who perform in a permanent theatre building. Many of the larger established theatres, however, tour the provinces from time to time.

The organization of the theatres leaves much to be desired. The Mukimi Theatre in Tashkent, for instance, has no Uzbek producer and the present ones, Yungvald-Khilkevich and Raikova, have no knowledge of Uzbek and are therefore unable to do full justice to the plays. Similarly at the Abai Opera at Alma-Ata there is no chief producer to coordinate the work of the two groups, the Russian and the Kazakh. The norms for the production of plays are also underfulfilled; some theatres do not produce more than two or three plays a year, many being deferred or held over for "quite trifling reasons." In Stalinabad, the production of the ballet Fountain of Bakhchiserai was planned for March 1953 but was not staged until the autumn of 1954.

In many theatres the public has no means of knowing what the cast of any given production is, as programmes are sold only on opening nights and special occasions. This is particularly so in Tadzhikistan. Soon after the end of the war the Tadzhik theatre administration widely publicized its decision to put in recording installations in the auditoria, thereby enabling Russian spectators to acquaint themselves with translations of Tadzhik plays. But all these measures have so far proved to be "empty promises" and the theatre directors have not even taken the trouble to print short summaries of the plot in Russian for the benefit of that section of the audience which knows no Tadzhik.

Some theatres are not kept as clean as they ought to be; refreshment counters, instead of selling ice cream, fruit, sweets, coffee, tea or lemonade, offer the public vodka, cognac, pickles, tinned fish and sausages by weight; thus, since the counters are turned into "drink shops", spectators often arrive in the auditoria in a far from

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sober state and interrupt the performance.

Not all the theatres are well equipped. In the Khorog theatre, sets and costumes done many years ago are still in use and have not been renovated, with the result that most productions look rather drab. So far all attempts to have new costumes made have been vigorously resisted by the theatre administration. The reason given is that in all the inventories sets and costumes are valued at the very high wartime prices, so that a carpet which today costs 5-6 thousand rubles is marked at 40,000 rubles. Since a revaluation has not yet been carried out and the funds of the theatre are limited, the administration prefers not to risk expenditure; and the new director (the fourth in three years) has done little to improve matters.

In Tadzhikistan the behaviour of actors off-stage was last autumn the subject of considerable press comment following the dismissal of two capable young actors, Arzumanov and Voronkov, from the Mayakovskii Theatre in Stalinabad. On the stage the performances of these actors were "distinguished by good taste and considerable accomplishment". Arzumanov gave an especially good account of himself, his most outstanding performance being in the part of Kokhty in Baratashvili's comedy The Dragonfly. Both these actors, however, overlooked the fact that a Soviet worker must possess not only professional mastery but moral qualities as well; that "before one can attempt to bring culture to others one must be cultivated oneself." The behaviour of the actors is said to have been deplorable in the extreme; they were irresponsible, frequently drunk, kept bad company, and ill-treated their wives. They had no "high sense of mission" but manifested only the "survivals of pre-revolutionary Bohemia." The actors, after a short dismissal and a sharp reprimand, were reinstated, a fact that was viewed with grave misgivings by the press. "What guarantee is there," asked one writer, "that the actors have had sufficient time to re-educate themselves and will in future conduct themselves in a manner worthy of a Soviet worker." The officials of the Mayakovskii Theatre claimed that they could not be held responsible for the behaviour (whether moral or otherwise) of their young actors and in extenuation suggested that a graduate of a Soviet VUZ cannot be considered a hopeless drunkard.

The theatre season in Central Asia opens in September, and last year showed no appreciable increase in the number of plays by local authors. In Tadzhikistan the season opened with the production in Stalinabad of Legend of Love by the Turkish Communist playwright Nazim Hikmet, and Secrets of the Heart by the Uzbek, Rakhmanov. At the Mayakovskii Theatre of Russian Drama plays by Griboyedov, Vishnevskii, Lavrenev and Simonov are to be produced as well as King Lear, a new play Crystal Key

by Bondareva and an adaptation of Dreiser's novel American Tragedy. In January, Dudkin's In the Path of the Sun was given its first performance. The play is about Soviet scientists and cotton cultivators, who seek to produce a new variety of cotton, and of the efforts of imperialist powers to frustrate these attempts by introducing into the Soviet Union the blue worm - a cotton pest. The play was severely criticized on the ground that it was not true to life, for such a situation is impossible in reality because a Soviet worker would be on his guard and maintain constant vigilance.

At the opera, Arshin-Mal-Alan, an Azerbaidzhani musical play, Boris Godunov, and Rubinstein's Demon, the latter in a new production by the young Moscow graduate Lugachev, are to be staged. Among the ballets are Blue Carpet by Volberg and Aleksandrov's Friendship of Youth which tells of the amicable relations of the peoples of the Soviet Union and India and of their efforts for peace.

At the Russian Drama Theatre in Alma-Ata, Shtein's Personal Matter has been produced. The play tells the story of a Communist engineer whose conviction in the infallibility of the Party remains unshaken despite his own expulsion from it on trumped up charges. Next to be produced are Moliere's Tartuffe, Shakespeare's Merry Wives of Windsor and Twelfth Night, and Henry Fielding's Sudya v Iovushke (The Entrapped Judge), a play in which "the author with annihilating scorn describes the English ruling class and the venal methods of a bourgeois court of law."

According to a statement of V.G. Navrotskii, director of the Navoi Theatre in Tashkent, during the current season many of the repertory works are to receive new productions; no mention, however, was made of the presentation of any new works.

At the Tashkent drama theatres the following productions were planned: Paris Ragman a nineteenth-century French play by Felix Pia; Spilled Cup by Van-Shi-Fu, and Ewen McColl's The train can be stopped which is a "scathing denunciation of American war-mongers." Nazim Hikmet's Legend of Love and Tale of Turkey have already been staged.

In Turkmenistan the sole item of interest is Mukhtarov's comedy Merry Guest which has been produced in Russian at the Pushkin Theatre. The chief character in the play, Nazar Salikov (played by M.E. Kirillov), is said to be a new and original type in Turkmen drama. He is stupid, weak willed and so taken up with self-admiration that he loses all sense of reality. The author in this work makes fun of complacency and exposes laziness "which is alien to the spirit of Soviet society." The

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production, however, does not do full justice to the work. According to a press report of 12th March, Mukhtarov's play Na beregu Murgaba (On the banks of the Murgab) is having a successful run in Chardzhou and is to be followed by Goldoni's Amusing Incident with K. Kulmuradov, D. Ashirova, S. Atadzhanova and M. Atakhanov in the leading roles.

Amateur dramatics, choral and orchestral groups appear to flourish in Central Asia. This is especially so in Tadzhikistan, where practically every kolkhoz and factory kollektiv boasts one or other of these amateur groups. On the 12th October 1954 a festival of amateur performers was held in the Green Theatre in Stalinabad. Groups from Leninabad, Kulyab, Garm, Gorno-Badakhshan, the Pamirs and many raions of the republic participated. The programme consisted mainly of solo numbers, most of them traditional Tadjhik songs and dances. The Regar raion House of Culture choir, however, sang contemporary songs, among them Hymn of Democratic Youth and the March of the Soviets. Hikmet Rizo of the Lenin kolkhoz (Stalinabad raion) sang a song about cotton, and the Kurgan-Tyube choir sang "Let us toil for our country's happiness: bread earned by labour is the sweetest." A trio of dancers from the Varzob and Regar raions won much praise, and the audience applauded vigorously a recitation of verses from Khorpushtak, the comic review, by a member of the Kuibyshevsk raion group.

Uzbekistan has 1,650 amateur groups whose activities appear to cover an even wider field than those of Tadzhikistan. According to a report of 13th October 1954 the opera group of the Chirchik electro-chemical kombinat was engaged on the production of Rachmaninov's Aleko; the cast was said to consist of engineers and technicians. Similarly in Kazakhstan local interest in music and drama finds expression in amateur groups. In the Guryev oblast alone there are 132 such groups.

The talent of many of these amateurs is undoubted, and the annual festivals and competitions are watched by the authorities for possible recruits to the drama schools and the academies of music which have sprung up in the republics since the war. The activities of the groups are, however, handicapped by the scarcity of good one-act plays and the lack of properties. Funds set aside for the purchase of musical instruments often remain unspent as none are available in the oblast shops.

That much has been accomplished in the thirty-five years which have elapsed since the days of the strolling players and jesters is evident. Difficulties and defects are still apparent, but some of them, notably the shortage of plays on contemporary themes, can be attributed to the fact that the theatre does not lend itself so readily as a medium

of political propaganda as the cinema and radio. How far, indeed, the progress registered is a spontaneous and natural flowering of native genius and how far it is synthetic and the result of official direction must remain a matter of opinion.

Sources

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THE CENTRAL ASIAN WRITERS'
CONGRESSES

The decision to hold a second USSR Writers' Congress towards the end of 1954 entailed the holding of similar congresses at the republican level in preparation; these were held from April 1954 onwards. The Central Asian republican congresses were held from the middle of August to the middle of September. They all had more or less the same form. They began with a report read by the president of the Writers' Union on the state of the literature of the republic and the tasks before it, followed by sub-reports on the various branches of literature. On the penultimate day of the conference the leader of the delegation from Moscow would speak and the republican Party secretary conclude the debate; both these speeches would be reported at some length in the press. The debate included criticisms of the administration of the Union and of the journals issued under its auspices.

The attitude taken by the various papers to these congresses was not always the same, though the treatment was uniform. A week or so before the congress a signed article on the scope of the congress appeared, to be followed on the day of the opening of the congress by an unsigned editorial article - the voice of the republican Party leadership. This sometimes favoured the existing Union leadership, and sometimes showed the way for criticism of it.

The Uzbek conference does not seem to have had the importance in the life of the country that congresses enjoyed elsewhere. Such little discussion as there was of the one report made seems to have been quite perfunctory. Nevertheless, some of the characteristics of contemporary Uzbek literature did emerge. The leading article in Pravda Vostoka on the first day of the congress condemned the tendency of some writers to use archaic Arab, Persian, or Turkish words "which the people do not understand", and to panegyricize the court literature of feudal bais in their treatment of the past. Individual authors were not named, but the magazines Zvezda Vostoka and Shark Yulduzi (i.e. Star of the East - presumably the Uzbek version of Zvezda Vostoka) were sharply criticized for their failure to give a lead to the writers of the republic.

The report read by the Union president, the playwright Uigun, stressed the debt of Uzbek literature to Russian, and to the ideology of Communism whose application had helped Uzbek writers to avoid the corruptions of pan-Turkism and pan-Islamism. He also stressed the emancipation of the modern Uzbek woman and the part she now played in the characterization of the Uzbek novel. (From this and other remarks at the congress it appears that the position of women is still a matter of dispute in Uzbekistan.) Pravda Vostoka commented that Uigun should have made a deeper analysis of the works he mentioned; he merely gave a string of names. This was a sign of the Union committee's indifference to the fate of the individual writer. It is noteworthy that this is the only occasion in all the five congresses of a newspaper's taking part in such criticism.

Speakers in the debate that followed, Pravda Vostoka remarked, gave little account of their works or of the work of others. The poet Gafur Gulyam, author of a war-time collection of verses, I come from the East, for instance, devoted most of his speech to proving the traditional love of the Uzbek for the Russian by quotations from Furkat, Mukimi, and Zavki - writers of the turn of the century. The president of the new presidium, elected at the end of the congress, was Abdulla Kakhkhar, the Stalin prize laureate author of The Lights of Koshchinar, a novel about the first period of collectivization. The deputy president appears from his name to be Russian.

The verdict of Literaturnaya Gazeta on the Uzbek congress was exactly the same as that of the pre-congress leader in Pravda Vostoka: for ten years after the second congress in 1939 Uzbek literature had flourished; Aibek published his novels Navoi and The Precious Blood, Pard Tursun his novel The Teacher, and, among younger writers, Ibrahim Rakhim his novel Sources of Life. But in the last three years Uzbek literature had grown stagnant. In accordance with this verdict, that of the local Party organization, the Union leadership was replaced.

The Tadzhik congress (18th - 21st August) was overshadowed by the death of the "grand old man" of Tadzhik literature, Sadridin Aini, in July. His career has been fully described in CAR Vol.I, No.2; there is no doubt that he would have provided a living point of reference at the congress, had he survived. As it was, the impression given was that Tadzhik literature began, or at least began anew, with Aini's March of Freedom in 1923, and indeed Uzbek literature as well. The main theme of the congress was his doctrine that Tadzhik literature as it is today owes everything to Russian literature and to the Russian language; Tursun-Zade, the president of the Tadzhik Union, took up Aini's invocation of the name of Gorkii as the only model for Soviet prose, his

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admiration for all things Russian, and in Aini's absence dominated the congress.

Mirzo Tursun-Zade is, in fact, the most prominent figure in the literary world not only of Tadzhikistan but of all Central Asia, as the part he played at the all-Union Congress shows. He was a protege of Aini, and his origins were equally obscure. He came from Karatag to Stalinabad on foot to receive an education in 1925, and in 1930 joined the staff of Rakhbari Donish, later to become the official journal of the Writers' Union under the title of Sharki Surkh. His most substantial work is a cycle of poems, An Indian Ballad, written after a visit to India in 1937. In his speech he emphasized that although Aini had used the "realist strains in the work of such classical authors as Rudaki, Firdausi, Saadi, Khayyam and Jami", the main influences on his work were his experience of the October Revolution, the doctrines of Marxism, and the work of Gorkii, whose translation into Tadzhik he supervised.

The influence of Russian literature, he continued, had been strong in the development of subsequent writers; and example was Dzhallol Ikrami's Shodi, which was obviously much indebted to Sholokhov's Podnyataya Tselina. Shodi in turn had had a great influence on Rakhim Dzhahalil's novel Pulat and Gulru. Of Dzhahalil, Tursun-Zade said: "He has his own peculiar virtues, but with them he has introduced into his novel many episodic adventures which prevent the development of his novel on realist lines". It had been rumoured for some years, he went on, that Dzhahalil was writing a novel on the life of the miners, but it had not appeared, nor had he asked the Union's help. Satym Ulug-Zade, however, had written two novels. The first, A Land Renewed, was a great achievement, describing as it did the post-war period of kolkhoz unification. But the autobiographical Our Life's Morning, though it contained clear descriptions of the forces of reaction and the friendship of the Russian people in the pre-revolutionary era, was in many places merely sketchy, and in others sheer journalese. This was in large part due to his not having submitted it to the Union for criticism before having it printed in Moscow.

In reply to this, Ulug-Zade sharply attacked Tursun-Zade himself and his report, which he said was not as it should be, the composite work of the committee but entirely his own, and so contained elements of self-advertisement and self-praise. (This seems to be a reference to Tursun-Zade's stressing of his own personal relationship to Aini.) Ulug-Zade also criticized Dzhahalil, who, he said, could not finish his novel on the miners because he knew very little about them, and Ikrami, whose single volume of short stories since the publication of Shodi had

been "intellectual and schematic".

A striking omission from Tursun-Zade's report was any full treatment of the work of Mirzo Mirshakar, the foremost Tadjik poet, who was in equal measure a disciple of Aini and whose work is held in greater esteem than any of Tursun-Zade's own. Of him Tursun-Zade said that he merely repeated well-worn truths and platitudinous information; though his documentary poem We Come from the Pamirs had been universally appreciated, his later works were a little too "concrete" and informative.

The one sub-report - on writing for children - was made by A. Dekhoti, the joint author with B. Rakhim-Zade of the only successful Tadjik play, Tarif Khodzhayev. It appears that most of the writers of Tadjikistan write for children; many of the works of which Dekhoti spoke had already been criticized by Tursun-Zade.

The debate held little of interest. Few of the speakers seemed to have any clear idea of the principles of Soviet literary criticism; from both his initial and concluding speeches Tursun-Zade himself omitted any mention of "conflict". The exception was the speech of Surkov, the first secretary of the all-Union organization. This, though not as polished as his speech at the Turkmen congress, was still illuminating. In effect he said two things: that Soviet literature had of any the most favourable conditions for development - he contrasted conditions in Persia, where he had just been, with those in Tadjikistan - and that the primary requirement for success was a close acquaintance with those conditions - the reality of Soviet life. He was particularly interesting about "conflict". "If a man eats natural sugar, it's good for his health, but if he uses saccharine, although it is sweeter than sugar, it does him harm in the long run." But an appreciation of reality and "conflict" was not enough. "I do not agree with Comrade Luknitskii when he blames Ikrami because he does not know how to climb mountain paths (gornoye tropy - a reference to Ikrami's projected novel on mining - gornoye delo). Several writers climb their mountain paths quite happily, but stumble and fall on the parquet of literary creation."

The same committee and officers were elected as before the congress.

The Party comment in Turkmenskaya Iskra on the first day of the Turkmen congress - 25th August - was relatively mild in tone. The achievements of the novelists Kerbabayev and Kaushutov were recalled, and the lack of "conflict" in the works of Seitakov, Aliyev and

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Aborskii, the leader of the Russian section of the Union, and in the plays of Mukhtarov and Seitliyev was censured. There was extensive, but not severe, criticism of the Union administration.

The president's report was a long speech lasting for over three hours. He - B. Kurbansakhatov - is known chiefly as a writer of children's books. His speech was a series of examinations of the work of the leading Turkmen writers since the last congress in 1940, in chronological order.

Berdy Kerbabayev is the leading Turkmen novelist. Kurbansakhatov mentioned first his war-time poem Ailar. Ailar is a kolkhoz girl who is involved in amazing adventures behind the enemy lines. The incredibility of these adventures, commented Kurbansakhatov, and the startlingly rapid promotion of the hero - lieutenant to general in three months - rendered the work devoid of value; Kerbabayev's first post-war work, however, the novel, The Decisive Step, (begun in 1940) was "the first realist novel in Turkmen". Ata Kaushutov had written two novels on realist themes: the first of these, At the Foot of Kopet-Dag, Kurbansakhatov had wrongly criticized on its appearance for the exaggeration of the "negative" aspects of some of the characters; he now saw that the chief defect was rather the absence of "conflict" than the excess of it. The other novel, Mekhri and Vepa, had been very sharply criticized in 1952 for its lack of "conflict" between the individual and society, as opposed to "conflict" between one individual and another, so sharply, indeed, that one might well have assumed the total condemnation of the author. This was not a fair treatment for one of the best Turkmen writers, who had made every attempt to expunge his mistakes and had rendered invaluable service by his stories about the beginnings of friendship between the Russian and Turkmen peoples, and about the contrast between the life of the Turkmen and the Afghan peasant.

The leading Turkmen dramatist is Khusein Mukhtarov - later to report on drama. Of him, Kurbansakhatov said that his achievements were an occasion for rejoicing, but that he had defects, which, it was to be hoped, his course at the Gorkii Institute of Literature (in Moscow) had cured. In his play, On the Banks of the Murgab, the negative character of the deputy kolkhoz president, an overweening bureaucrat, dominated the play at the expense of the positive hero - a Party secretary. Although the bureaucrat mended his ways by the end of the play, it was not right that this transformation should detract from the interest of the other positive characters.

The morning session of the 26th August was devoted to sub-reports. Kara Seitliyev's report on poetry named as the principal shortcoming of the

work of all Turkmen poets, of both the older and the younger generations, an excessive attachment to "classical oriental bombast" and "formalism". This, he said, was exemplified in erotic verses which compared modern Soviet girls to swans, gazelles, pheasants, ostriches, and ducks - most unsuitable similes; and in a general tendency to repetition. Poets would do well to look to their language-structure; they - himself included - would find an astonishing poverty of vocabulary - swallows and roses at every turn - and scores of archaisms and Arab borrowings. They must turn to the classic Turkmen, and even more to the classic Russian, authors.

Mukhtarov's report on drama had much to say on lack of "conflict". This, he said, was the result of authors' attempts to make their characters "positive"; there should be a permanent consultant to help them at the Union headquarters. He deplored the sketchy portrayal of Russian characters.

The debate that followed was described by Turkmenskaya Iskra with a perceptible bias in favour of the existing Union administration. For instance, while Beki Seitakov's criticism of Kurbansakhatov's stories is reproduced, his support of Kaushutov's Mekhri and Vepa, officially condemned, is dismissed, and he is accused of trying to avoid mention of his own much criticized novel The Light of Moscow. Of this novel Skosyrev, a guest at the congress and a prominent all-Union authority on Turkmenistan, said that it, and Mekhri and Vepa, suffered not so much, as had been said, from a lack of "conflict" as from the fact of their origin in the picaresque, non-realist des-tans; Turkmen literature had, indeed, no realist tradition, such as was already present in classical Russian literature.

The poet Pomma Nurberdyev, who spoke on the same day, attacked the reports of the president and of Seitliyev, one of whom, he said, "burnt incense to the poetical genius of K. Seitliyev, while the other sang dithyrambs to K. Kurbansakhatov. One is reminded, surprisingly, of the two birds in Krylov's fable." Nurberdyev also tried to prove that "his unhappy formalist poem A Song of Moons was pure poetic revelation."

The evening of the 27th August was the most solemn occasion of the congress. The only two speakers were Kerbabayev and the Party secretary, Nurdzhamal Durdyeva - herself an author. Kerbabayev's speech, as Turkmenskaya Iskra remarked with disfavour, was a discussion of private problems, and not of general principles. The senior Turkmen writer complained that critics of his The Decisive Step were not judging it from its latest edition, which he had care-

fully revised. He was blamed for not writing about the working class - the oilmen, for instance; how could he without living among them for some time? He was not yet ready to write.

Durdyeva's speech, reported in full, was almost entirely concerned with condemnations of authors and institutions; indeed, its only positive aspect was a series of statistics of book production. If Seitakov had only submitted The Light of Moscow to the comment of his colleagues, instead of rushing into print in Russian in Moscow - a habit all too prevalent - he would have been warned of the lack of "conflict" in his work. Far too little, she continued, had been written to display the "charming figure of the Russian worker" and his part in the founding of modern Turkmenistan; there had been far too little satire on such survivals of pan-Turkism and Islam as the parasitic wandering mullas, those who sought to preserve a patriarchal society, those who treated their women as the wives of feudal bais, and alcoholism. These "promising subjects for the barbed pen" had been lately avoided by younger writers; the satirical magazine Tokmak did not play its part. In matters of general criticism the daily newspapers shrank from following up the attacks begun by their leading articles (which are invariably Party statements). Only by chance had they escaped the errors of Novyi Mir (New World).

Among the replies to criticism made on the last day of the congress was that of Alty Karliyev, director of the Stalin Theatre, to Mukhtarov's mention of his play Bashlyk. Mukhtarov had said that the hero, for the first two acts "almost a social evil", was miraculously transformed in the course of a single meeting in the last act. Karliyev replied that the dramatist must look for "bad in good, and good in bad" - meaning, it seems, that there are no entirely good or bad men. This opinion, Turkmenskaya Iskra commented, was "one of the chief corner-stones of conflictlessness" or else "pure nihilism".

The most important speech, however, was that of Aleksei Surkov, the first secretary of the all-Union organization. It reads much more suavely than the other speeches reported word for word; there is a conscious avoidance of the usual Marxist cliches, and of the stereotyped accusations of heresy that the other speakers had hurled at one another. The development of Turkmen literature, he said, was precisely the same as that of any other Soviet literature. This was partly the result of the enormous amount of translation that had been done; and on the increase of such translations future development depended. It was indeed important, as Durdyeva had asserted, that War and Peace, Chernyshevskii and Dobrolyubov should be translated into Turkmen. Only by translating foreign and particularly Russian classics could writers

enlarge their vocabularies.

The development of taste, continued Surkov, was very important. For instance, Pomma Nurberdyev had written of "pearls of sweat" - were these really a suitable decoration for the brow of a working man? It was not enough to manufacture literature out of the platitudes of tradition; who would prefer a carpet mass-produced in Moscow to one hand-made in Turkmenia? (sic) Criticism must not be empirical. Characters must not be all white one minute to be "positive", and all black the next to show "conflict". The Soviet critic must have a deep love of his country to off-set his hatred of the shortcomings of its people. Let them follow the example of Kerbabayev, and learn to know the people at first hand.

Literaturnaya Gazeta, summing up the work of the congress, said that Turkmen writers had their eyes fixed on the past. Kurbansakhatov had devoted most of his speech to authors already dead (this is a reference to his relatively brief treatment of Kaushutov, who died in 1953); three reports on subjects really occupying most of the attentions of the congress - those on criticism, translations, and the work of younger writers - had not been delivered. The fundamental error of all Turkmen writers was their attachment to the obsolete concept of "Oriental" poetry, with its playing on words - Pomma Nurberdyev's Song of Moons was a typical example:

Brighter than our moon have I never seen moon,
Going for many moons from moon to moon.

It was disgraceful that many books - among them Kerbabayev's The Decisive Step - had appeared in full only in Russian.

At the end of the congress a new committee was elected; Kurban-sakhatov is still president, and Seitakov secretary.

A week before the opening of the Kazakh congress (3rd - 8th September), an article appeared in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda by Dmitri Snegin, devoted to the work of the Russian section of the Union, which is naturally stronger here than in any other Central Asian republic. He exhorted Russian writers to abjure the attitude "We are so far from Moscow"; they should remember how far from Moscow are the writers of the Don, of Siberia, of the Far East. Yet even he echoed this complaint; the all-Union organizations held themselves aloof, translations of Kazakh authors made by Russians in Kazakhstan were rejected and done again in Moscow.

The survey of Kazakh writing made in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda took the form of a full page of articles written by members of the reading public

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- students, school-teachers, the editor of a Party magazine - and a Hero of Socialist Labour, who reproached writers for their neglect of a particularly fruitful theme - the exploits of Heroes of Socialist Labour. The two more important articles were devoted to prose and the drama.

The chief Kazakh writers are Mukhtar Auezov, Gabiden Mustafin, Sabit Mukanov, Gabit Musrepov, Khamid Yergaliyev, and T. Zharokov. To these were added before the congress the names of Tazhibayev and Abishev, but at the congress itself they were condemned in severe terms.

Auezov is the author of the most considerable work to appear since the war - a novel on the life of Abai Kunanbayev. This was at first sharply criticized (CAR Vol.I, No.1; II, No.4) for not reflecting sufficiently clearly the contradictions inherent in the old Kazakh way of life. This criticism seems to have disappeared; one of the articles mentioned does complain that Auezov so rarely turns to contemporary themes (he is, after all, a scholar) but throughout the congress he alone retained his position unchallenged.

Mustafin has written two novels - The Millionaire and Karaganda. The "millionaire" is, of course, a millionaire kolkhoz. It is the story of the clash of a manager, cautious in the face of a plan to electrify his kolkhoz, with a brilliant young agronom, who wants electrification at any price. Readers have complained that the manager gives up his position and the problem is solved too easily; a deus ex machina appears in the form of workers from the neighbouring farms, who cheerfully leave their own work to enable this kolkhoz to become the best in the raion. This is "not like life". A more legitimate criticism from the non-Marxist point of view is that advanced by a critic that Mustafin, by this treatment, destroys the characters that he creates in his first exposition of the situation. Karaganda is the success story of a miner who "without experience of life" becomes the Party secretary to a coal trust. Here again the readers' criticisms are a lack of verisimilitude.

Mukanov is the author of Syr-Darya, a review of which was reproduced in CAR Vol.II, No.2. It is now advanced that the characters in the novel behave like "tin soldiers". There is no "conflict". "It is hardly reasonable that when thousands of dam-workers have been swept away in a flood the construction should go on without any particular delay."

Abishev and Tazhibayev are playwrights. In the article on drama - written by a student of the Gorkii Institute of Literature - they are both commended. Yet, Tazhibayev, who in Dubai Shubayevich had a

scholar bemused with much learning as his principal character, is criticized by imputation; and Abishev, who in A Father's Condemnation describes how a wicked careerist steals the notes of a brilliant young agriculturalist who has solved the problem of making the deserts fertile, is attacked for treating so serious a problem so lightly, and for describing the intellectuals of Kazakhstan as "rude, tactless, and psychologically unintegrated."

At the congress itself, Auezov, in his report on Kazakh drama, gave a long analysis of the causes of the "flop" of Dubai Shubayevich - he had, at its first appearance, been on the Union committee which gave it its approval.

Though Mukanov, in his report on poetry, said that more than two thirds of the Union were poets, Musrepov, on the next day, insisted that since the 1939 congress prose had become the leading medium of expression in Kazakh literature. The greatest Kazakh novel was clearly Auezov's Abai; but the first was Mukanov's Botagoz, which, corresponding so closely to the demands of socialist realism, had had a great effect on all subsequent writing, though his later works gave an unfortunate impression of crude, stilted naturalism. (He did not mention in this connection Syr-Darya.) Mustafin's novels had done much to turn younger writers to contemporary themes.

The common feature of most of the speeches in the debate was complaint of the Union administration, stronger here than in any other republic. For example, B. Taikumanov said that Zharokov had made a visit of only a week to Temir-Tau, at the end of which he wrote a poem Steel, brought to birth in the steppe, which not unnaturally failed to please the public.

The next day was a Sunday, and was devoted to the memory of Abai. In the morning the foundation-stone of a monument to him was laid in front of the railway station, and in the evening there was a meeting in the Opera House to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of his death. The main theme of this, stressed by Russian speakers, by Auezov and by the Tadzhik Tursun-Zade, was that Abai's main service had been to bring Kazakhs to the appreciation of Russian literature and to friendship with the Russian nation; Tursun-Zade even finished his speech with the cry, loudly applauded by his hearers, and, he claimed, echoed by Abai himself, of "Slava Rossii!" - "Hurrah for Russia!"

Tazhibayev resumed the debate on the following day with a defence of his universally condemned Dubai Shubayevich. He agreed with the condemnation, but not with the reasons given for it. He referred to

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Gogol, Belinskii and Dobrolyubov to show that it was not necessary to have "positive" characters to provide a contrast with the characters satirized. It was only necessary to communicate to the audience a feeling of impatience with the "negative" characters, and this, he admitted, he had not done. It might be observed that the public had displayed just such an impatience by complaining of the absence of "positive" characters. Tazhibayev finished with the complaint that Union leaders gave unthinking and unrestrained praise to compositions that public opinion later forced them to reconsider - this is in fact what had happened in the case of Dubai Shubayevich. Abishev, however, when he spoke, made no defence of his work, merely acknowledging the truth of Auezov and Musrepov's criticisms.

Kuznetsov, a translator of Dzhambul and a guest at the congress from Moscow, deplored the fact that Kazakh scholars were still using the pre-war articles on Dzhambul by Musrepov and others, which falsely asserted that his source-material was the work of the bais' court-poets. Among other speakers, K. Shangitbayev said that much Kazakh poetry, especially that of Yergaliyev and Ormanov, was so complicated that it had come to be almost "formalistic conjuring": Mukanov's report had been too complacent; Kazakh poets were still too immersed in the bad traditions of the past.

The debate was brought to a close by the all-Union secretary, N. Gribachev. He said that the main task before the writers of Kazakhstan was the introduction of "conflict" into their work, though they must avoid mere "antagonism". A good example, he said, was Musrepov's novel A Land Awakened, where the "conflict" was not only the clash of two individuals, but of two different stages in the growth of capital. This problem must be resolved before the second all-Union Congress in December.

Despite the sharp criticism of their work, the new committee elected at the end of the congress included Mustafin as president, Akhtanov as secretary, Auezov, Yergaliyev, Zharokov, Mukanov, Musrepov, Snegin, and, as Uighur representative, Khasanov. The summary of Literaturnaya Gazeta, while remarking that the criticism had been fierce, gives a very polished account of the proceedings. Sholokhov's speech at the congress is given in detail; he defended the leading figures from each other and from external criticism; none of which Kazakhstanskaya Pravda reproduces. The criticism of literary journals, however, is given quite fully, and we learn that Kazakhstanskaya Pravda itself came under fire. Another criticism not reported in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda is that very few of the Russian section of the Union have taken the trouble to learn Kazakh, despite the fact that they undertake translations from it.

The Kirgiz congress - only the second to be held - lasted from the 13th to 16th September. The first congress was held as long ago as 1934. Pre-congress articles disclose that Kirgiz literature is at a much more backward stage than that of the other Central Asian republics. The dependence of native writing on the methods of oral poetry and the style appropriate to declamation is stressed. Russian authors in translation seem to enjoy a wider circulation. Criticism is not in the latest vein; the only mention of "conflict" occurred in the report of the president, Saliyev. There were sub-reports on children's literature and translations.

The debate that followed these had a very perfunctory character. Most of the speakers were delegates from other republics of the Union, delivering a "fiery welcome" on behalf of the writers of their countries. The Moscow delegation was, with the exception of Sholokhov, the same as that at the Kazakh congress.

The greatest of the older generation of Kirgiz writers is Aaly Tokombayev. He relies on folklore for much of his technique, and on the traditional body of Kirgiz epic poetry, Manas. He was the first Kirgiz writer to be published - in 1924 in the first Kirgiz newspaper Erkin Too. Of his work Gribachev said that it was permissible for him to use the traditional forms at the present stage of Kirgiz literary development, where it would, in other cultures, be inadmissible. None the less, Tokombayev himself urged the abandonment of images no longer pertinent to the Kirgiz way of life, and with them of the excessively rhetorical style of tradition. On this score he sharply criticized the poetry of Temirkul Umetaliyev, Abdrasul Toktomushev, Malikov, Shimeyev and several others; all of these, it appears, are known as much for their translations from Russian as for their original works. All Kirgiz writers seem to do much of their work for children.

One of the few writers of novels is Tugelbai Sydykbekov, who has written Temir, Men of our Time and Children of the Mountains, all translated into Russian. Gribachev called the last of these the only noteworthy prose composition in recent years, and an attack on it by a fellow novelist, Baitemirov, was repudiated by succeeding speakers. Sydykbekov himself, who spoke in the place of honour on the last day of the congress, followed only by the Party secretary and by the improvised declamation of an akyn, stressed the need for the abandoning of folk-tale traditions, which could not portray present reality. In this connection he confirmed the condemnation uttered by many speakers of the playwright Kasymaly Dzhantoshev, author of Kurmanbek, In One House, and of the novels Karybek and Eli Zhash. Kurmanbek, his first play, said Sydykbekov, was a success, but none of his later plays had

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been; Karybek, a novel based on folk material, distorted history. Nevertheless, Dzhantoshev was elected deputy president on the Union Committee at the end of the congress, and to the delegation to the all-Union Congress; Saliyev was again president, and Malikov secretary.

Previous writers' congresses in Central Asia have marked definite stages in the development of the literature of the various republics. The first such congress was in each case held to mark the birth of a new literature, called into being by the beginnings of wide-spread literacy. The second congress, where one was held, marked the end of the first stage; the end of the period of infancy, from which the young literature should have emerged able to take the stress of criticism and able to develop, not merely as a literature, but as a Soviet literature. Further growth was hindered by the war, or, if not hindered, at least left without the intense direction that it would normally have received. The third congress, however, was held purely as a preliminary to the all-Union Congress last December, and, it seems, did not occur at a time when a new stage was on the point of beginning. There were, except in Uzbekistan, no sweeping changes of leadership, although during the congresses the old leadership had been duly subjected to searching examination. Though changes in the management of literary journals might well have been made - Makeyev, the editor, has filled the last six issues of Soviet Kazakhstan with instalments of an as yet unfinished novel by himself - they have not been reported.

It is remarkable that the Central Asian congresses contained little or no mention of the controversies associated with Pomerantsev and Novy Mir. It is obvious that the frequent complaints that Central Asian writers have little appreciation of the finer points of Soviet literary criticisms are fully justified. Their speeches at the all-Union Congress in December were non-committal and irrelevant. Another striking difference between the atmosphere of the Moscow congress and these congresses was that while in Moscow the reaction of the reading public was a real and deciding element in the discussion of past and future trends in literature, in Central Asia there seemed to be no such public. The "readers' letters" in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda before the Kazakh congress were exceptional; and they can scarcely be adduced as evidence for the existence of an interested public, carefully selected as they were.

The overwhelming impression gained from these congresses is that Central Asian literature is not merely backward, but provincial. It has not only to observe the ceremonial of deferring to Marxist principles - and this it does without real understanding - but also to defer to Russia and to Russian literature.

It is, perhaps, inevitable that the writers of Central Asia should turn from poetry to prose, and in writing prose look outside their own traditions for models. Yet it seems that, so far, they have been conservative not only in the matter of language, but also in matters of plot and outline. Of this conservatism examples have already been given; more are to be found in the article on the stage in this issue. As Soviet comment remarks, Central Asian writers cannot but think in terms of the picaresque development, which not merely Soviet and Marxist writing, but all Western literatures have in time abandoned in favour of frameworks more integrated, unified, and so - at any rate to the sophisticated reader - more satisfying.

Sources

1. Literaturnaya Gazeta.
2. Central Asian press.

C U L T U R A L A F F A I R S

I S L A M I C S T U D I E S I N R U S S I A

PART III

The following is the concluding part of the analysis of Ocherki Izucheniya Islama v SSSR by N.A. Smirnov, the first and second parts of which appeared in the last two issues of this Review. As before, the 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 those either of the author or of the writers and others whom he quotes. Owing to lack of space the bibliography cannot be included in the present number, but this will shortly be issued in a separate publication together with the three parts of the analysis.

Chapter IV, continued

Islamic Studies 1918 - 1934

The work of Bartold and Krachkovskii

V.V. Bartold, head of the College of Orientalists until his death in 1930, was an Islamic scholar of exceptional authority. His unparalleled knowledge of the sources and his constant attempts to find new principles of interpretation differing from those traditional in European studies, make consultation of his works, with due allowance for his idealist outlook, indispensable for the Soviet research worker.

His article "The Koran and the Sea" (1925) argues that references to sea travel in the Koran cannot be borrowings from Jewish sources, as the Jews of Arabia did not live by the sea, but must relate to the Persian Gulf or the Euphrates - bahr, farat, and darya all meaning "large river" as well as "sea". The necessity for calling on Allah during a sea journey, referred to in the Koran, implies that sea travel was in the hands of the monotheist Abyssinians; Muhammad's idea of Allah owes more to Christian than to Jewish conceptions of God.

Museilima (1924) contains much material for the study of the spread of Islam in Arabia and of the opposition to Muhammad. Bartold believes that Museilima, like another prophet, Aswad of the Yemen, thought himself to be an incarnation of the deity. The pagan traditions disintegrated after the murder of Chosroes II in 628, and the rival prophets who then appeared were forced either to try to come to terms with Muhammad or, in the end, were destroyed by him.

Bartold's outstanding contribution to Islamic studies was his recognition that religions issue from the whole cultural, political, and economic situation that determines the life of a particular society; they are not, as bourgeois writers assume, creations *ex nihilo* which then have to be accommodated to the conditions of real life. This was pointed out by I. Yu. Krachkovskii in his address to the Academy of Sciences in 1930, "V.V. Bartold and the History of Islamic Studies," published by the Academy in 1934. Krachkovskii's study is not made from a Marxist standpoint, but is a useful appendix to the article on Bartold in the second edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia.

The Academy of Sciences also published I. Yu. Krachkovskii's work on the book by the famous blind Egyptian scholar and statesman, Taha Husain, on pre-Islamic poetry - Taha Husain on the pre-Islamic poetry of the Arabs and his criticism (1931). He ascribes Taha Husain's rejection of the authenticity of all "pre-Islamic" Arab poetry, and his opposition to fundamentalism in connection with the Koran, to the influence of unstable bourgeois scholarship. Krachkovskii notes that while Taha Husain's followers, particularly the contributors to The Dawn of Islam, are less rigid than he in stating their views, they maintain his position without any diminution and are a force to be reckoned with in other fields than scholarship.

Krachkovskii has also written "A Russian translation of the Koran in a manuscript of the XVIIIth century". (Articles presented to A.S. Orlov, 1934.)

The sects

V.A. Gordlevskii has been a particularly prolific writer on Muslim sects. He spent the year 1929 in Bukhara gathering material for his monograph "Baha-ud-din Nakshbend of Bukhara" (Articles presented to S.F. Oldenburg, 1934.) The name of Baha-ud-din is invoked there as divine, and the author witnessed a secret zikr lasting four hours in the zikrkhaneh where Baha-ud-din is buried, in which over fifty men took part. Gordlevskii believes that the sect wished to make the sangimurad stone, an object of pre-Islamic cults, a Central Asian Kaaba. The emirs

of Bukhara were respected as defenders of the cult, and in return made pilgrimage to the shrine. Even Timur always showed reverence to Baha-uddin; the Nakshbendis have always supported the Sunna with great zeal. They were active propagators of Islam in Western Siberia, even reaching the Volga; they were especially strong in the Caucasus under the name of "Murids". Gordlevskii believes that Muridism originated from Bukhara, and that even Shamil had a link with the doctrine of the Bukharan Nakshbendis in the person of Khas-Muhammad.

It is impossible to regard this analysis as correct, since it is established that Muridism received at any rate its political doctrines from Turkey and Turkish agents, for which the Nakshbendi teaching served as a useful cover. Gordlevskii himself remarks that the Nakshbendi had considerable importance in Turkey from the time of Mehmet II up to the nineteenth century and were implicated in the risings of 1925 and 1930. His conclusion is that a "liberal" threat to a Muslim community is always met by the opposition of a "mystical, contemplative" movement of the type of the Nakshbendi; but this is an insufficient statement - the Nakshbendi have always been a force of the blackest reaction in the hands of the ruling classes.

Among the numerous studies of the Sufi sheikhs and poets made by Ye. E. Bertels, "Nur-al-ulum: the biography of Sheikh Abu-l-Hasan Harakani" (Iran III, 1929) contains the Persian text and a translation of the poem Nur-al-ulum (Light of Knowledge) with an introduction, in which Bertels concludes that the manuscript (written 1299) is an abridgement of the original. He also gives reasons for the belief that the division of Sufism into two periods made by Nicholson and Browne cannot be maintained.

In the period under examination A.A. Semenov was particularly active in the field of Ismailism. (He remarks that their present head, the Aga Khan is an agent of Britain.) The study of this sect, dispersed as it is among the peoples of Central Asia, Sinkiang, India, and Afghanistan, is extremely complicated, and Semenov's work on it is one of the greater triumphs of Russian Islamic scholarship. Semenov is a member of the Tadzhik Academy of Sciences.

K.S. Kashtaleva, who died in 1939, was a protegee of Krachkovskii. She developed a new, "terminological" approach to the sources which was particularly appropriate to her subjects. Among her works are The terminology of the Koran in a new light (1928), The term "Hanif" in the Koran (1928), The question of the chronology of the 1st, 24th, and 47th suras of the Koran (1927), and Pushkin's "Imitations of the Koran" (1930).

Smirnov devotes some space to an analysis of this last work. In it Kashtaleva concludes that it was the personality of the author that attracted Pushkin to the Koran. While admitting the validity of her examination of Pushkin's attitude, Smirnov finds fault with her acceptance of the view that Muhammad wrote the Koran, which is, he points out, the view of Muslim tradition, and does not accord with our knowledge of the origin of Islam. The Koran is the result of "collective creative activity".

Social and economic problems

Studies of contemporary Islam aim at showing how, in a world where the October Revolution has evoked a universal movement towards nationhood and freedom, Islam is a tool of the ruling classes and of colonial imperialism. This was the theme of many articles and popular works between 1925 and 1934. M. Zoyeva's Imperialism and religion in the colonies (1930) showed the connections between British imperialism and the clergy of Afghanistan, and the opposition of Britain's Zionist policy to the "national-liberation" movement of the Arab countries. A. Kamov's The Muslims in India (1931) shows the counter-revolutionary role played by Islam in the Indian nationalist movement. The author notes the opposition of the Indian supporters of the caliphate to British policy in the Turkish question; but fails to bring out the British part in the policy of the Indian supporters of the Caliphate, directed against Ibn-Saud (sic). The Muslims get a Caliph was published by L. Klimovich in the context of the pan-Muslim congress held in Jerusalem in December 1931. This is a comment on the imperialist inspiration of the congress and of the attempt to elect a new caliph. Klimovich points out that every power that has had dealings with Islam has attempted to gain control of the caliphate, from the Mongol khans to the Ottoman sultans. Its liquidation was a historical inevitability; but it is to be noted that Turkey has retained forms of religious organization conforming to its bourgeois-republican structure.

S. Turkhanov's article "The ecclesiastical policy of contemporary Turkey" (Militant Atheism, 1931) stresses this last theme. The Turkish bourgeoisie needs a strong and purified religion to assist it in its task of repressing the proletariat.

It is noteworthy that Islam has regained much of its former strength in Turkey, now that pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism are a part of the foreign policy of the Turks and their American overlords. Klimovich also mentions the activity of Behai organizations in certain Turkish cities.

Summary: 1918 - 1934

The advent of the October Revolution brought not only a change in the social structure, but a complete change of outlook in scholarship, which it was hardly possible to assimilate immediately. Even the younger generation of scholars, who had learnt their methods under the Soviet regime, were affected by the old traditions, which died hard. Nevertheless, although their works display deficiencies in method in both the study of Islam and in general anti-religious propoganda, they are written from a standpoint completely different from that of bourgeois scholarship. What inspired their composition was a desire to liberate the masses from the toils of superstition and clericalism - and this was a completely new ideal.

Chapter V

Islamic Studies 1935 - 1950

1935 - 1939

This period is notable for the great number of publications of a scientific description but designed to have a popular appeal. Among these are Klimovich's Islam in Tsarist Russia, 1936; Islam, 1937; Away with the Parandzha (The Veil), 1940; and Feasts and Fasts of Islam, 1941. Islam in Tsarist Russia is a series of essays exposing the class role of Islam from the eleventh century to the First World War. It contains an extensive bibliography. The scope of his subject has prevented the author from making an equally clear analysis of all its aspects, and he cannot be blamed for this; but it is a weakness that the Central Asian and Volga Tatar material is so much better presented than the Caucasian, and that the ties of pan-Islamism with the feudal and clerical circles of Turkey are not clearly exposed. Two of the other works mentioned are pamphlets; Feasts and Fasts of Islam is a book compiled from material already published, with some new data and a list of sources.

G.A. Ibragimov's pamphlet Islam, its origin and class nature (1940), directed at the ordinary reader, uses obsolete material and hypotheses.

Among serious academic studies, the article "Islam" in the first edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia, written by Ye. A. Belyayev, L.I. Klimovich and N.A. Smirnov, was the first Soviet attempt at a full history of Islam from its beginning to the present day, and is still in the main to be regarded as accurate. Islam is there represented as the ideology of the feudal system in the time of the territorial expansion of

the Arab caliphs.

In 1938 the State Antireligious Publishing House issued five articles by the Hungarian bourgeois scholar I. Goldziher, who died in 1921, under the title of The Cult of Saints in Islam (Muslim Sketches). They had already appeared in part in Russian in a translation by A. Krymskii. The collection included an article by Klimovich, "The Cult of Saints in Islam and Ignatius Goldziher's research on it". The factual material in these articles is valuable, if unfamiliar, despite the author's idealist philosophy. Klimovich's comments begin by noting the inconsistency of Muslim theology in allowing the cult of saints side by side with a supposedly strict monotheism. He quotes V.R. Rozen's commendation of the work of Goldziher on the Sunna, but blames him for his attempt to separate the Islam of theology from the Islam of popular religion. It is, of course, impossible to speak of any religion as "popular". The elements of hagiolatry are native to Islam, and not foreign to it; Klimovich shows that they were used by the feudal powers to perpetuate their influence as semi-deities. He adduces as an example the Central Asian "saints", Hajji Ahmad Yasabi, Hajji Ahrar, and Baha-ud-din Nakshbend. His conclusion is that Goldziher's work is useful, if approached in a duly critical spirit.

In 1939 the USSR Academy of Sciences published M.S. Ivanov's book, The Babi Risings in Iran (1848-1852). The book contains three supplements, one of which is a translation from the Persian of the book of Mirza Jani, which gives the contents of the most important pronouncements of the Babis in Bedasht. Ivanov considers that the task of bringing the suppressed desires of the oppressed classes to the light in nineteenth-century Iran fell to the lot of the followers of Sayyid Ali Muhammad, or the Bab. His book contains a short account of the Bab's doctrine; Ivanov thinks that it was in many points a mere repetition of the teaching of the Sheikhs, but that on the whole it did reflect the interests of the peasantry and petty bourgeoisie. "Announcing the abolition of the Koran and of the shariat, the setting-up of the holy kingdom of the Babis, the expulsion of foreigners, the confiscation and sharing of their property and the property of the oppressors, the Bab reflected the peasants' dream of a world where everyone would be equal and foreign capital would not destroy their crafts and domestic industries." This thesis Ivanov supports with a reference to Engels' masterly analysis of the German Peasants' War of the sixteenth century.

But Ivanov notes that the Bab was a merchant, and that the merchants found a more exact representation of their interests in his programme than the peasantry. The confiscated property was to be

shared not equally, but according to merit; and such inequalities are to be found in many chapters of the Beyan (The Holy Book of the Babis). This Ivanov does not bring out sufficiently; there cannot have been the mass support for Babism that he supposes when the idea of equality was so insecurely rooted in it. He does admit that the Bedasht programme of equality, the abolition of taxes and tributes, and the confiscation of property was not accepted by all the Babis there, and from his further analysis of the Babi risings it is clear that Babism was primarily a movement of the town-dwellers; the peasants only took part in the rising at Niriz - of which he speaks very little. None the less, the book provides material for the study of Shiism and its leaders and their conflict with the Babi rising.

Two articles by Bartold, published in Istorik-Marksist, Nos. 5-6, 1939, under the title "Two unpublished articles by V.V. Bartold on early Islam" contain an attempt to give a method for the study of the origin of Islam and the life of Muhammad, and an argument that Islam's evolution involved the gradual limitation of the rights of women.

The influence of M.N. Pokrovskii: Muridism in the Caucasus

The Party resolutions of 1946 (the Zhdanov decrees on literature) exposed many harmful trends in the interpretation of national movements, in particular those of Shamil and Kenesary Kasimov, formerly considered to be progressive and popular. This view, the result of the un-Marxist doctrine of the school of M.N. Pokrovskii, had been upheld by many authors, notably S.K. Bushuyev in The Highlanders Struggle for Freedom under the Leadership of Shamil (Moscow, 1939), R.M. Magomedov (same title, Makhach-Kala, 1939), G. Guseinov in The History of Social and Philosophical Thought in 19th-Century Azerbaidzhan (Baku, 1949), and also by N.I. Pokrovskii in his article "Muridism" (Academic Theses of the Historical Faculty of the State Teacher-Training Institute of Rostov-on-Don, Vol.I, 1941), which was a chapter from his doctor's thesis The conquest of the North-East Caucasus and the highlanders' struggle for independence. N.I. Pokrovskii had already propounded his ideas in an article "Muridism in power" (Istorik-Marksist, No.2, 1934), where, however, he had been more concerned with political importance of the movement than the religious. In his thesis he tries to show that the movement could not have been initiated by the mullas; the religious overtones were merely the inevitable accompaniment of any movement in the Muslim Caucasus. Islam, before the nineteenth century, had not established itself firmly in the Caucasus; the shariat was less useful to the "feudals" than the existing system of law, the adat. So the spread of Islam was identified with the class movement.

But the author does not try to show that the shariat was in fact more acceptable to the people than the adat; he admits that the war against the Russians was the wish of the leaders of Muridism and not the mass of the people. He says that there is not sufficient data to determine the opposition of the Murids to the alliance with Iran, although he realizes that the Persians were Shiites and that the alliance was engineered by the ruling classes. On the other hand, while admitting that in the Dzhars rising of 1826 the beks had Iran as their base he says that it would be incorrect to ascribe the whole of the Murid rising to Iranian agitation. Finally, he has not shown the ties of Muridism with Turkey, which were a threat not only to Russia, but to the mountain peoples as well.

The correct view of the movement of Shamil and Muridism was given by the Stalin Prize Committee in their verdict on the work of G. Guseinov mentioned above. It was a reactionary nationalist movement inspired by British capitalists and the Sultan of Turkey. This view has been propounded in subsequent works on Muridism, which have remarked that the most progressive national leaders of the peoples of the Caucasus have always looked for help from Russia, despite the cruelty and oppression practised by the Tsarist Russian colonists. Islam, Shamil and Muridism were all attacked by such contemporaries of Shamil as the Armenian M. Nalbandyan and the Azerbaidzhani Mirza Fatali Akhundov. A. Daniyalov's article "Corruptions in the interpretation of Muridism and the movement of Shamil" (Voprosy Istorii, No.9, 1950) describes how the peoples of Dagestan always took the part of Russia, which had delivered them from the ravishers of the East (England and Turkey). Shamil, however, was in communication with the Turkish forces. Documents in the Soviet archives prove that the seeds of Muridism were sown in Dagestan by Sheikh Khalid and Hajji-Isma'il, Turkish agents. The activity of the Muslim clergy was directed against the ruling classes only in so far as some members of them were Russian sympathizers. The imposition of the shariat on Dagestan by Shamil was an intolerable burden that retarded its development. Daniyalov concludes his article with a criticism of the work of Magomedov already mentioned. Magomedov uses local material with a strong nationalist bias.

The publication by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR of a new translation of the chronicle of Muhammad Tahir (Institute of Oriental Studies, 1941), first translated under the title "Three Imams" (Collected Material for the description of Localities and Tribes of the Caucasus, No.45, Makhach-Kala, 1926), could be the starting-point for new studies on the subject of Muridism. The translator, A.M. Barabanov, in his introduction, says that the first translation gave Shamil the air of a fanatical fatalist, in contradiction to his true character, and had

an unfortunate influence on many works on the subject, notably Bushuyev's. Tahir, who was Shamil's secretary and took down much of what he said verbatim, wrote The Flash of Dagestan Sabres in some of Shamil's Battles between 1851 and 1856; he died in 1882. The manuscript was added to by his son Habibullah, who said that Tahir had taken the stories from Shamil's dictation and translated them into Arabic; the additions go up to Shamil's death in Medina in 1871.

Turkish use of Islam for political ends is the subject of N. Smirnov's "Sheikh Mansur and his Turkish abettors" (Voprosy Istorii, No.10, 1950). He gives an account of Mansur's attempt to win the favour of the people of the North Caucasus and of his final resorting to the support of the Turks. A fuller account of Sheikh Mansur by the same author is to be found in "Turkish agents under the flag of Islam" (Problems in the History of Religion and Atheism, Academy of Sciences, Institute of History, Moscow, 1950).

Central Asian Islamic studies

"Mektebs" and "Medreses" among the Kazaks (Kazakh SSR Academy of Sciences, 1950), by Nigmat Sabitov, is a review of the education given by Muslim schools in Central Asia and among the Volga Tatars. He shows that they were completely cut off from the world, were forcing-houses of pan-Islamism, and served the interests of American and British imperialism. Sabitov had already shown that pan-Islamism was now inextricably wedded to pan-Turkism, pan-Arabism and pan-Iranism ("Against the reactionary ideology of pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism" Izvestiya Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR, No.5, 1949); but this is not here made quite clear. He stresses the uselessness of most of the knowledge gained in these institutions, and the fact that they were not open to the poorer classes. Teaching was given in Arabic, Tatar or Persian; the vernacular was not taught. The reforms of "dzhadidism" - the "new method" - only introduced a few very limited subjects, strongly biased in favour of pan-Turkism. The only real education was provided by the few Russian schools.

Material on the Archaeology and Ethnography of Uzbekistan (II, 1950, Uzbek Academy of Sciences, Institute of History and Archaeology) contained an interesting article by O.A. Sukhareva, "The Problem of the Cult of Muslim Saints in Central Asia". Working on the theory of S.P. Tolstov on the origins of Islam (CAR Vol.III, No.1, p.87), she shows that syncretism was a marked feature of Central Asian Islam. The people of Uzbekistan disregarded the dogmatic stringency of orthodox Islam and many features of its moral law - for instance, in the matter of marriage. She does not pay due attention to the class structure which prompted these tendencies; nor does she remark that Islam, despite them, did not

become a religion of the people.

Recent publications

A.M. Dyakov's monograph, The National Question and British Imperialism in India (1948), a work of very faulty construction, contains chapters showing how, by the Morley-Minto reforms, the 1935 Constitution, and finally by the creation of two states, the division between Muslims and Hindus was fostered; and it contains an examination in detail of the role of the Muslim League.

S.R. Smirnov, in "The Mahdi Rising in the Sudan", (N.N. Miklukho-Maklai Institute of Ethnography, USSR Academy of Sciences, New Series, 1950) gave the first Soviet analysis on Marxist lines of the Mahdi's rising. He shows the contradictions between the nationalist character of the movement and the reactionary religious aims of the Mahdi himself. However, he does not treat the movement entirely from the class point of view, and so overestimates its popular character.

I. Yu. Krachkovskii's work, Outlines of the History of Russian Arabic Scholarship, was published by the USSR Academy of Sciences in 1950. It has been of great help to the author of the present work.

Among the latest products of Soviet scholarship, E.A. Belyayev's article "The Arab Caliphate" (Source-book of Medieval History, 1, 1951, p.115), and N.V. Pigulevskaya's books Byzantium and Iran at the turn of the VIth century (Moscow, 1946) which contains a translation of an anonymous Syrian manuscript of 1234 on the life of Muhammad, and Byzantium on the road to India (1951) are particularly valuable.

. . .

The book concludes:

"J.V. Stalin's last work, Economic Problems of Socialism in the USSR, has put a new weapon into the hands of Soviet historians.

"The decisions of the XIXth congress of the Communist Party equip Soviet historical science with new principles of theory and open before it new prospects of development.

"They set forth concrete problems for historical investigation, mobilize historians for relentless struggle against all ideological perversions and mistakes of popularization in interpreting individual

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historical events, against bourgeois nationalism and other survivals of bourgeois ideology.

"At the present time, when Soviet historians have before them the task of initiating fundamental Marxist investigations into the history of Soviet society, into the history of the struggle of the Soviet people under the leadership of the Communist Party to build socialism and gradually to go over to Communism, Soviet historians must similarly prepare works on the history of the lands of the Orient abroad, where religious views and institutions occupy a notable place in the super-structural system.

"The task confronting Soviet investigators of Islam is, without weakening scientific research work in the sphere of the study of the origin and early forms of Islam, to pay more attention to the bringing into being of a literature answering to the demands of science and disclosing the social role played by Islam at various epochs of history, at the same time providing concrete examples. In particular, much more attention must be paid to unmasking the contemporary role of Islam as a support for the exploiter classes and colonial regime, to disclosing the reactionary, anti-popular essence of the ideology of pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism, used primarily by the American imperialists to enslave the peoples of the East.

"Finally, our literature on Islamic questions must instruct Soviet people, especially the inhabitants of those republics and oblasts where this religion still is to be found; it must arm our propagandists with knowledge to assist their struggle with religious survivals in men's consciousness, with the relics of religious traditions, rites and concepts; it must educate the workers in the spirit of Soviet patriotism and of the friendship of nations."

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

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

A S E L E C T E D L I S T

The following is a selected bibliography of source material on Central Asia in Soviet publications appearing between September 1954 and March 1955. The list does not claim to be comprehensive and only includes material not used in the body of the Review. The bibliography is divided into sections on agriculture, archaeology, communications, cultural affairs, ethnography, geology, geography and history, industry, linguistics, literature, and public works.

Agriculture

- Buryagin, M.O. Zernosovkhoz "Rodnikovskii". Sovkhoznoye Proizvodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.79-81. 1,000 words. (An article giving an account of the conditions in the newly organized grain sovkhos in the Oskarov raion, Karaganda oblast. This sovkhos may be taken as typical of the State farms established during the past year on the new lands.)
- Elemanov, A. Perspektivy razvitiya tonkorunnogo i polutonkorunnogo ovtsevodstva v Kazakhstane. Sotsialisticheskoye Selskoye Khozyaistvo, 1954. No.12, p.47-55. 3,500 words. (The author discusses the possibilities of increased breeding of fine and semi-fine fleeced sheep in Kazakhstan.)
- Fedorovich, B.A. Osvoyeniye tseliny. Nauka i Zhizn, 1955. No.1, p.21-23. 2,000 words. (A survey of the topography and resources of the Kokchetav, Akmolinsk and Pavlodar oblasts. The article is written in travelogue style and is illustrated.)
- Frantseson, V.A. Nekotorye voprosy osvoyeniya tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel v chernozemnykh raionakh severnogo Kazakhstana. Zemledeliye, 1954. No.11, p.12-25. 5,000 words. (The author discusses different aspects of the cultivation of

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black earth regions in northern Kazakhstan with special reference to the growing of spring wheat. Examples are taken from the Voroshilov kolkhoz, Karabulak raion, Kustanai oblast.)

- Golubev, G. Novaya rodina khlopka. Vokrug Sveta, 1955. No.1, p.18-23. 3,000 words.
(A comparison of the varieties of cotton and methods of cultivation in the Soviet Union and other countries. Although written with a propagandist slant it none the less provides some factual information about the geographic distribution of cotton in the USSR. The article is illustrated.)
- Grekulov, L. Osvoyeniye tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel: odin iz vazhneishikh istochnikov uvelicheniya proizvodstva zerna. Sotsialisticheskoye Selskoye Khozyaistvo, 1955. No.1, p.12-20. 4,000 words.
(An informative article on the achievements to date in, and the means of further development of, Siberia, Altai, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, as well as the derelict and marshy areas of Byelorussia, Ukraine and the Baltic States.)
- Istomin, M. Nekotorye voprosy osvoyeniya novykh zemel v Surkhan-Darye. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.42-44. 1,200 words.
(An informative factual article on the cultivation of cotton in the new lands of the Surkhan-Darya district of Uzbekistan.)
- Karpushenko, A. Osvoyeniye tseliny i podzem blagosostoyaniya kolkhoznikov: iz opyta kolkhozov Kaganovichskogo raiona, Pavlodarskoi oblasti. Kolkhoznoye Proizvodstvo, 1954. No.12, 1,500 words.
(An account of the grain harvest and workers' earnings in 1954 in the kolkhozes of the Kaganovich raion, Pavlodar oblast. Plans and prospects for 1955 are also discussed.)
- Khitenkov, G.G. Akhal-Tekinskaya poroda. Konevodstvo, 1954. No.12, p.26-27. 1,200 words.
(A description of the breeds of horses - Iomud, Karabair and Lokal - shown at the all-Union agricultural exhibition in Moscow.)
- Kirnos, G.V. & Chuchko, N.I. Itogi dvukhletnego izucheniya sistemy obrabotki pochvy po metodam T.S. Maltseva. Zemledeliye, 1954. No.12, p.8-10. 2,000 words.
(A description of the six-field crop rotation system in North-Kazakhstan.)

- Korshenboi, P.G. 60 tsentnerov risa s hektara. Zemledeliye, 1954. No.11, p.62-65. 1,200 words.
(Harvest yields of rice since 1951 and present methods of rice cultivation in the Stalin kolkhoz, Gurlen raion, Khorezm oblast.)
- Maksimenko, I.K. Listopadnyi khlochatnik. Priroda, 1955. No.2, p.98-100. 1,000 words.
(The author describes a variety of leaf-shedding cotton now being cultivated in Central Asia. The article is illustrated.)
- Matveyev, V. Ob organizatsii kormovoi bazy v raionakh osvoyeniya tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel. Sotsialisticheskoye Selskoye Khozyaistvo, 1955. No.1, p.30-36. 2,800 words.
(An account of the fodder supply in the Pobeda kolkhoz, Oktyabr raion, North-Kazakhstan oblast.)
- Melnikov, N. Aksu-Dzhabagly. Vokrug Sveta, 1954. No.11, p.29-31. 2,000 words.
(An illustrated description of the game forest reserve in the Talass Ala-Tau of Tien Shan.)
- Nazarov, A.T. Zernosovkhoz imeni V.V. Kuibysheva. Sovkhoznoye Proizvodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.76-78. 1,200 words.
(An account of the work and achievements in the Kuibyshev kolkhoz, Kaganovich raion, Pavlodar oblast. The area under wheat is given in hectares.)
- Ovchinnikov, V. Pervye itogi osvoyeniya tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel. Voprosy Ekonomiki, 1954. No.12, p.69-74. 4,500 words.
(Statistics relating to the grain drive in Kazakhstan, the Altai, and Volga region.)
- Povysheniye urozhainosti - glavnyi rezerv uvelicheniya proizvodstva khlopka syrtsa. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.3-7. 2,000 words.
(An editorial setting out the degree of achievement of plans in the various cotton-growing areas of the Soviet Union with particular reference to Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan.)
- Rabochev, I. Melioratsiya zasolennykh pochv v zone Amu-Daryi, Khlopkovodstvo, 1954. No.12, p.47-50. 1,500 words.
(An abridged version of a report delivered to the joint session of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences and the Soyuznikhi experimental station held in Tashkent in September 1953. Includes information on

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various methods of drainage and the phosphorus deposits in the Amu-Darya region.)

Ryzhov, S. Puti povysheniya plodorodiya oroshayemykh zemel Srednei Azii. Khlopkovodstvo, 1954. No.12, p.32-40. 2,200 words. (An extensive study of the fertility of the soils of Central Asia with special reference to the cotton-growing lands. The article includes seven tables showing:

1. The content of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in the irrigated soils of Central Asia.
2. The quantity of microorganisms in the various cultivated soils of Central Asia.
3. The increase of the carbon, nitrogen and phosphoric acid content of the soils under cultivation.
4. The influence of lucerne on the content of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in the soils.
5. Gross harvest of cotton in a nine-field crop rotation system in the years 1941-1953.
6. Gross harvest of cotton in a six-field crop rotation system in the years 1941-1953.
7. A comparison of the gross harvest of cotton during a long period of observation of land permanently under cotton and land sown with cotton in rotation with other crops.

Rzhevskii, G. Blizhaishiye perspektivy kvadratnogo-gnezhdovogo sposoba poseva khlopchatnika v Uzbekistane. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.13-20. 2,500 words. (Concerned with the square-cluster method of planting cotton in Uzbekistan.)

Trutnev, A.G. Obrabotka tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel. Selkhozgiz, 1954. (The book is devoted to the new lands of the non-black earth belt. Their various features and system of cultivation are described in detail.)

Turdyev, K. Peredovye sposoby vozdeleyvaniya khlopchatnika v kolkhoze imeni Malenkova. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.8-12. 3,000 words. (A description of the methods of cultivating cotton in the Malenkov kolkhoz of the Kurgan-Tyube raion, Tadzhikistan.)

Voronin, Yu. & Redkin, V. Nash opyt kvadratnogo-gnezhdovogo sposoba vozdeleyvaniya khlopchatnika. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.2, p.8-12. 2,000 words.

(A description of the square-cluster method of cotton cultivation in the Vakhsh valley.)

- Zaltsman, L.M. Razmeshcheniye i spetsializatsiya zhivotnovodstva. Nauka i Zhizn, 1954. No.11, p.11-13. 2,000 words.
(The author, a professor of agriculture, discusses the further development of cattle breeding in relation to pastures. The present zones of cattle rearing are carefully noted.)

Archaeology

- Sprishevskii, V.I. Chutskaya stoyanka epokhi bronzy. Sovetskaya Etnografiya, 1954. No.3, p.69-76. 2,500 words.
(A detailed description of the excavations carried out in 1953 by a detachment of the Academy of Sciences in conjunction with the Pamir and Fergana expedition in the north-western part of the Namangan oblast. The article is annotated and illustrated.)

Communications

- Obruchev, V.A. Cherez gory i pustyni. Vokrug Sveta, 1955. No.1 p.24-25. 1,000 words.
(The article is concerned with the railway line between China and Alma-Ata, the Lanchzhou - Urunchi - Alma-Ata railway. The author, who covered the proposed route in 1892-1894, here discusses some of the geophysical features of this area.)

Cultural Affairs

- Akhunbayev, I.K. Novyi etap razvitiya nauki v Sovetskoj Kirgizii. Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR, 1955. No.1, p.11-14. 1,500 words.
(An account of the development and achievements of the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences. The names of the President and the academicians are also given.)

Ethnography

- Dyakonov, M.M. Vystupleniye na sessii po istorii narodov Srednei Azii i Kazakhstana v do-oktyabrskii period. Sovetskaya Etnografiya, 1954. No.3, p.124-128. 3,300 words.

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(A lecture delivered in Tashkent in Feb.1954 to the session devoted to the history of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan in the pre-revolutionary period.)

Pisarchik, A.K. & Karmysheva, B.K. Etnograficheskaya rabota v Tadzhikistane v 1952-1953 gg. Sovetskaya Etnografiya, 1954. No.3, p.115-118. 2,200 words.

(A report of the activities of the Ethnographic sector of the Institute of History, Archaeology and Ethnography of the Academy of Sciences in the years 1952-53. The authors briefly describe the work done in the Kulyab and Garm oblasts, the Surkhob river basin and Karategin. A bibliography of articles is given at the end.)

Geology

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(A brief but informative survey of hydrothermal anhydrite in Central Asia.)

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
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S O C I A L C O N D I T I O N S

W A G E S I N C E N T R A L A S I A

Industrial workers - MTS tractor-drivers - Workers on cotton MTS -
Workers on cotton kolkhozes - Workers on other kolkhozes - Methods
of payment - Prices.

Wages in Central Asia are a subject on which comprehensive and precise information is not available in Soviet publications. The following article should not therefore be regarded as an authoritative survey of wages, but rather as a compilation of such information as could be gleaned from the Central Asian daily press. Nearly all the examples quoted appeared during the last six months of 1954 and in the first three months of 1955.

Most of the references to wages in the press appear when industrial and agricultural output is at its highest, such as during the harvest, at the end of the year when kolkhozes have their annual reckoning, or at times when supplementary pay or long service awards are given. They seem partly, if not chiefly, to be designed to act as a stimulus to further efforts or to draw attention to the rise in the standard of living.

The wages of industrial workers feature much less frequently than those of workers on the land. The reason for this would seem to be that there is no need to carry on propaganda for increased output in the press; it can be more effectively pursued in the factories themselves. Some figures are given for the pay of miners in Kazakhstan: a driller earned in a specimen month 4,285 rubles - 2,080 on piece-work and 2,205 in "progressive pay", that is, for norms fulfilled. The average earnings are said to be between 30,000 and 70,000 rubles a year;

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these yearly earnings include premiums and other additions, and it is not safe to deduce monthly earnings from them. One miner with the title of "the best driller in non-ferrous metal working" earned 67,000 rubles in 1953, having worked 68 per cent more than his norm. It is said to be not unusual for miners to earn 4,000 to 6,000 rubles a month. Against this the average monthly wage of miners at mine No.7 at Karaganda has been given as 1,090 rubles in 1953 and 1,170 rubles in 1954 (1). The same source (1) gave the average monthly wage of a member of a "brigade" working on a coal-cutting combine as 3,500 to 5,000 rubles (in 1954). Many miners own Pobeda and Moskvich cars. Miners at Shor-Su in Uzbekistan are said to earn, on an average, 1,500 to 1,800 rubles a month.

A worker at a Kazakh iron foundry with his wife is said to earn over 3,000 rubles a month; it is added that this is usual, especially among "brigade" leaders, many of whom own motor-cycles, and even cars; a shop-foreman and an engineer have bought pianos. Most of the workers have their own libraries - one collects first editions and has in his flat more than 200 books.

Other information for industrial workers is all of supplementary pay. Most organizations pay out large sums annually in this way, but in the absence of figures for the numbers of workers employed the importance of these allocations cannot be estimated. There are, however, certain examples of supplementary pay given to individual workers: at the Tekeli lead and zinc kombinat, two drivers of electric trains received 4,000 rubles each, a "brigade" leader in the pulverizing department of the concentration plant, 5,000, and a mine foreman, 5,500. The Lenin Metal Works at Begovat paid 3,538 to a steel founder, 6,000 to a senior foreman, and 8,600 to the head of a shop. At Andizhanneft three drillers received 4,000 rubles each.

The most highly paid agricultural workers are the tractor-drivers and machine operators of the MTS. The system for their payment is especially complicated. It has often been revised, the latest revision being after the September Party plenum in 1953 (2). Now, according to the type of machine operated, a worker is credited with four to seven "work-days" (trudodni. A trudoden is the unit of labour) per shift. When he is paid by time, he receives from ten to eighteen rubles per shift; this sum is then multiplied by the number of units of labour ("work-days") with which the worker is credited. When, as is always the case if possible, workers are on "piece work" (which is, in fact, a combination of work by piece and by time), they receive 1 ruble 62½ kopeks an hour, or more if the "tariff" rate (the officially appointed piece-rate) is higher, but not less if it is lower. The resulting total for the shift is again multiplied by the number of "work-days" due. Payment in kind is to amount to at least three

kilograms of grain per "work-day" if the plan is achieved, and two if it is not. Workers at the MTS of cotton-growing regions receive half this amount of grain.

This would appear to imply that in a month of twenty-five working days a MTS worker should earn at least 1,000 rubles, at the lowest rate of pay by time, or 3,500 rubles at the highest rate of pay on piece work. In kind he would earn at least 300 kg. of grain, or half that amount on a cotton MTS. From this are deducted fines, in accordance with responsibility, for wasting petrol, for lack of attention to the servicing of machines, or for non-fulfilment of norms - for this last up to 20 per cent of the total earnings; to it are added premiums and supplementary pay for over-fulfilment of norms.

There are some examples from Kazakhstan of MTS workers' pay which agree broadly with the scale outlined above. Mikhail Lazarev is a brigadir from the Makinsk MTS working at Put Lenina kolkhoz (Akmolinsk oblast). Last year he earned 25,000 rubles and 25,000 kg. of wheat. In addition he received considerable quantities of vegetables and dairy produce, which, with most of the wheat, he sold. His son is a tractor-driver; the family budget reached 100,000 rubles. To make this total, income from his own garden produce and cows contributed. He has bought a car, a wireless set, a gramophone, a milk separator, a sewing machine, furniture and carpets. Other "brigade" leaders on the new lands earned 5,000 rubles in June 1954 (a busy month) and tractor-drivers in their brigades, 3,000.

On a new grain sovkhoz at Barvinov in the Kustanai oblast tractor-drivers earned from 2,000 - 2,500 rubles in August 1954; one earned 2,834; another, who, with an S-80 tractor, ploughed 600 hectares of new land, and was in the first wage-class, earned 3,147 rubles. A brigadir earned over 5,000.

The operators of cotton-harvesting machines have a special scale of pay (3). They receive 60 rubles a day on fulfilment of their appointed norm, double pay for cotton harvested beyond the norm. When the norm is not fulfilled, up to twenty per cent of their pay may be withheld at the discretion of the director of the MTS or sovkhoz. The norm varies from 600 kilograms per hectare on the first run and 300 on the second run, where the planned potential of the field is 1,200 kilograms, to 1,700 and 800 where it is over 2,500. There is in addition a "seasonal norm", depending on local conditions, by which the operator must harvest from 40,000 to 60,000 kilograms in the season; from one cotton sovkhoz to another the norm may vary from 40,000 to 55,000 kilograms. On fulfilment of his seasonal norm, if he has kept his machine

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in good condition, a driver receives a premium of half the amount he has earned in the season.

In times other than the harvest season, cotton MTS workers are paid according to the usual combination of time and piece work. On cotton cleaning they are allowed five "work-days" per shift; this pay is subject to a 20 per cent deduction for bad work, or to an increase for over-time at the discretion of the director of the MTS. The pay is the same for spraying the cotton before the harvest to make the leaves fall. For a week before the harvest, when the fields are inspected, the workers are allowed 15 rubles a day. Normally, a brigadir is allowed 1.8 "work-days" per shift, his assistant, 1.5, and the mechanic-rate-fixer, 1.2.

The cotton harvest lasts for two or three months. During that time the basic wage of a machine operator would seem to be something in the region of 1,500 rubles a month, with 750 rubles premium for each month, paid at the end of the season; this would vary up to as much as 2,700 rubles in the case of a brigadir, plus a premium of 1,350 rubles. The harvest period may, of course, vary considerably according to the amount of cotton harvested per day. An example of a day's harvest from the issue of Pravda Vostoka quoted (3) gives 3,300 kilograms, but this is exceptionally high. On the proceeds of the harvest the MTS workers must live for a great part of the year; the guaranteed minimum for the "work-day" is otherwise five rubles in Central Asian cotton MTS.

The cotton kolkhozes generally have a very large income. The Turkmen kolkhoz Bolshevik (Bairam-Ali raion) received a premium alone of 5,000,000 rubles at the end of the harvest. It is well known, however, as a kolkhoz with many members, and the individual share of this may not have been large. In Uzbekistan there are examples of kolkhozes receiving premiums of two, three and four million rubles. However, a specimen budget for Kzyl Uzbekistan kolkhoz (Ordzhonikidze raion) in Uzbekistan gives a total income of about 4,000,000 rubles, but this is for 1947.

The kolkhoz cotton-pickers wages given in the press are, it may be assumed, exceptional; some are clearly so. At a Turkmen kolkhoz (Vtoraya Pyatiletka) the wage for the "work-day" was 18 rubles and 2.5 kilograms of wheat in 1954. The members of one brigade even received 23.75 rubles each. One family received 52,000 rubles, 5,500 kilograms of grain and 1,050 kilograms of sesame in the year; one picker, a woman, earned 10,500 rubles and 2,000 kilograms of wheat. On an Uzbek kolkhoz with an income of 14,000,000 rubles, a family, working 3,500 "work-days", received 62,000 rubles and 8,750 kilograms of grain - that is, about 18 rubles and 2.5 kilograms per "work-day", as on the Turkmen kolkhoz mentioned. On another kolkhoz, also in Uzbekistan, a husband and wife who worked 940 "work-days" were paid

18,000 rubles and 6,000 kilograms of grain - that is, again about 18 rubles per "work-day" and 6 kilograms of grain. The only useful Kirgiz parallel is of a woman who in five days did 75 "work-days". She received 150 kilograms of wheat and 1,050 rubles, suggesting a rate of 18 rubles and 2 kilograms per "work-day".

A fair example of wages on a kolkhoz not specializing in cotton seems to be one from Kazakhstan where the pay for a "work-day" in 1954 was 10 rubles and three kilograms of grain. Most families on this kolkhoz, it was remarked, had a yearly income of 10,000 - 15,000 rubles and from three to four metric tons of grain. Another kolkhoz, also in Kazakhstan, gave out in advance 4 rubles and 2.5 kilograms per "work-day"; the family of a shepherd on this kolkhoz received in the month in question 8,000 rubles and 3,467 kilograms of grain; another, that of a dairyman, 8,197 rubles and 4,040 kilograms. Individual monthly earnings given are 3,000 rubles and 6,000 kilograms of grain; 4,000 and 7,800; 2,700 and 5,000.

A kolkhoz in the East-Kazakhstan oblast, which had sown land previously uncultivated, the grain from which made up 55 per cent of the total harvest, sold 1,280 tons to the State. Its members received three kilograms of wheat per "work-day"; they in turn sold 60,600 kg. to the State from their own allocation. A shepherd and his wife who received 7,000 kilograms of wheat, sold 4,500 of them. The total kolkhoz income was 1,170,000 rubles, 700,000 of this for the crop from the newly-cultivated land. The pay for the "work-day" was six rubles - two in advance. Formerly the payment in kind had been half this year's rate - one and a half kilograms. With the common funds the kolkhoz bought two lorries, several carts and a set of harness - it seems that the kolkhoz is not mechanized. This example seems to be typical of the smaller kolkhozes in Kazakhstan, and gives some conception of the state of the less up-to-date economies.

There is little or no information of such economies in Uzbekistan where most kolkhozes are concerned with cotton-growing, and are more affluent. In 1954 one grain kolkhoz there gave from five to seven kilograms in advance per "work-day". Kirgiz wages are rather smaller. Though there is one kolkhoz which, in 1954, paid 6 kilograms per "work-day", a full wage from another Kirgiz kolkhoz shows 3 rubles, 4 kilograms of wheat, and half a kilogram of potatoes paid out per "work-day" during nine months of 1954. A farm in Tadzhikistan paid out two kilograms of grain per "work-day"; an individual wage of 15,700 rubles for 1954 is given; there is an example of a family receiving a month's income of 3,200 rubles and 3,048 kilograms of grain, and a total family income for 1954 of 25 - 30,000 rubles was quoted as usual in a Tadzhik

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kolkhoz.

Animal husbandry seems to bring slightly higher wages, as a comparison of the shepherd and dairyman's wages given above (in Kazakhstan) will show. A Hero of Socialist Labour wrote to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda to say that he had no complaint about his wages - he received that month an advance of 2,000 rubles and 2,600 kilograms of grain, and in the last year had received 47 lambs in lieu of supplementary payment - but that his living conditions were poor. (He said that there were only four shepherds' houses in the Muyun Kum grazing grounds; they had to live in yurts, and old leaking yurts at that.)

There are, unfortunately, no examples of the wages of workers on dairy farms, though there are many examples of premiums paid in kind; 1,500 litres of milk, four calves and eight piglets; 1,397 litres of milk and a calf; 300 litres of milk and a calf (this last example from Tadzhikistan). Dairymaids and cowmen, however, have a wage scale which gives them opportunities to earn more than the average farm-hand (4). A dairymaid, for every hundred litres of milk yielded, is allowed 2.2-4 "work-days", with an extra 1-2.5 at the end of the month, if all is in order, varying according to experience. She is to have charge of from eight to fourteen cows; this means that, on an average, she will work about forty "work-days" a month. A cowman - in charge of the byre - gets 0.7-1.8 "work-days" for every hundred litres plus 0.2-0.4 "work-days" a month. The rate-fixer is allowed 90 per cent of the average dairymaid's total of "work-days". The value of the "work-day" will, of course, be different in each case.

The workers on all kolkhozes are paid by the method of advances at regular intervals - at least weekly - of sums not more than half the amount earned by them during the relevant period, and in the case of cotton kolkhozes to the value of 60 per cent of the produce in that period. There are similar conditions for advances in kind.

It is a strict rule that kolkhoz advances must bear a real relation-ship to the workers' trudodni. Advances on the director's note-of-hand are forbidden, but nevertheless common. Through this, or through the inaccurate estimation of the income of the kolkhoz, either the kolkhoz as a whole, or its members fall into debt. Kuibyshev kolkhoz at Zarbdar in Uzbekistan paid out advances in 1952 on the assumption that the value of the "work-day" would be 8 rubles. In fact, its value turned out to have been only 2 rubles 60 kopeks. Neither in 1952 nor in 1953 was the plan fulfilled, so that in 1954 only 135 members of the kolkhoz out of 1,312 were not in debt to the collective.

Payment in kind is convenient, not only because it is obviously more

economical to supply the needs of the workers on the spot - though, if possible, MTS workers are not paid directly from the kolkhoz where they happen to be working, but through the Government collection point - but because, after the contributions that must be made to the "indivisible fund" the kolkhoz would not have enough money to pay entirely in rubles. The greater part of this payment in kind the workers sell again, either to the Government collection point, or on the kolkhoz market. It is emphasized in the press that it is by so doing that they are able to afford luxuries - the usual articles mentioned are furniture, carpets, bicycles (on some of the richer farms, motor-cycles) and, the most desired of all, wireless-sets, which can receive stations at the wish of the operator, as opposed to the usual relay sets.

It is not clear whether, from the wages given here, income tax should be deducted; it is in some cases stated that this is the sum delivered to the worker by the cashier. All income over 260 rubles a month is taxable.

Information about prices in Central Asia is very seldom given. For prices in Moscow the reader is referred to the article in Etudes et Conjonctures quoted in the sources. Some indication may be given by the official scale of vegetable prices "for the second zone", and so presumably valid in Tashkent, reproduced in Pravda Vostoka (14th August 1954). Potatoes of the 1954 harvest were to be 45 kopeks a kilogram up to 1st November 1954, 60 up to 1st March 1955, and 80 after that. Cabbage was similarly to be 70 kopeks, 1 ruble, and 1 ruble 40 kopeks. A lemon in 1954 cost from 0.75 to 5 rubles according to size; after 1st January from 1 ruble 25 kopeks to 5 rubles 50 kopeks. These seasonal prices are an innovation; before the price was fixed for the whole year on the basis of the harvest season prices. Coal was advertised in Stalinabad in June 1955 at 152 rubles a ton. An isolated example of the price of manufactured goods is that (from Kirgizia) of a pair of women's shoes of unspecified quality. The customer was in this case over-charged, but it seems that the proper price was about 350 rubles.

It is not, perhaps, surprising that there are many instances of persons supplementing their income with the proceeds of illegal activities. A worker at a Kazakh vodka factory, by a skilful manipulation of the forms he had to fill up as storeman, amassed enough money to buy a Moskvich motor-car; he intends to buy a Pobeda. His monthly wage is 410 rubles; but in nine months of 1954 the factory had to write off more than 40,000 rubles' worth of vodka through breakages. Other examples are not so strikingly connected with low wages. There are frequent instances of shop assistants over-charging their customers; one to the extent of 319,000 rubles.

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It should be borne in mind that nearly all the examples given in this article are of exceptionally high wages. Nevertheless, the variations between one example and another are sufficient to give an indication of the great differences that exist between one type of work and another, and between workers in the same type of work but in different areas. For instance, it seems that the Kirgiz cotton-worker is poorer than his Uzbek counterpart. But it must be emphasized that such conclusions should be treated with great reserve.

Notes

- (1) Article by A. Soikin in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 6.11.54.
- (2) Article by V. Zakladnoi entitled Oplata Truda Traktornykh Brigad in Pravda Vostoka of 22.3.54.
- (3) Article by B. Myasoutov, head of the labour and wages authority of the Uzbek Ministry of Agriculture, entitled Novyi Poryadok Oplaty Truda na Mashinnoi Uborke Khlopka, in Pravda Vostoka of 21.9.54.
- (4) Article by N. Akelseyeva entitled Sdelnaya Oplata i Novaya Sistema Organizatsii Truda na Molochno-Tovarnykh Fermakh in Pravda Vostoka of 26.8.54.

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4. Finansovoye khozyaistvo khlopkovykh kolhozov. V.N. Kotikova and G.V. Chernov. Tashkent, 1950.
5. Etudes et Conjonctures, April 1955.
6. Soviet Encyclopaedia.

S O C I A L C O N D I T I O N S

T H E S E T T L E R S O N T H E N E W L A N D S

Settlers in 1954 - Specialists - Settlers in 1955 - Allowances paid to kolkhoz settlers - The new sovkhoses - The role of the Party - A typical new lands area - Developments in 1955.

The appointment of Ponomarenko as First Secretary of the Kazakh Communist Party in February 1954 marked the beginning of the real efforts to bring the new lands of Kazakhstan under the plough. It was immediately obvious that even with the most earnest strivings to raise the number and qualifications of agricultural workers, Kazakhstan alone could not provide the labour force required. As it was, there were many complaints that the local inhabitants did not approve the ploughing-up of their former grazing grounds, and were slow to obey the new directives. Towards the end of February, therefore, settlers were already arriving in the northern oblasts of Kazakhstan from other parts of the Union. The first of them were Komsomol members from the Ukraine, the Don and the Kuban, from the Tatar republic, and from Moscow. From Kazakhstan itself 5,000 Komsomol members were said to have volunteered for work in the new lands. (See CAR Vol.II, No.3, pp.214-16.)

Groups of settlers left Armenia and Georgia in March, and again in April 1954; the flow of settlers now, it was claimed, issued from all parts of the Union. The majority of them were young and without families, and so went to found new sovkhoses, where they could be most suitably accommodated. But the already existing kolkhozes in the new lands area, although they fulfilled their plan for the spring sowing, were not increasing their area of land under cultivation at the rate expected of them. The kolkhozes therefore began to receive families of settlers in August. Families continued to arrive in Kazakhstan in September and October, coming in the main from the western oblasts of the Ukraine, from Belorussia and Moldavia - areas where, as one of the settlers said, there is considerable congestion and a kolkhoz of 1,000 hectares is considered large. From October onwards soldiers on the point of demobilization have been encouraged, instead of returning to their former work, to go to Kazakhstan, and many have done so in groups from their old units.

Many "specialists" - MTS workers and agronomists - were sent out to

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help with the 1954 harvest. It seems that they were encouraged - though not compelled - to stay, and several sent for their families. During December, building labourers from all parts of the USSR came to Kazakhstan after repeated complaints about the delay in accommodating the new arrivals. Another class of "specialists" which, though not necessarily permanent, have had many new villages and settlements built for them, are the railway construction workers. (See following article.) It seems that it was not until the harvest was already under way that experts were sent out to assess the potentialities of the soil and water of the almost unexamined new lands. The choice of areas for development was presumably made on the basis of earlier surveys; certainly, when the first settlers arrived early in 1954 the land was still covered with the winter snows and such an examination was impossible. The work was begun in the autumn of 1954 by a group of scientists and technical specialists from Moscow and Leningrad sent out by the USSR Academy of Sciences, assisted by members of the Kazakh Academy. In 1954 maps were compiled showing soil and vegetation conditions in the Kokchetav, North-Kazakhstan, Kustanai, Pavlodar and Akmolinsk oblasts, and the difficulties of transport in the Kustanai, Kokchetav and Akmolinsk oblasts were studied. Some, at least, of the results of this work were not published until this year; for example, an expose of the agricultural possibilities of the Akmolinsk oblast appeared in the April number of the Bulletin of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences in 1955. In May 1955 there were still to be completed zoning projects for all the northern oblasts, a hydrological map of the Pavlodar oblast, plans to combat erosion in the Kustanai and Pavlodar oblasts, and agricultural development plans for the Kustanai, Kokchetav and Akmolinsk oblasts; for this last a new expedition is to be sent out from Moscow to the Akmolinsk oblast. Articles have appeared in the Central Asian press assuring readers that the fertility of the land cannot be exhausted; but the frequency with which new expeditions are formed seems to suggest that soil exhaustion and erosion are a constant source of concern to the authorities, and that scientists will go out to northern Kazakhstan for some years to come.

In January 1955 the whole drive was renewed by a fresh appeal to the members of the Komsomol. They had provided the first settlers from the large towns in February 1954; now, after a mass meeting in Moscow, new volunteers from Moscow and Leningrad began to arrive in Kazakhstan. There were more applications for settlement from Armenia, Latvia and Krasnodar. As in February 1954 there were applications from Kazakhstan itself, and in January 1955, there were several mentions of parties of Komsomol members arriving from such places as Alma-Ata and Chimkent. After January fewer instances of Kazakh settlers are to be found - perhaps because the new lands campaign is in 1955-1956 to be carried into the southern oblasts of Kazakhstan, and there is therefore no need

for settlers to make a long and expensive journey. There was an isolated report in April of a party of Turkmens travelling to work in the Taldy-Kurgan oblast; during April there has been more than one instance in the Kirgiz press of parties of Kirgiz travelling to the new lands of the northern oblasts. The Kirgiz settlement authority, in advertisements giving the terms of employment for building labourers on the new lands of the Pavlodar and Kustanai oblasts, offers applicants free travel and conveyance of luggage to the place of work, a travelling allowance of 10 rubles a day, and a lump sum of from 150 to 300 rubles (1).

The allowances made to settlers in kolkhozes were given in an article in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda (20th October 1954) by Barishpol, the head of the settlement authority in the Kazakh Ministry of Agriculture. A family wishing to move to the new lands must contain at least two persons of working age. To receive the allowances granted, they must produce a settler's card issued when they have been accepted by a general meeting of the kolkhoz to which they have been directed by the authority and when they have been approved by the raion executive committee. All settlers in any oblast of Kazakhstan can receive up to 10,000 rubles credit to build a house from the Agricultural Bank. 35 per cent of this is paid by the State; the rest must be paid back by instalments during the ten years after the first two years' occupation of the new house. If the settler buys an existing house, 35 per cent of the price - to be the pertaining market price - is paid by the State; the rest must be paid to the kolkhoz, or other owner of the house, within eight years at intervals agreed upon by the two parties concerned. 3,000 rubles will be lent to the settler for repairs, with ten years to pay after two years of possession. At the end of these periods the house will be the property of the settler.

The settler is allowed 1,500 rubles to buy a cow, to be repaid during three years after two years' ownership of the cow. The kolkhoz must lend him on arrival grain or flour - to be repaid in kind within three years - 150 kgs. for the head of the family and 50 for every other member of it. For two years the settlers do not pay the agricultural tax, or income tax, or make any deliveries of produce to the State of any kind other than milk. Settlers in the oblasts particularly connected with the grain drive - Karaganda, Kustanai, Akmolinsk, Aktyubinsk, Kokchetav, Pavlodar, North- and West-Kazakhstan - have, in addition to all the above allowances, a lump sum given them of 200 rubles for the head of the family and 100 for every other member.

These allowances are made to settlers in kolkhozes; it is conceivable that the last allowance mentioned may be obtained by settlers in sovkhoses as well. This conjecture is supported by the parallel of

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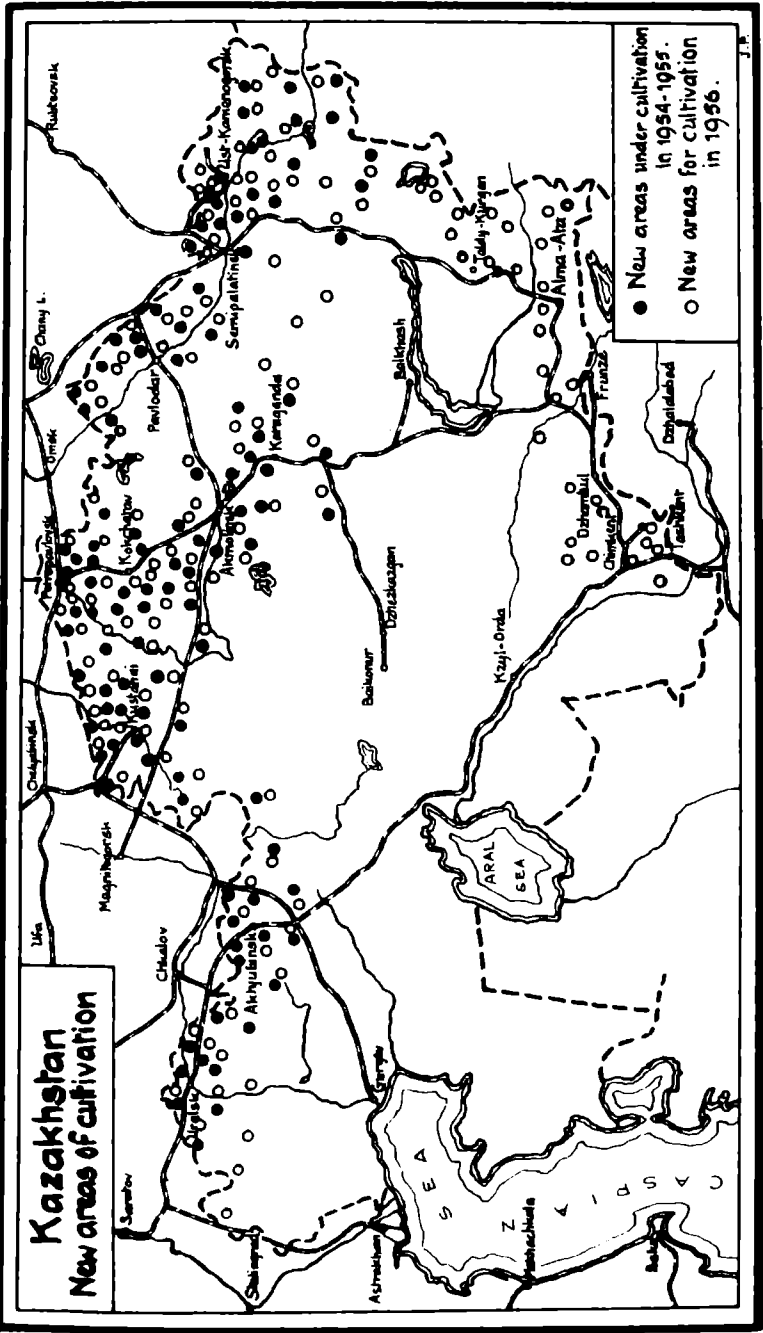
the Kirgiz building labourers described above. Though settlement in both types of farm has continued throughout the winter, more publicity has in 1955 been given to the sovkhoses; indeed, hardly a day sees them unnoticed. It is difficult to establish how many settlers have come; the programme as a whole may require as many as one and a half million. The sovkhoses received 72,000 in 1954 (2), and by April 1955 60,000 more had already arrived. The number to come to the sovkhoses in 1955 has been set at over 135,000. It is noteworthy that settlers with previous agricultural experience, and in particular those from the Ukraine, Belorussia and Moldavia, seem to go mostly to kolkhozes, while on the whole settlers from towns are going to work in the new sovkhoses.

There is no evidence to be adduced from the press that settlement has been other than voluntary. Understandably, only "specialists" - tractor-drivers and others who are needed in any case at such times as the harvest - have been given facilities to go to Kazakhstan on a temporary basis. It appears that settlers are attracted to the sovkhoses by accounts of large profits - and so a larger rate for the "work-day" than elsewhere - or by the glamour surrounding the new venture, which will continue as long as these sovkhoses are the focus of attention in the whole Union. The sovkhoses are continually spoken of as small towns; it is stressed that at first the life is very hard, but that as soon as possible communal dwellings and then individual houses are built at a rate that would be out of the question for even the most prosperous kolkhoz. In 1955 even the first rigours of settlement were to be avoided as far as possible, but the hard winter has not helped the situation. Prefabricated houses are being conveyed to the area in great numbers. In December the all-Union Ministry of Transport began the conversion of old two-axle type railway-wagons into living quarters for settlers. The work was done mostly in the wagon works of Dzhabul, Alma-Ata, Aktyubinsk and Rubtsovsk (in the Altai) with wagons from Tomsk, Ulan-Ude and Barnaul. The normal work of the factory was not interrupted. Komsomol members, noticing that the converted wagons were still far from being homes, hung curtains at their windows and installed shelves of books and sets of chessmen before their despatch. The wagons have showers, sleeping room for eight, and are set on sledge runners to be towed into place by tractors.

The first building to rise in a new sovkhos is usually its hospital; the Komsomol appeal has embraced many newly-qualified doctors. The care of expectant mothers is one of their heaviest responsibilities, as many of the settlers are newly married. Next in priority is the school. Plans have been made by each oblast authority to ensure that there are enough schools to meet each level of development. On the whole, these plans have been realized, although there is naturally a shortage of equipment. The

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New areas of cultivation



- New areas under cultivation in 1954-1955.
- New areas for cultivation in 1956.

increase in settlement in 1955 is to be met by a reorganization of the whole system and a reassessment of the numbers of schools of each type needed. A new difficulty is that the 1955 settlers have in many cases children of kindergarten age for whom no provision has been made because until now such families have not been eligible for settlement.

The Party is especially strong in the new sovkhoses, and articles on its work there are frequent in the "Party life" columns of Kazakhstanskaya Pravda. Experienced Party workers are sent out with the settlers, and one at least is assigned to each "brigade". Where - at any rate at first - there are few other amusements, the Party meetings and lectures are well attended; letters from well-wishers in all parts of the Union are read aloud. The wall newspaper is a welcome source of news where the state of communications prevents the frequent delivery of magazines and letters. It is the Party organizations that press for, and obtain, film-projectors, gramophones and bath-houses. The building of a new farm from nothing, the cutting of new soil by men to whom the work is often unlike anything that they have known before, provides great scope for "socialist competition" in an exemplary form.

The March elections to the Supreme Soviet found the Party with a new achievement to display. The work on the new lands was set beside the Volga-Don canal and the Moscow underground railway as one of the regime's greatest triumphs. New electoral divisions had to be created. The Tselinnyi division (Ruzayev raion, Kokchetav oblast), described in a recent issue of Kazakhstanskaya Pravda (3), is typical. The Ruzayev raion lies in the middle of the area of greatest activity in the new lands, and will be crossed in many directions by new roads and the new narrow-gauge railways. In the division described there are eight kolkhozes, thirteen grain sovkhoses, and four cattle sovkhoses. In spring 1954, 4,000 Komsomol members came to the raion; by March 1955, there were 7,000 settlers. In this year ten hospitals, five first-aid posts (with a feldsher and a midwife in attendance), twenty libraries, one secondary, two seven-year, and nine primary schools, 25 shops, 14 co-operatives, and nine wireless transmitters with 2,700 receivers were constructed. The sovkhos Tselinnyi, the centre of the division, has 770 members. There are 32 houses and a hostel taking 100 persons. A canteen, a shop, a bakery, a hospital in whose maternity wards "18 little citizens have been brought into the world", a seven-year and an evening school, a post-office, and a "red corner" with a cinematograph and places for 90 are already in existence. The village has electricity.

Most of the sovkhoses of this raion have 30,000 hectares of arable land. In 1955, 29 more are to be built. In 1954 the State spent 2,700,000 rubles on building a new sovkhos; in 1955 it will spend nearly

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4,000,000. In all, the new sovkhoses of the raion will cost 112,000,000 rubles - 55,400,000 of this sum will go on the building of dwelling-houses. Tselinnyi sovkhos will build a new school, a kindergarten, a stadium and a park. Water-mains will be laid and street-lighting installed.

It is true that this raion and sovkhos have more than once been singled out as examples in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda. There is no doubt, from long lists of complaints received, that other less-publicized raions and sovkhoses are not as well served. But both these exemplary sovkhoses and the complaints demonstrate the standard of living that is expected. It is by these hopes of rising prosperity, even though accompanied by hard work, that the settlers are drawn to Kazakhstan.

Ponomarenko, in an article in Pravda in October 1954, stressed that already the experience gained in founding the 93 sovkhoses created in that year had shown that at present "the organization of new sovkhoses is the most expedient way of winning the untouched and derelict lands". The number to be made in 1955 was given as 250, but by April 1955 the number of grain sovkhoses in Kazakhstan had reached 124, and 250 more were still to be created. A new stage in the drive opened with the April appeal for "leading cadres" to strengthen the direction of the work of kolkhozes and MTS. This, though an all-Union phenomenon, has caused the replacement of many directors in the new lands, and attention has to some extent been diverted from the sovkhoses during the summer of 1955 towards the progress of this appeal. It is, of course, hardly possible to assess the relative achievements of kolkhoz and sovkhos until the results of the harvest of 1955 appear. It may be significant that the Kazakh Minister of Sovkhoses was dismissed in June (4).

The sovkhoses are now being urged to expand and undertake the raising of stock - a means of ensuring prosperity already suggested at the republican conference of directors of sovkhoses held in January of this year. On the basis of experiments carried out in 1954 by VASKhNIL (the all-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences) and its Kazakh filial, every new method of soil working, sowing and moisture retainment is to be used to ensure a good harvest in 1955 (5). It is necessary, if only because of the publicity given to the campaign, that every such effort should be made. If the tide of prosperity does not continue to rise in the new lands, and if nothing occurs to distract attention from Kazakhstan, the disappointment of the settlers will be shared by even the most apathetic Soviet citizen.

Notes

- (1) Sovetskaya Kirgiziya of 7. 4.55.
- (2) Voprosy Ekonomiki No.XII, 1954, p.74.
- (3) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 5. 3.55.
- (4) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 28.6.55.
- (5) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 23.11.54.

Sources

1. Central Asian Press.
2. Uchitelskaya Gazeta.
3. Voprosy Ekonomiki.

C O M M U N I C A T I O N S

C O M M U N I C A T I O N S I N T H E N E W L A N D S

Existing roads - Organization of road building - Plans for 1955-57 -
The new railways - Progress and future plans.

There are, according to the Soviet Encyclopaedia of 1953, about 110,000 km. of road in Kazakhstan, of which 2,400 km. are metalled. Most of this metalled road is in southern and eastern Kazakhstan around Alma-Ata and Ust-Kamenogorsk. It appears that until recently the only metalled roads in the northern oblasts were the tracts from Uralsk to Guryev and from Kokchetav to Atbasar and Antonovka. In ordinary circumstances the normal dirt roads would serve. But when these regions became the "new lands" it was obvious that the problem of communication there would demand something better. Measures were under consideration in March 1954; it was announced that there were to be three new motor-road stations (i.e. MDS. See also CAR Vol.II, No.3, p.275.) to build them - in the West-Kazakhstan, Aktyubinsk and Pavlodar oblasts, eight new transport bases - three of them in Shchuchinsk, Atbasar and Ekibastuz - and 1,500 new vehicles. In July it was announced that eleven new MDS were being built (in the whole republic) but that the authorities managing them, especially in the "new lands" oblasts, were very negligent of their charge.

The responsibility for road construction in the Soviet Union - as elsewhere - rests with a great number of bodies, from the MVD to kolkhozes and village soviets. The "new lands" policy demanded some central control, at least at republican level, but this did not come until late in 1954. The newly constituted MDS came under the jurisdiction of the oblast or town soviets, and these deflected their resources to other, unspecified work; this they did even with tractors transferred from the southern oblasts to their area.

One of the most important areas in the new lands - and one where communications have until now been very primitive - is that between Kustanal and Kokchetav. There is a road between Kokchetav and Volodarskoye which is metalled as far as Antonovka; beyond Volodarskoye the road is rudimentary as far as Peski to the west and to Ruzayevka to the southwest. Even in August this road was at times hardly passable, yet "the traffic on it never stopped day or night". Work on a road from Yelenovka

to Takhtobrod began only in the last days of June. Not a single road in the Kzyl-Tu raion, where more new sovkhoses have been built than in any other, has been repaired since the war. The roads in these areas are especially important in that seven of the eleven raions of the Kokchetav oblast are from 100 to 250 km. from a railway line. During the harvest the grain was carried to the collection points and from them to the main towns by "motor-trains" - lorries with one or two trailers attached. Some of the loads carried amounted to ten metric tons. These motor-trains naturally made heavy going on the existing roads; one, travelling from a kolkhoz near Kamennobrod to the elevator at Kokchetav, did the 290 km. in 19 hours - an average speed of 15 km. or 9 miles an hour. Another did 125 km. in 5 hours 55 minutes - about 21 km. or 13 miles an hour; and these were exceptional speeds.

After the harvest of 1954 a new plan was drawn up and announced by Zhukov, the Kazakh Minister of Motor Transport and Trunk Roads, in an interview with the correspondent of Kazakhstanskaya Pravda on the 25th November 1954. He said that in the three years 1955-1957 2,600 km. of roads were to be built in the northern oblasts of Kazakhstan, 450 km. before the harvest of 1955. First he mentioned the 240 km. road from Yelenovka to Dzhaksy on the Akmolinsk - Magnitogorsk railway, through Takhtobrod and Chistopolye; this had been started in June 1954 (see above); then the 120 km. from Stavropolskoye to Maryevka through Peski - which will be an important junction on the new narrow-gauge railway system - and the road from Kaibagar, on the Akmolinsk-Magnitogorsk railway, through Karasu to Uritskoye, a junction on the projected narrow-gauge railway from Kustanai to Peski. On this last road 20 km. of the earth foundation has already been completed. Work has also begun on a road from Uralsk to Dzhambeity.

These, it seems, are the 450 km. to be finished before this year's harvest. Among roads to be built later are one from Kustanai to Demyanovka and from Maryevka to Petropavlovsk. Zhukov also announced that hundreds of "specialists" had volunteered for the work from the Ukraine, from Belorussia and from the RSFSR; these regions were also providing equipment in great amounts. Asphalt was to be used, and not merely gravel and rubble as before. But the most significant part of his announcement was his description of a new Kazakh Road-Building Authority, to be set up in Kustanai. (This location of the headquarters has caused some difficulty in 1955; it is extremely badly connected with such places as the West-Kazakhstan oblast by telephone or by post.) It is obvious that the circumstances of the 1954 harvest had shown the need for a central authority to override the claims of the many different authorities which had before constructed and repaired roads.

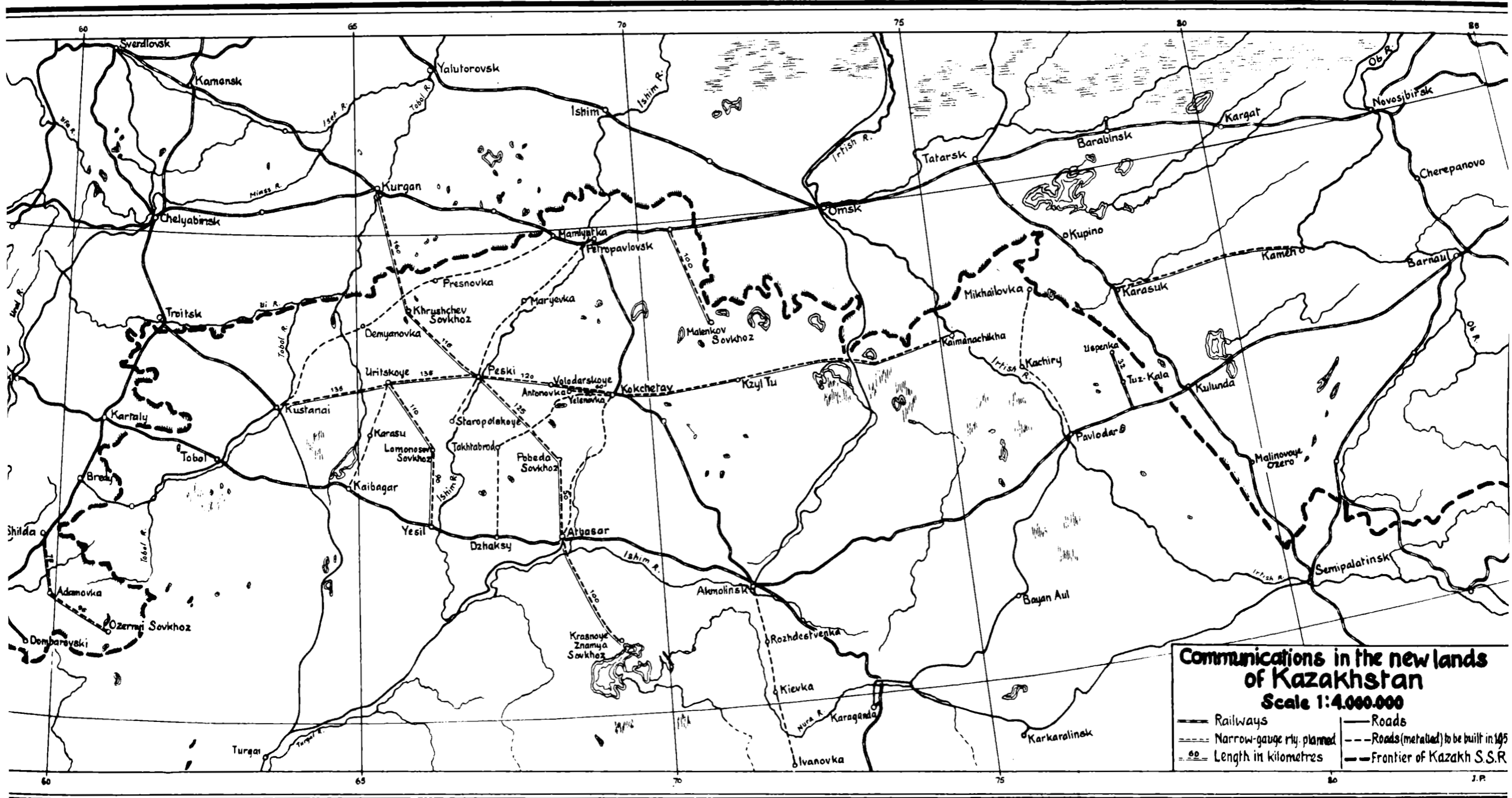
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By the beginning of 1955 the demands of road-construction had increased. Pravda Vostoka of the 6th January announced that during this year 590 km. of road were to come into service in the new lands. There were now thirteen new motor-road stations in the republic. This was confirmed by Kazakhstanskaya Pravda on the 29th January, which said, however, that the thirteen new stations were in course of construction, and that 530 km. of road were to be built in 1955 by the Akmolinsk "trust" alone. New roads were spoken of from Akmolinsk to Ivanovka in the Karaganda oblast, to the south, and from Pavlodar to Mikhailovka, on the border with the RSFSR. The road from Kustanai to Demyanovka was to be extended to Mamlyutka on the Trans-Siberian railway. The total for the three years 1955-57 in the new lands was given as 21 roads - 1800 km. in all.

A republican conference of road-builders was held in Akmolinsk in March, where Zhukov reverted to the original figure of 2,600 km. for 1955-1957, but increased the 1955 figure to 700 km. He said that there were now 21 MDS in the new lands and six asphalt works. Over 28,000,000 rubles of the sum assigned for road development were still to be used. There were other speakers from those who had come to help from other parts of the Union. The Kazakh speakers criticized Zhukov for not ensuring that the plans were feasible. He had, they said, overlooked the claims of local authorities to help in road construction. However, the conference finished with an address to the workers of the road-building industry in which the figure of 700 km. was accepted. The figure for 1954 was given as 435 km., 250 of it hard-surfaced; this was two and a half times as much as in 1953 before the new lands campaign. The conference bound itself to achieve the 1955 plan by the 15th October, and in the fifteen days before the end of the season on the 30th to build an extra 80 km. of surfaced road.

At the beginning of November 1954, rather earlier than the parallel plan for road construction, if prompted by the same circumstances, a scheme of railway construction was announced in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda in an article reprinted from the railwaymen's newspaper Gudok ("The Hooter"). Most of the railways described were narrow-gauge, and most of them were in Kazakhstan. 850 km. are to be built by August 1955. In all, by 1957, 2,132 km. of line are to be laid.

The choice of sites for the new lines has been carefully done to involve no major bridging operations other than the crossing of the Tobol at Kustanai, which was unavoidable if the area of greatest development was to be tapped. The crossing of the Ishim at Peski is not at present to be undertaken, but when done will serve a north-south as well as an east-west line. The line going east from Kustanai - the "Central Siberian" line - stops at Kaimanachikha on the left bank of the Irtysh, and the broad-gauge



Communications in the new lands of Kazakhstan
Scale 1:4,000,000

— Railways	— Roads
- - - Narrow-gauge rly. planned	- - - Roads (metalled) to be built in 1955
100 Length in kilometres	- - - Frontier of Kazakh S.S.R.

line from Karasuk to Kamen (in the RSFSR); which at some date it will presumably join, does not cross the Ob.

The progress of the new lines was reported at regular intervals - usually monthly - during the winter, which has this year been prolonged. The surveying of the stretch between Kustanai and Kokchetav began on the 1st October, 1954, and was finished in the month; it was done by a party sent out by the Leningrad Institute of Transport Planning. The work of building the embankment and laying the track between Kustanai and Uritskoye, the section to be completed by August, is divided between two teams. The work of building bridges over the Tobol and the Ubagan, and twelve stations and two depots is to be done by a section from the Ministry of Transport Construction at Chelyabinsk.

By February 1955 several kilometres had been built and the unloading station for the change-over to broad gauge in Kustanai was under construction. In April it was decided to attempt to open the line for traffic by July 15th. A temporary bridge had been thrown over the Tobol at Kustanai and over the Ubagan, and a permanent bridge is in course of construction. The line when completed will carry 16,000 tons a day, or 5,000 lorry-loads.

The line west from Kokchetav to Volodarskoye has not received as much attention in the press. By the beginning of May eleven km. of track had been laid and a bridge constructed over the small river Chaglinka. 50 km. had been laid by the 26th June according to Pravda, which described the line, perhaps mistakenly, as "broad-gauge". East of Kokchetav the building of the embankment was delayed by the frosts, which held the soil together and hindered digging, but the workers found a way to overcome this difficulty, and work is now going well. Both the Kokchetav lines are to be finished now by the 16th July. The whole stretch from Kustanai to Kaimanachikha will be opened in 1957.

The lines from Atbasar were surveyed in November, the Leningrad Institute working north of Atbasar, on the line to Kurgan, and the Moscow Institute - south of Atbasar, on the line to Krasnoye Znamya sovkhos. The survey was completed, as far as the sections of track to be laid by August 1955 were concerned, by the end of October. Work on the embankment began in November on these sections and on the line from Yesil to Lomonosov sovkhos. On these lines, too, the winter caused great difficulties; the excavators and other machines would not work on the frozen earth. However, work went on somehow, and by January, on the line to Kurgan, seven kilometres of embankment had been built.

On the 10th June it was announced that 72 km. of the line from

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Atbasar to Krasnoye Znamya sovkhos had been completed, and that the embankment was being extended at the rate of a kilometre a day. On the 26th the line from Atbasar to Pobeda sovkhos had been opened for trial runs.

The line from Bulayevo to Malenkov sovkhos was surveyed by the planning institute of the USSR Ministry of Transport Construction. Before they finished their work, the building of the embankment had begun and by the end of October 12 km. had been made. The laying of track started on 1st December; by the 18th June 60 km. had been laid. This line, too, is to be finished by July 16th.

The longest line to be built, that from Kurgan to Khrushchey sovkhos, lies mostly outside the Kazakh SSR, and therefore has not been noticed in the local press; Pravda of 26th June, however, said that 80 km. of embankment, 50 km. of track and 120 km. of telephone line had been laid. More strange is the absence of any notice of the line from Yesil to Lomonosov sovkhos.

The report published in the issue of Pravda mentioned gives ground for the expectation that the lines will, despite the unusually severe winter, be completed on the date promised. By 1957, when the plan to build 2,132 km. of line is finished, a new "Central Siberian" railway will be formed from Kustanai through Kokchetav to Kaimanachikha, and the line from Krasnoye Znamya sovkhos through Peski to Kurgan will give the Karaganda coalfields a new outlet. These lines, it has been implied, will at some time be transformed into broad-gauge railways.

Sources

1. Kazakhstanskaya Pravda.
2. Pravda.

C O M M U N I C A T I O N S

THE LANCHOW - URUMCHI - ALMA - ATA
RAILWAY

As a result of negotiations which took place at Peking from 29th September to 12th October 1954, an agreement on scientific and technical cooperation was signed between the USSR and the Chinese People's Republic. In addition to providing for large loans of funds and of equipment and for technical assistance from the Soviet Union to China, the agreement provides for the building of two railways, the Ulan-Bator - Tsinin and the Lanchow - Urumchi - Alma-Ata.

The joint Soviet-Chinese communiqué on "the construction of the Lanchow - Urumchi - Alma-Ata railway and the organization of direct communications" was published in the Soviet press in October 1954. It runs as follows:

"In order to strengthen mutual economic and cultural links, the Government of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics and the Government of the Chinese People's Republic have agreed that both parties will, in the immediate future, begin the construction of a railway line from Lanchow via Urumchi, in Chinese territory, to Alma-Ata, in Soviet territory. In Chinese territory the building of this railway will be ensured by the Chinese Government, and in Soviet territory by the Soviet Government. During the construction of the above railway in Chinese territory, the Soviet Government will give the Chinese Government every technical assistance. The building of the Lanchow - Yumen section of this railway was started in 1953."

The construction of these railways is not the first example of Soviet - Chinese cooperation in Sinkiang in recent years. Such organizations as Sovkitneft (i.e. "Soviet Chinese oil"), concerned with crude oil production and refining, and Sovkitmetal (i.e. "Soviet Chinese metal"), which deals with the mining of non-ferrous ores and rare metals, have been operating in Sinkiang. In addition to supplying up-to-date equipment and materials, the Soviet Union sent large numbers of qualified technicians to run the organizations and to train local

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labour. In accordance with the recently concluded treaty, however, the Soviet Union transferred all her rights in these organizations to China as from 1st January 1955. Her interests are to be refunded by China in goods.

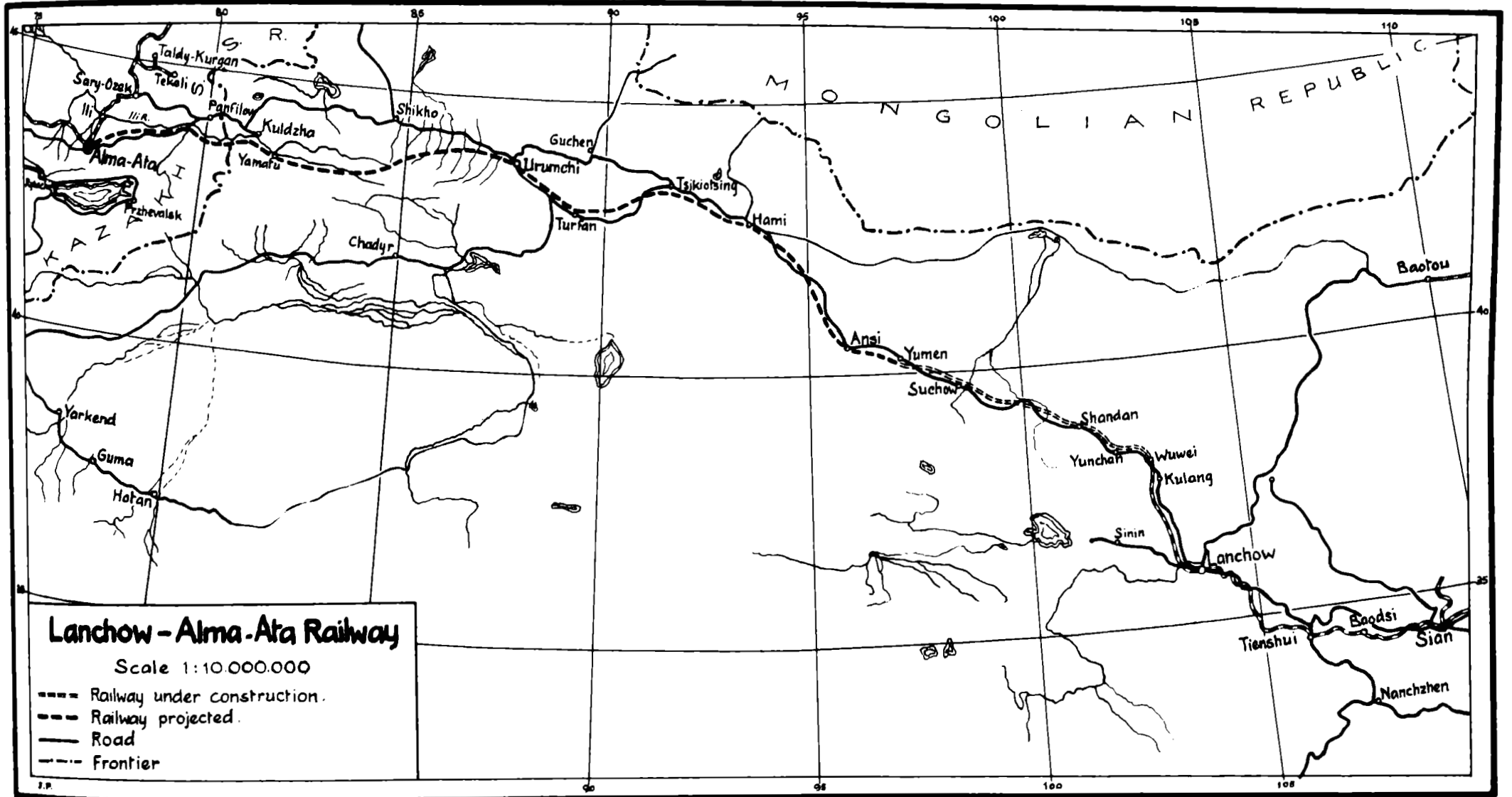
Work on the Chinese part of the Lanchow - Alma-Ata railway was started in 1953, and the first section from Lanchow to Tienshui was brought into exploitation late in the same year. This has enabled twenty times more freight to be carried between these two places than previously when there was only a highway. Lanchow is to become the junction of the Sian line, the Ningsia line and the Alma-Ata line; five railway stations are to be built here. Many new industrial undertakings are under construction in the town, which already has a population of 420,000.

The Lanchow - Tienshui section passes through difficult terrain. There are an average of two bridges per kilometre, and from Ti-Hsui onwards the line has 630 wooden bridges. Between Tienshui and Lanchow the line has 138 tunnels of a total length of 22,920 metres. The line passes the Ushaolin pass at an altitude of 2,900 metres, and at Kulang is the highest railway station in China; it is already in full operation though as yet the only buildings are tents.

In October 1954 the railway reached Wuwei and work was going on 245 km. north-west of Lanchow. Still further north-west the line is to pass through Yumen, the centre of an oil-bearing area, where a new mushroom settlement, Liao-Tsun-Mai, is fast developing. From here the line will pass through Hami and Turfan to Urumchi and thence through Kuldja to Alma-Ata.

Work on the alignment of the Soviet section of the new railway started late in 1954, when several groups of prospectors and geologists came to Alma-Ata. Water is one of the chief problems and prospecting for it is continually going on. By early in 1955, under the chief engineer of the project, Shamrai, places for future stations and sidings were decided upon.

The new railways will have great importance both for the USSR and for China. The Ulan-Bator - Tsinin railway will shorten the journey from Moscow to Peking by more than a thousand kilometres. The Lanchow - Alma-Ata line is of even greater significance for it will open up the valuable mineral resources of the north-western provinces of China. In particular it will make possible the movement of settlers from the crowded eastern provinces to Sinkiang, and so lead to the development of the great natural resources of oil, coal, lead, zinc and other non-ferrous and rare metals



of that province. The railway will also have great importance for south-eastern Kazakhstan and will make possible the cultivation of the fertile virgin lands of the area and the exploitation of the Tau-Chilik and Dzhalanas forests. Commenting on the new agreements, the Chinese newspaper Zhen-Min-Zhibao said: "These railways will create favourable conditions for the economic development of our country and will contribute greatly towards the cooperation and mutual assistance between our two countries."

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COAL MINING IN TADZHIKISTAN

Output and organization - Shurab - Isfara - Shurab town - Future developments.

The industrial development of Tadzhikistan was long delayed by the inadequacy of the republic's output of fuel. Today, however, Tadzhikistan has come to produce 90 per cent of the coal it consumes. Wartime and post-war output figures may be seen from the following table:

1913	4,961	metric tons	(1)
1940	210,000		
1945	150,000		
1948	380,000		(2)
1950	448,800		(3)

The 1950 quota was 440,000 tons; the percentage of fulfilment was thus 102, and for 1951 it was 103. There are no precise figures for succeeding years but a reasonable estimate for the 1954 output would be 600,000 metric tons.

The main coal-bearing areas of Tadzhikistan lie on the northern slopes of the Turkestan range, on that tongue of the Leninabad oblast which penetrates into Kirgiz territory. This important mining area is thus divided between the two republics. The coal industry of Tadzhikistan is administered by Tadzhikugol (i.e. "Tadzhik coal"), a subsidiary "trust" of Sredazugol - the Central Asian coal authority which controls coal mining in Tadzhikistan, Uzbekistan and Kirgizia. The chief coal-producing centres of Tadzhikistan are Isfara and Shurab, both lying in the Isfara river valley. In the same area, coal has been located in the Kalan-Garm and Samarkandek valleys. It has also been discovered at Ziddy, about 50 miles north of Stalinabad, where production is said to have already started.

At Shurab, the reserves have been estimated at 300,000,000 tons. There is a Jurassic formation about 800 metres thick; the coal-bearing layer is composed of sandstones, hard clays, clay and coal shale. A single seam, averaging twelve metres thick, is worked.

Mining began in 1901, the coal being carried along the mountain paths on mules and donkeys. Large-scale exploitation began in 1930 with the sinking of the first large shaft - "the First of May". A thermal power-station was built and a new railway line constructed to connect the miners' settlement with Isfara and the Fergana valley. The Shurab coal is of the brown humus type and has a calorific value of 6,863 - 7,150. It is mined by vertical or inclined "columns" varying in depth from 70 to 210 metres. Mine No.8 is the largest; seam B, the seam worked, has an average thickness of 14 metres, while other layers vary from 2.3 to 3.7 metres. There are at Shurab 18 layers in all, three groups of relatively compact seams 0.7 to 3.5 metres thick, and a lower single seam 8 to 21 metres thick. Workings are usually from 30 to 60 metres long.

Tadzhikugol achieved its 1953 quota and saved 700,000 rubles by reducing production costs. During the first eight months of 1954, however, only 96 per cent of the quota was achieved. Mine No.8, for example, was 22,519 tons short in the first seven months. The autumn saw an improvement; in October the output index was, for all Shurab, 103.2 per cent. At mine No.8 it was 121.9 per cent. At mines Nos.1 - 5, 1,493 extra tons of coal were produced between January and October 1954; at mine No.2 there were 3,400 tons of coal produced in the first seven months and 1,434 tons in October.

At mine No.8, 991 tons of coal contained too much slag in September 1954. This was the fault of sections 1, 2 and 4, who had not screened the coal. In the first ten months of 1954 only 86 per cent of the requisite amount of large coal was obtained.

At Isfara the 1954 output was achieved early in November. The output index for the first seven months was 123 per cent; production accounted for only 18 per cent of the cost of the coal. By using the same pit-props many times, 618 cubic metres of timber were saved. The year's economy in power was 519,000 kw.hrs.

Mechanization has been introduced since the war, usually in connection with coal-cutting and underground haulage, but the capacities of the coal-loading machines installed are only utilized to 42.6 per cent. Scraper conveyors have replaced the obsolete shaker conveyors formerly used. A few PK-2 coal combines to cut and load the coal are in use. Mine No.8 has had a high degree of mechanization for the last three years, but the machines are used only to half the extent of which they are capable; the cost per ton of the coal is still four per cent above the plan.

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The cyclic graph method of coal-cutting is not in use at mine No.8, but is in use at many of the other pits. It is constantly recommended in technical journals, and Kommunist Tadzhikistana has reproached the local (Tadzhik) newspaper, Kommunisti Isfara, for devoting so little space to discussions of this innovation. In autumn, 1954, none of the mines that have adopted it kept up to plan.

The town of Shurab has become a still growing centre of industry (see CAR Vol.I, No.1, p.37). Besides the coal mines, there are a lime factory, electro-mechanical workshops, a large bakery, and haulage and transport offices. Several schools have been built, as well as professional training establishments, a club, two libraries and two cinemas, public baths, kindergartens, and a park of rest and culture. There are the usual shops and canteens, a new polyclinic and a hospital; water mains have been laid, and there is a radio relay system.

There is, according to Kommunist Tadzhikistana, a recurrent shortage in Shurab, at present, of dairy and market-garden produce. (This despite the statement of Luknitskii, op.cit., that "Shurab has its own orchards, pig farms, rice and vegetable fields at Isfara and Lyakkan, and the kolchozes of the raion supply the farmers in ample quantity with vegetables and fruit.") The same paper reports a shortage of consumer goods in the town's univermag - no hardware, kitchen utensils, cutlery, glasses or bedsteads, and few electric lamps, irons, wireless sets, cameras, watches, musical instruments, or items of sports equipment.

With the discovery of coal reserves in the Kalan-Garm and Samarkandek valleys, a plan for the development of "Greater Shurab" has been worked out. The Isfara river is to be dammed in the Surkh gorge; this would solve the water supply problem in the new areas to be worked, and would make possible the creation of a new large mining town.

Notes

- (1) Tadzhikistan. V.M. Bardier. Stalinabad, 1939.
- (2) Pravda Vostoka of 8.8.49.
- (3) Sovetskaya Kirgiziya of 3.6.51.

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INDUSTRY

SOCIALIST REALISM COMES TO THE
CARPET INDUSTRY

In 1949 a Soviet scholar, S.I. Rudenko, found in burial mounds in Gorno-Altai pile carpets dating back to the first century A.D. These carpets are described as being many-coloured and have designs of griffins, deer and horsemen.

In Central Asia, the territory at present covered by Turkmenistan is the oldest home of the carpet-weaving industry. To the Turkoman tribesmen a hand-knotted carpet served as a saddle-cover by day and a tent-hanging or bed by night. The art of weaving these carpets was handed down from mother to daughter and is still largely women's work today. Carpets are also woven in Uzbekistan and, to a lesser extent, in Kazakhstan and Transcaucasia. Small, smooth-faced carpets with bright floral patterns are produced in the Ukraine and Moldavia.

It has been suggested in some quarters that the weaving of carpets is essentially a peasant craft and that its continued practice indicates a low standard of living and implies a residue of labour unemployable anywhere else. Those who support this view declare that under the impact of industrialization, carpet weaving has declined in Turkey as the new industries are absorbing the materials and the labour. To what extent industrialization has in fact been responsible for a decline in carpet weaving must remain largely a matter of opinion. In the Soviet Union, judging by available information, there appears to be no lessening in the quantity of carpets produced. Large carpet kombinats, equipped with power-driven looms, exist in Vitebsk, Lyuberetsk, Obukhov, and Tiflis. And in Central Asia hand-made carpets are produced in considerable numbers. These carpets are still hand-knotted and women, now grouped in artels, weave them on horizontal or upright looms. Generally the carpets are woven from pure wool, though occasionally with an admixture of camel hair. In Uzbekistan and Afghanistan most carpets are made from the wool of a wild ram (arkhar) which gives the carpet a special lustre and beauty.

The Turkmen carpets: Akhal-Tekin, Beshir, Kerkinsk, Pende and Yomud- are noted for the richness and "harmonious blending" of their colours the prevalence of reds and by their intricate but precise designs. The

characteristic pattern consists of regularly arranged octagons, e.g. the Teke gul (rose) of the Akhal Tekin carpets. According to established authorities such as Cecil Edwards these carpets are not Persian in character. They are rather akin to the red rugs of Transcaspia: Merv, Bukhara, Kizil-Ayak, none of which is Persian. Originally these carpets were woven in the neighbourhood of Ashkhabad by the Atabai, Zhafarbai and Tekke tribes, who in 1938 for various reasons emigrated to north Persia where they still weave carpets of the Bukhara type, though the quality of these carpets has never reached that of the originals.

In the Soviet Union the style of the carpets produced has undergone a change. In 1927 one of the Mary carpet weavers, "a resourceful and enterprising worker", wove into the border of a Tekin carpet a portrait of Lenin with the slogan "Down with the Kalyk". Little did she anticipate the effect that her "initiative" was to have; for it established a tradition. The designs of the past have been altered, and carpets with a definite subject theme are now woven on an increasing scale. In 1935 the weaver, Aman Soltan, and the designer, Byashima Murali, - both graduates of a Moscow VUZ - collaborated on a portrait carpet of Lenin which "became famous far beyond the borders of Turkmenistan". Since then portrait carpets have been woven of Stalin, Marx, Engels, Pushkin, Tolstoy, Gorky, and the heroes of the October Revolution, and in March of this year it was reported that portraits of Bulganin and Mao-Tse-Tung were being woven. Indeed, it is claimed that carpet weaving "reflects the progressive way of life of the Soviet peoples" and that it is "national in form and socialist in content". In 1954 on the occasion of the 300th anniversary of the association of Russia and the Ukraine the Turkmen republic sent as its gift to the Ukraine a "beautifully woven" carpet whose central panel bore a portrait of Bogdan Khmel'nitski.

The leading carpet artels in Turkmenistan are situated in Ashkhabad, Bakharden, Geok-Tepe, Kazandzhik and Kizyl-Arvat; in the last mainly large-sized carpets are produced. Judging by the few and fragmentary press reports all the carpet artels appear to be working to full capacity and more than fulfilling their quotas.

According to a report of 16th December 1954 a number of Akhal-Tekin, Beshir, Kerkinsk and Pende carpets produced by these artels were included in exhibitions of industrial goods held in Argentina, Holland, Iceland, Pakistan and the German Democratic Republic. The Ashkhabad artel has also produced the carpet "Friendship of the Peoples of the USSR" which was displayed at the all-Union Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow. The carpet in some 150 colours is 42 sq. metres in size and has over 16m. knots. Designed by Sosmin and Bruzentsov, it combines both

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traditional and new elements. Set within the traditional outer border is an inner border of alternating national emblems and cotton plants, which remind the spectator of the "white gold" grown in the kolkhozes of the republic. The central panel depicts "a laughing crowd of people, where Uzbeks and Latvians, Estonians and Bashkirs, Kazakhs and Armenians rub shoulders". According to further reports, the weavers of this artel, inspired by the success that the carpet has had, have now set to work on another carpet with the building of the Kara-Kum Canal as its theme.

Not much is known of the carpet artels in Uzbekistan and such information as is forthcoming refers entirely to the artel Umid (Hope) established in Khiva seven years ago by Bibidzhan Bekieva - a Turkmen. The artel now employs over 200 girls and in 1954, 116 carpets with Khivan designs were woven. A new carpet artel was opened at the end of last year in Urgench.

Central Asian carpets were exported to the West until two years ago; since then, however, the supply has been curtailed. One reason is that the demand in the Soviet Union itself is sufficiently great to absorb supplies.

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SCIENCE

SCIENCE VERSUS SAND:

A BOTANIST IN THE TURKMEN DESERT

V Zakaspi (In Transcaspia). By A. Kremenskoi. 126 pp. Geografiz, Moscow, 1954.

A. Kremenskoi, the author, is a "geobotanist", i.e. a student of botany in relation to physical geography, who in 1951 was attached to the Turkmen forestry reclamation expedition organized by Agroles-proyekt, the afforestation planning authority. In his book he describes some of the places visited by the expedition, and, in particular, how botanical science is being used to overcome some of the problems presented by the vast desert expanse of Turkmenistan, notably that of shifting sand.

The expedition was based on Kazandzhik. Its first task was to draw up detailed soil, geobotanical, and afforestation maps of the regions examined, and then on the basis of field work to produce plans for holding back shifting sand in the industrial areas of Turkmenistan. The author's comments and observations refer to the period of the expedition's work preparatory to the drawing up of these plans, and are confined to those areas which he personally examined or merely visited as one of a team of experts.

The first task assigned to the team was the study of the sand dunes near the well of Kaplanli, to the north-east of Kazandzhik. There are not many barkhany (shifting-sand dunes) in western Turkmenistan - they make up no more than five per cent of the total area. They are generally formed near wells. Sheep and camels, as they come to drink, root up the vegetation and break up the soil, and the sand becomes friable and shifting under the action of the wind. The sands near the well of Kaplanli are covered with vegetation, but on some dunes the beginnings of erosion are already apparent. Tongues of shifting sand are creeping down the slopes, undermining grass and bushes. Chains of barkhany of friable sand are beginning to rise in a ring around the well; there are

hollows between the barkhany with strongly developed vegetation. As a rule the plants live in correspondence, forming groups or "associations" of such kind as to be of reciprocal assistance in the struggle for existence.

The peculiarities of the plants of these dry, sandy, and sometimes even salt areas, are extraordinarily interesting. Among these peculiarities are the strong development of the desert plants' root system, which spreads both in a horizontal direction and into the depths of the soil; the replacement of leaves by fleshy green branches to decrease evaporation; the ability of some plants to put out root-like shoots from parts of the stem covered with sand, to ensure growth; and the formation of cases on the roots made from grains of sand cemented with sap, which keep the roots from drying up and contain moisture.

Further away from the well of Kaplanli in the direction of the Kara-Kum desert the sand barkhany grow gradually lower, their crests subside, and the hollows between them are like basins, covered with meagre vegetation. The sand dunes, held together by a covering of grass, are turned, through the grazing of sheep on them, into shifting sands which pile up near dead shrubs and form hills. The sand is blown down from them and covers the hollows and the layer of vegetation.

After study of the erosion thus caused, the experts concluded that it was necessary to forbid grazing in this area and to sow grasses and plant bushes to hold the sands in check. It is possible to break up the sands in one season, but many years are needed to bring them completely under control.

The next task of the author's team was the examination of the salt-marsh desert near the sea in the neighbourhood of the Cheleken peninsula, to the south of Krasnovodsk. Going by motor from Kazandzhik to the station at Dzhebel, the team followed for some distance a so-called takyry. This is a soil layer, frequently encountered in Turkestan, which looks like a layer of grey clay, and which in dry weather becomes as hard as stone and as smooth as asphalt. When watered by rain, or by the spring streams, the takyry become hard to cross because of the stickiness of the clay. Takyry are formed in the deserts by the action of the sun and of water. The large takyry are created by the spring mountain floods. These stream down, washing particles of clay out of the soil and carrying them to the plains below. The lakes forming here quickly dry up and a layer of clay particles settles on their beds; this layer is then compressed and covers the sand like a great coat of clay armour. In a sand desert this process happens in miniature; little brooks, flowing down from the sand dunes, carry with them small particles of clay which then

then settle and form a takyr. In subsequent years new layers are carried down, and so, in the course of centuries, the takyr becomes thick.

The importance of the takyry is that they serve as reservoirs for drinking water. Most Turkmen auls are on the outskirts of takyry where wells can be dug to give water all the year round. A waterpipe about 100 kilometres long is being constructed from the springs at Dzhebel to Cheleken. Near Dzhebel is the mud-bath spa of Molla-Kara; beyond the spa begins the boundless desert bordering the sea.

The Cheleken peninsula is shaped like a bird flying towards the west. The peninsula is 300 kilometres from south-west to north-east and 15 kilometres across; two long tongues of land - the bird's wings - stretch for 20 kilometres on either side. The central part of the western shore is 25 metres high; here there is a small plateau. Cheleken is one of the richest sources of ozokerite in the world; oil, iodine and bromine are also found.

On the path of the expedition made by the author's team lay sand barkhany twenty metres high, whose tops seemed to smoke from the wind, filling the air with a fine clay dust like a yellow mist. Beyond the barkhany lay a small round lake called Porsu-Gel. The lake is devoid of life. Its water is pink and warm and bubbles rise from the bottom. Lake Porsu-Gel came into being in the crater of a small extinct volcano, and the water is coloured by ferrous formations. Around the lake are hot streams whose water contains iodine.

Farther on their journey the team encountered the huge buildings of the ozokerite factory; the mineral is quarried near the works. The buildings are covered with sand; the barkhany have come right up to the factory village of Dagadzhik. Mechanical defences have proved powerless against the sand.

Eighteen kilometres from the factory is the fishing village of Karagelyu, in which the author's team made its home during their work in the area. In the not too distant past, the houses in this village stood on the sea shore, and were built on high piles against flooding by the sea. Now the sea shore has retreated two kilometres away from the village and the piles defend the buildings not from sea water, but from the shifting sand advancing on the village.

The level of the Caspian Sea fell two metres during the ten years 1941 - 1951. It is known from history that there have been times when the Caspian silted up even more heavily; near the sea shore not far from

Baku can be seen the remains of the buildings of the ancient town of Bagavan, which at one time stood a long way from the sea. The strong winds which blow on Cheleken for most of the year have piled up great sand masses in the centre area of the peninsula, which is completely devoid of vegetation. In the shore regions the covering of vegetation has been preserved, including drought-resisting and salt-loving plants.

The team had a difficult task to do in devising a system of afforestation operations for Cheleken. The plants which served to keep the sand in check near the well of Kaplanli could not here be fully employed; plants were needed that would not only resist drought, but live in an area of sand with a heavy salt content. Long and diligent searches were necessary before the author's team found such a plant.

After the completion of this assignment the team was sent to Krasnovodsk to plan the development of a green belt round this city. The author then visited the region of sub-tropical vegetation around Kara-Kala and Kizyl-Atrek, which lies in the valleys of the rivers Atrek and Sumbar. The rainfall in this region is extremely low - only 200-300 mm - and the heat is exceptional - the frost-free period lasts for nearly ten months. Near Kara-Kala, the raion centre, lies the Turkmen Experimental Station of the All-Union Institute of Horticulture, founded in 1927. The station's chief duty is to breed hybrids of wild and cultivated fruit and berry-bearing plants, of a kind to resist the heat and the salt, and yield juicy and edible fruits. Nearly 300 kinds of grapes are cultivated on the station and many types of tree and bush, not only indigenous varieties, but varieties imported from China, Japan, Spain, Italy, Bulgaria, Rumania, and many other countries. The work of the station is widely appreciated. New varieties produced there grow and bear fruit abundantly on the banks of the Amu-Darya in Uzbekistan, in Tadzhikistan and in Georgia. Many types of ornamental shrub are also grown on the station.

Not far from Kara-Kala is a second experimental station - at Kizyl-Atrek. This is the zonal station of the all-Union institute of desert tropical plants. The station lies on the banks of the Atrek, which here forms the frontier with Iran. Besides ornamental shrubs the station has an avenue of African native date palms. There are plantations of many different types of orange and lemon - the first to grow in Turkmenistan, and an avenue of eucalyptus trees - native to Australia. Eucalyptus is the fastest-growing tree in the world: it grows five metres a year even in an area of low rainfall. It yields a valuable medicinal oil, its hard timber makes exceptionally solid sleepers, its bark makes paper pulp, and it contains tannin.

Plants used to check shifting sand

I. In the Kaplanli area

Ephedra Strobilacea. An evergreen shrub with thick branches with knob-like swellings. Ephedra has green twigs in place of leaves with a very small evaporation surface.

Ammodendron Conollyi. A bush with silvery foliage. Its thin, elongated leaves are covered with short hairs. This silvery down protects the "sand acacia" from excessive evaporation. When sand accumulates around the plant and covers part of the stem, extra roots grow on the covered part of the stem which penetrate the new layer of sand and strengthen the grip of the bush on the soil. Supported by these new roots the plant grows still higher. If by the action of the wind both new and old roots are exposed, then a new root shoot grows not out of the stem, but out of the exposed roots, and penetrates deep into the sand, seeking moisture; and so the bush still lives.

Aristida Karelini. A perennial grass with brittle bright green leaves. The plant's roots are cased with grains of sand cemented together by sap from the roots. The roots stretch out into long hair-like strands of up to 15 metres.

Smirnovia Turcestana. A small shrub of the bean family.

Agriophyllum Latifolium. A small variety of tumble-weed (?) whose leaves dry up and are replaced by thorns, which impede the growth of shoots and leaves, and thus lessen the evaporation surface.

Haloxylon Persicum. A desert tree found on dunes and banks of sand with a shining, barkless stem thickly covered with branches. It has green shoots instead of leaves. Its roots grow in two directions: horizontally to absorb the moisture from the surface layer of soil, and vertically to reach the deep-lying sub-soil waters. It contains more calorific value than coal. Its timber is very dense - it sinks in water like iron, but its trunk and branches are very pliable.

Haloxylon Aphyllum. A salt-marsh desert plant with a strong stem reaching five and even seven metres in height. "Black saksaul" only lives where there are sub-soil waters nearby. In old river-beds and in hollows scooped out by the wind these plants grow into whole "saksaul forests". Their shoots are dark green, full of sap, and bitterly salt to the taste, gazelles and camels eat them with relish.

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Carex Physodes. Sand sedge. Its dense growth covers the bottom of hollows. Up to 500 separate plants grow on one square metre of soil. Its shoots develop out of the rhizome, which is covered with bark and able to withstand the red-hot temperature of the desert sand. The thick brown felt of the roots, which grow out from the rhizome, spread under the surface layer of sand and hold it firmly together.

Salsola Richteri. A shrub growing in salt areas, usually found on dunes

Salsola Paletziana. A tree three metres in height which grows on sand barkhany. Both varieties of salsola are excellent settlers of sand.

Calligonium. A spherical shrub growing close to the earth which has cylindrical shoots instead of leaves. Its fruit are reddish bristly balls very well suited for planting in sand. In the deserts of Central Asia there are very many varieties of this plant.

Astragalus Ammodendron. Nearly 200 types of this annual semi-shrub grow in the desert.

II. The plants of Cheleken

Halosnemium Strobilaceum. A salt-loving shrub on whose pliable branches grow shoots with juicy knobs filled with a bitter, salt sap.

Halostachis Caspica. A tall bush with juicy, dark green branches.

Kalidium Caspicum. A pliable, light green bush.

Nitraria Schoberi. A plant which, like Halosnemium above, belongs to the type of salt-loving halophytes which not only do not dislike salt, but need it.

Salsola Arbuscula. An inhabitant of sand not strongly salt, with sparse branches lying loosely on the ground.

Besides these, other plants and bushes are found on Cheleken, but with no great distribution. After careful investigation it was determined that Nitraria Schoberi was the best plant for holding back the Cheleken sands. A sand hill that the team examined proved to be entirely penetrated by it. As the sand piled up the plant grew higher; branches buried underneath the sand did not die off - they only lost their leaves and put out extra roots. The highest branches threw out young shoots on the surface which stretched out thirstily towards the light. The sands

could not engulf the plant; the higher the hill grew, the stronger the plant became. By degrees it enmeshed the hill in its thorned branches and penetrated it with its strongly developing roots. In this way Nitraria settled the sand, and it ceased to shift.

PUBLIC SERVICES

MOTHER AND CHILD WELFARE

Organization of welfare services - Children's allowances - Consultation bureaux - Creches and kindergartens - Children's "polyclinics".

In theory the pattern of welfare services in Central Asia is the same as that prevailing in the rest of the Soviet Union. It is claimed that as long ago as 1940, in the Union as a whole 80 per cent of the births in towns and 60 per cent of those in rural areas took place in maternity hospitals. There is, however, no precise information as to how far these high percentages are maintained in Central Asia, especially in rural districts, where primitive conditions must necessarily persist and where tradition still militates against modern innovations.

The organization of welfare institutions in Central Asia took place rather later than in the rest of the USSR, but the industrialization of the area in the years 1930-35 made them more necessary and feasible. It is now the law that for every hundred women employed a factory must provide a creche with accommodation for twelve children and a kindergarten with accommodation for fifteen. At least five per cent of the living-space of a block of flats must be reserved for this purpose. It was at first the policy to provide separate institutions for Muslim children in Central Asia, but this is no longer the case.

Since the abolition of legal abortion for non-medical reasons in 1936, the State has encouraged large families. Since 1944 grants have been made for every child after the second, instead of the sixth, as the practice had been between 1936 and 1944. The winners of Motherhood awards (also instituted in 1944) announced in the Central Asian press are nearly always, from their names, from the native population and not Russians or Ukrainians, and do not do skilled work or work demanding a high standard of education. Sometimes the allowances amount to large sums: for instance, in the last three years, the mother of ten children living in Frunze has received 40,000 rubles in allowances; a Heroine Mother from Chardovar sovkhos in Tadzhikistan, who has twelve children, has received in all over 80,000 rubles.

In 1950 there were over 300 mother and child consultation bureaux

in Uzbekistan and their number is still rising. Z.M. Dzhamalova, the Uzbek Minister of Health, has said that the number of paediatricians in Uzbekistan has been multiplied by six in the last eighteen years, and the number of gynaecologists by three. In Kazakhstan there were 372 bureaux in 1953, 174 of them in rural areas; the urban maternity homes had 2,573 beds and the rural, 1,844; there is an institute for the study of problems of mother and child welfare. The new sovkhoses built in the reclaimed lands have their own maternity homes. There are no recent statistics for Tadzhikistan, but immediately before the war there were 42 bureaux there. In 1954 there were 24 bureaux and eight day-nurseries in the Krasnovodsk oblast of Turkmenistan, and eight new maternity homes have been opened in kolkhozes of the Tashauz oblast.

There were no creches or kindergartens in Central Asia before 1917, and orphanages only in the larger towns; of these last there were ten in Kazakhstan before 1916, the first of them having been opened in 1879. The first kindergarten was opened at Vernyi (now Alma-Ata) in 1917. In 1918 there were ten of them, and in 1921, 115. These figures are for Kazakhstan alone; no data are available for the other republics at this period. By 1953 Kazakhstan possessed 14,110 beds in urban day-nurseries and 7,780 in rural. There are forty such institutions in the Alma-Ata oblast alone. In Kirgizia there were 96 day-nurseries with 2,759 beds in 1940, and 128 creches with 4,724 beds in 1953. The Novotroitsk sugar refinery has a particularly well-run creche; Sovetskaya Kirgiziya has devoted an article to its praise. In the Komsomolabad raion of Tadzhikistan every kolkhoz has a day-nursery. In the same republic, there are day-nurseries for each "brigade" at Kaganovich kolkhoz. In the kolkhozes Kalinin, Molotov, and Malenkov, not one mother is prevented from work in the fields by the need to care for her children. None the less, in many raions of the republic such facilities do not exist, even during the harvest when every able-bodied worker is required in the fields. According to the Tadzhik press, this is the case at two kolkhozes, Stalin and Molotov; at two others the children are improperly fed.

Although the number of kindergartens in Central Asia greatly increased during and since the war, there is still a great shortage. For instance, at Kaskelen (Alma-Ata oblast) there are 2,000 children of pre-school age, but the kindergarten takes only twenty-five. There are hundreds of petitions filed at the raion education office, many of them dating from 1953, and all unanswered. There are, it seems, no funds to expand the old building or to build a new.

Child health is given special attention in "children's polyclinics". In Kazakhstan in 1953, there were 34 children's hospitals with 2,690

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beds and 3,000 beds for children in other hospitals. Here are two examples of the working of the "polyclinics", both cases where these institutions came under criticism. The Second Polyclinic in the Stalin raion of Alma-Ata serves 16 schools and 34 pre-school establishments. It is held in a small flat with only three rooms for consultations, having a total area of 37 square metres.

"Parents - and especially mothers - hoped that new and comfortable quarters would be found for the clinic in one of the recently completed blocks of flats," a mother wrote to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, "but these hopes were belied, for the polyclinic was offered accommodation four districts away from the nearest tram stop. No better place could be found for the only children's clinic in the raion."

In Turkmenistan the building of the children's polyclinic in the Lenin raion of Ashkhabad took four years and was not quite finished when the staff moved in.

"While it was warm, one could bear with the fifty-six defects found in the new building, but with the cold weather things became much worse. The boilers for the central heating have not yet been installed, and the temperature in the clinic does not rise above 3 to 5 degrees C. The windows and doors have no locks and will not close; in one part of the building the paint is peeling from the floor and the water pipes are leaking, while in another part there is no water at all. For the time being children are being treated at No.1 general hospital where two rooms have been reserved for them. But all the specialists, the registry, and the laboratories are at the new polyclinic. Many parents with sick children are obliged to go from the polyclinic to the hospital and then back again." (This is the substance of a letter to Turkmenskaya Iskra from E. Duplevskaya, the chief doctor at the Lenin raion children's hospital.)

It may not be realized that, through the extreme specialization of the Soviet educational system, these and other deficiencies are more serious than they would be under conditions where every health practitioner has some general knowledge. For instance, a complaint against the oblast authorities in Chardzhou is reported that there is no paediatrician in the Khodzhabass raion. Parents have to take their children, when they are sick, to Kerki - a matter of forty kilometres away.

Yet despite the real substance of the criticisms recorded, it must be acknowledged that the concern for the welfare of the new generation is very great. Though one of the objects of the system of creches and clinics is to release the mother for production as much as possible, the

opportunity of ensuring that the children have the best attention is recognized as being of primary importance.

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THE ARYS - TURKESTAN CANAL

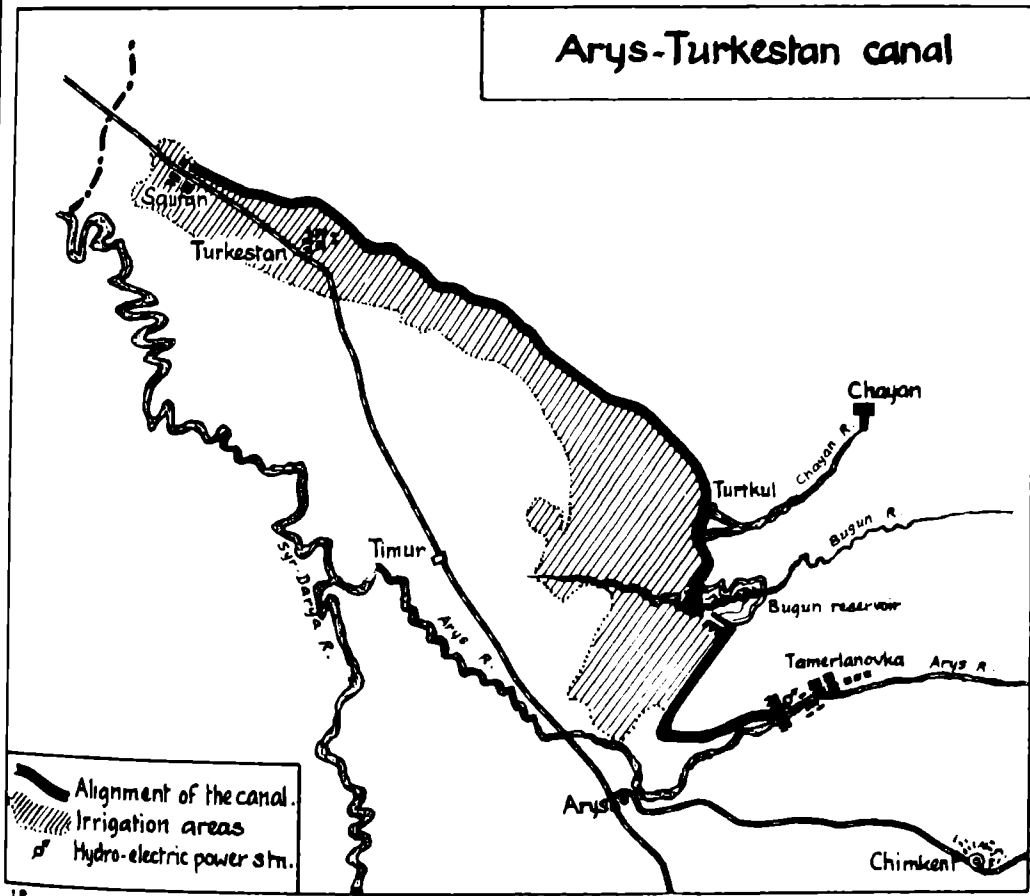
Preliminary announcement and details of the project - Progress reports - Present silence.

On 6th October 1954 a long article, illustrated by a sketch-map, appeared on the first page of Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, written by I. Denisenko, the director of the Kazgiprovoodelektro Institute (i.e. Kazakh Institute of Hydroelectric Planning). Of his article the following is an abridged translation.

It is well known that the north-western group of raions of the South-Kazakhstan oblast possess enormous natural resources. There are thousands of hectares of fertile soil, quite suitable for the raising of many crops, including cotton. The mountains of the Karatau range contain great reserves of useful minerals. The area lies along the Tashkent and Turkestan-Siberian railway lines. But these natural resources are at present far from being fully exploited; the impediment to their development is the lack of water. The north-western part of the South-Kazakhstan oblast is in the drought zone of Kazakhstan; precipitation is small - 170 mm. a year, and the dry period long - more than 200 days in the year.

Attempts to increase the water available for irrigation in this region have been made since the second half of the last century, but have all come to nothing. During the years of Soviet rule, and especially in the period of collectivization, great material and financial resources have been spent on the irrigation of this area; large-scale surveys have been made, reservoirs and canals have been built, and the whole irrigation system overhauled; but all this was only a beginning. In 1935, at a Party meeting of cotton-pickers, a Turkestan kolkhoznik, Sharip Niyazov, addressed a request to Stalin to send engineers to bring water from the hills behind the farms to the plains. Something was done in the following years. The Bayaldyr canal, thirty kilometres long and faced with concrete, was built near Turkestan and a reservoir was built at Sasyk-Bulak. But it was impossible to supply the farmers' needs from merely local sources of water.

Arys-Turkestan canal



The streams of this area, which have their sources in the south-western slopes of the Karatau mountains, have a total yearly flow of only about 300m. cubic metres, of which only 200m. cubic metres is used for irrigation. The search for new sources of water was therefore of immediate importance; the result of the search was a proposal to use the untapped flow of the Arys, a large tributary of the Syr-Darya. Its waters are at present used to any extent only in summer; the unused flow of water in the river basin amounts to 1,700m. cubic metres, 1,000m. of them from the Arys itself. To harness these waters it is proposed to build a canal.

The first obstacle on the alignment of the proposed canal is the watershed between the rivers Arys and Bugun. The canal will circumvent this hill by going towards the town of Arys, and then, taking a sharp turn to the north, it will meet the river Bugun. It will then enter the Turtkul valley and go past Ikan, Turkestan, and Cherkan almost to the boundary of the Kzyl-Orda oblast. The canal will serve, on its left bank, 200,000 hectares of land suitable for the growing of cotton and other crops.

In building the canal it is proposed to use the free flow of the river Arys (730m. cubic metres), the river Bugun (62m. cubic metres), and other small rivers on the south-western slopes of the Karatau (63m. cubic metres), that is, in all 855m. cubic metres. This will be enough to irrigate 117,700 hectares in the Arys, Chayanov, Shaulder, Turkestan and Frunze raions. The area of direct irrigation will cover 70,700 hectares, 63,300 of them newly irrigated and 45,300 under cotton crop rotation. The area of irrigation under feed crops will be increased by 53,800 hectares. The total length of the canal will be 194.5 kilometres, and the capacity of the Bugun reservoir, 370m. cubic metres.

The canal will be started at the river Arys at the Karaspan barrage (near Yermolovka). A regulator here will ensure the proper distribution of the water and there will be a weir. The Bugun reservoir will regulate the flow of the rivers Arys and Bugun. Its area will be 63.5 square kilometres, its length 15 kilometres, and its breadth about 5 kilometres. The dam of earth forming the reservoir will be 5 kilometres long and 17 metres high at its highest point. On the southern side, the reservoir is bounded by the Karadzhan dyke, 3.25 kilometres long and 10.5 metres high at its highest point. The reservoir will be the largest in Kazakhstan.

All power and road construction units, means of communications and civil authorities will come under the canal construction authority. A hydroelectric station with a 2,000 kw. capacity and a thermal power-

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station with a 1,000 kw. capacity will be built at Karaspan. Two hydroelectric stations are to be built in the future on the river Arys to supply the whole area; they will have a total capacity of 12,500 kw. A trunk road is to be built along the line of the canal, to form part of a Chimkent-Turkestan road of inter-oblast rating. Belts of trees are to be planted throughout the system of irrigation.

41m. cubic metres of earth will be excavated, 140,000 cubic metres of concrete and ferro-concrete will be used, and there will be 1,500 tons of metal in the construction works. The work will cost a quarter of a milliard rubles. 120,000 hectares of desert will be made fertile; the cotton crop of the area will be multiplied by fourteen or fifteen, and the harvest of hay will rise from 13,000 to 215,000 tons. The canal should be completed in 1957.

. . .

Since the appearance of the above article, there have been a few further reports in the press: on 16th October 1954 it was announced that work had begun on the enlarging of the First of May canal, to the south of Tamerlanovka, to feed the hydroelectric station mentioned by Denisenko. Work had also begun on the Bugun reservoir with twenty excavators. Two settlements were to be built for the workers on the canal, and work on one had already started. The MTS of South-Kazakhstan had promised sixty excavators; offers of help were coming from every adjacent area. The official opening of the work was held on 17th October with a meeting at the reservoir.

After that there was no mention of the canal until December, except for the announcement in November of the opening of a first-aid post at Bugun, which had been reported as already built before the opening in October. On 11th December an article complained that only 200,000 cubic metres of soil had been excavated instead of the 500,000 planned for 1954. The cause was "the prolongation of the so-called organizational period" - by which is apparently meant the period allowed for building the ancillary offices. The Ministry of Waterways should have sent six technicians to lead the work in September, but had not. They were asked for four bull-dozers, two scrapers, and two excavators; they sent one of each. The Ministry of Transport should have sent fifty tip-lorries; they sent none. Their vehicles should have carried 420,000 kilometres-tons; they had done only a tenth of this. Various oblast authorities had not sent the proper help; their equipment had to be repaired at great expense. 250 cubic metres of timber had been received instead of the 3,500 promised. There were many other complaints.

The mobile shops and canteens that provided a background for the solemn opening of the canal on 17th October hurried back to Chimkent as soon

as the meeting was over. To see a recent newspaper the canal workers had now to go fifteen kilometres. The building of a workers' settlement had been unaccountably delayed.

Since December 1954 there has been no mention at all in the press of the construction of the Arys-Turkestan canal, or of the building of the settlements relating to it.

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MONUMENTS OF THE BET - PAK - DALA

The following is an abridged translation of an article by G.G. Gerasimov which appeared in Izvestiya Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR, Issue 5 in the series on mining, metallurgy and refining, and building materials, published in Alma-Ata in 1955.

In the course of its long history, the Kazakh people has created an art and a material culture closely connected with the art and culture of neighbouring peoples, but differing from them in national character and sharply expressed individuality. Many buildings, characteristic of their period, which have been preserved for the present age, should therefore be studied and discussed in print, while the best should be placed under the care of the State. Unhappily, until the October Revolution hardly anyone systematically collected and published material on these monuments, with a few exceptions (see Bibliography). Some of the material collected before and since the war in Kazakhstan has already been published, but there is still room for much work. The creation of a national architecture with a Socialist content is impossible without a comprehensive study of the architectural heritage of the people in question.

The Bet-Pak-Dala desert covers an area of some hundreds of thousands of square kilometres to the north of the river Chu. The severe climatic conditions of this region have in the past hindered settlement, but at various times the desert has been inhabited. This is confirmed by the presence of ruins consisting, for the most part, of mausoleums, sagan, kulup-tas, and other forms of tomb. It will only be possible to speak of the duration of habitation in this area after careful excavation of the various townships.

The mausoleums erected are of various sizes, materials and decoration. The feudal aristocracy erected mainly mausoleums, the poorer people, sagan, and the poorest simply reared tumuli, or erected kulup-tas - small vertical standing stones ornamented with reliefs and inscriptions.

The first monument that we examined was that known as the mausoleum

of Kumukanov. It stands at the foot of the sand-hills of Dzhideli-Konur, and attracts attention among the adobe structures surrounding it by being built of fired brick - a material not typical of this region. It possesses features borrowed from Russian architecture (pilasters, ledges, the high dado), which unhappily applied as they are, have a rather eclectic character. The building has a central dome, but no porch. This kind of mausoleum was common in central Kazakhstan in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It is simple in form; the main façade, facing, according to tradition, towards Mecca, has a small entrance with a semicircular arch. The outer walls of the side and main faces are divided by pilasters into three parts like panels; the pilasters are faced with polished bricks with rounded edges. The dado of the mausoleum is slightly raised above the surface of the brick facing. The bases and capitals of the pilasters are made like simple shelves in polished brick. The cornice surrounding the structure consists of moulded bricks. A little lower than the cornice is set a frieze, two bricks wide, forming a cross-shaped ornament. We consider the use of this motif accidental and in no sense symbolic. It was caused by the shortage of decorative materials: the builder had nothing at his disposal except two or three types of moulded brick.

One of the peculiarities of this mausoleum is the placing of the window, one metre from the floor, in the wall opposite the door. This is not usual in Kazakh mausoleums of this area, as openings for light are mostly made overhead. Another peculiarity of the construction is the use of a brick layer built diagonally across the inside corners, straight up from the floor. This layer forms with the walls an octagon, which rises into the curve of the drum on which the dome rests. In other mausoleums fly-over arches were usually made in the corners to support a spheroid or conoid dome over which an octagon was made to be the base of a half-domed drum. This simplified brickwork has not improved the interior of the structure, making it appear heavy and oppressive. Over the centre of the building is a dome, slightly drawn out into a cone, set on a low drum. The outer surface of the dome is not smooth because of the unevenly and carelessly faced courses, and as a result of the action of the weather it has quickly disintegrated. The floor of the mausoleum is made of fired brick, one course thick, placed flat. In the corner to the right of the entrance there is a trap through which access may be gained to a small crypt under the floor. In it lies the body of a man in a shroud, which has not yet completely decomposed. This has given rise among some superstitious and fanatically disposed persons to the belief that these remains are incorruptible and holy. Because of this, so they say, fanatics sometimes make pilgrimages here.

According to the stories of the shepherds who pasture their flocks of

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sheep here, Kumukanov's mausoleum was erected at the end of the second half of the nineteenth century. It is thus a comparatively modern structure, but owing to the absence of attention and timely repairs, it is gradually falling into ruin. Architecturally or aesthetically this monument does not stand at a particularly high level, but it is original in construction and has characteristics peculiar to the national architecture of the Kazakh people.

To the north-west of Kumukanov's mausoleum and thirty or forty kilometres from it in the middle of the unpopulated steppe, where one rarely encounters adobe mausoleums, our attention was attracted by a small tomb-like structure of unusual form - the Taichik mausoleum. It lies in a small cemetery (beit) partly overgrown with tall grass. It is built of cheap adobe clay. The clays of this area are poor, sandy and of little use for making high-quality bricks. This material is thus only able to survive in buildings because of the dryness of the climate.

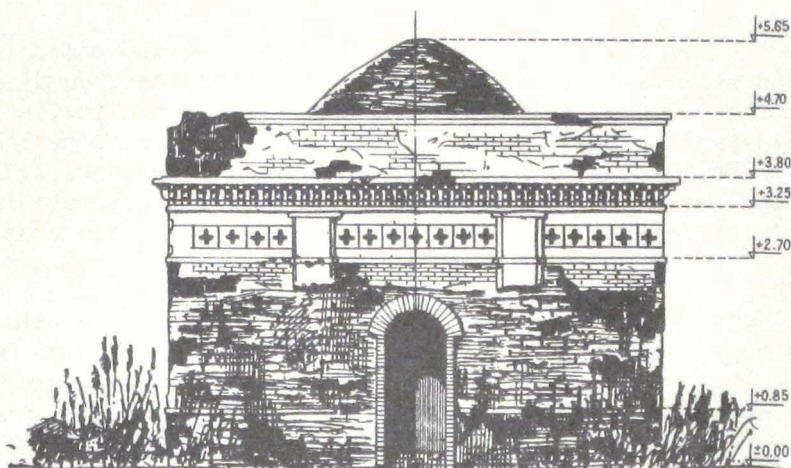
This mausoleum is a central dome-type structure with an identical pattern for all four elevations. They are, as it were, porticoes to a rotunda. The mausoleum has a single chamber and is built in the form of a cube with a drawn-out conoid dome. At the top of the dome a round opening has been left like the tyundyk (smoke-hole) of a yurt. One of the peculiarities of this monument are its four porticoes, which give it an imposing appearance; they are built on projecting buttresses topped by lancet vaults. The entrance is made in the southern wall in the shape of a small opening set 66 cm. above the ground to prevent animals from entering. The orientation of the entrance towards the south or south-east is a departure from the generally accepted rule of a west or south-west position. The intention here was evidently to imitate a yurt, whose entrance is usually made towards the south or south-east (to the lee of the wind).

Inside, projections in the brickwork correspond with the buttresses outside, and are similarly covered by arches. In making the corner arches, to form the transition to the octagon, the buttresses are placed at an angle of forty-five degrees to the wall. The dome rests on an octagonal drum, and is made by the false vault method. Through the action of time, and perhaps because of the nature of the brickwork, the outlines of the inner arches have assumed the shape of a ship's keel, which is not characteristic of Kazakh architecture. Keel-shaped arches are found as isolated examples, but, in general, ancient and non-imitative structures have lancet arches with sharp exterior curves.

At the level of the abutments of the inner arches there is a single row of brickwork around the whole perimeter of the walls like a zig-zag

SOME MONUMENTS IN THE WESTERN BET-PAK-DALA

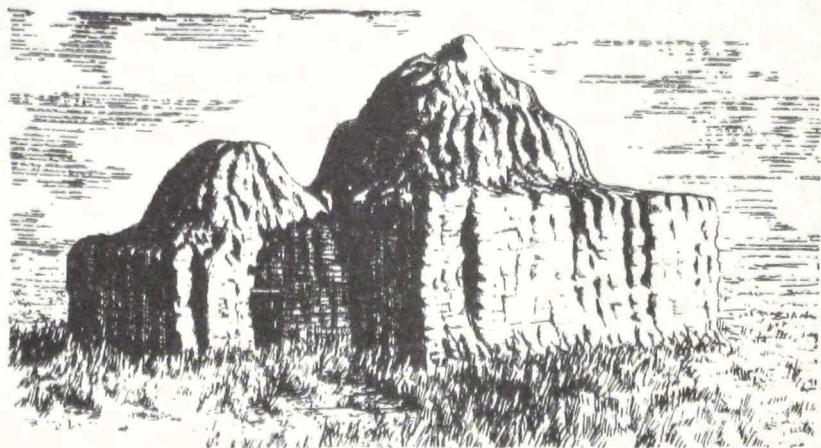
(Reproduced from *Izvestiya Akademii Nauk Kazahskoi SSR*, issue 5 in the series on mining, metallurgy and refining and buildings. Alma-Ata 1955).



Kumukanov's Mausoleum. Main facade.



Taichir Mausoleum. Main facade.



Anonymous Mausoleum of XVIII Century. General view.

belt, by which the builders apparently tried to give life to the interior. There is no plasterwork or decorative architectural detail in the interior at all. The floor is of dirt and set at ground level. On it there are two rectangular stepped sagan: one, of three steps, is raised higher to mark the grave of the head of the family - by tradition buried in the first place in a tomb to mark his position in life - and the other, of two steps, for his wife. Both sagan are plastered with a clay mortar and are in good condition.

The vaults and walls of the arches outside and the surface of the dome were at some time plastered, but have decayed under the action of the weather and the plaster has fallen off. The weathered contours of the structure, the grass-grown and cracked walls and arches give the building a somewhat picturesque appearance. Since there are no inhabited places in the vicinity, we were unable to collect any information about this monument and it is not mentioned in literature. Its date may be set only approximately by its style, the manner of its construction, the material used and its present state. Such features as the simplified construction of the dome and the use of cheap local materials are characteristic of the period of architectural decline in Kazakhstan (from the seventeenth to the middle of the nineteenth century). We are therefore inclined to assign the building to the second half of the eighteenth century.

Not far from the Taichik mausoleum, in the same Dzhideli-Konur area, is another mausoleum of interesting structure. It consists of two buildings in conjunction, one of which, the smaller, serves as an entrance porch, while the other is the burial chamber (gurkhan). Each part of the building is a separately centred composition. We were unable to establish the name of this mausoleum, and therefore call it, in view of its approximate dating, an anonymous mausoleum of the eighteenth century. Its plan is comparatively rarely encountered in Kazakh tomb structures. The building of a two-chambered tomb was evidently dictated by special considerations, and not merely to satisfy the claims of expediency. It seems to us to reflect the ideology of a society, and in particular the wish to provide a place of honour in the second room (gurkhan) for the head of the family, thus, as it were, stressing his position.

The outside surface of the mausoleum is stepped, and consists of three conical rings gradually rising upwards. On top of the large dome, on the analogy of many other tombs, a round opening has been left like the smoke-hole of a yurt, while the dome of the small entrance room is conoid without an aperture. To transform the plan from a square to an octagon the usual and traditional method of transverse arches in the

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corners is used. In this connection the construction of the entrance chamber has an original feature, for here primitive wooden imposts are used instead of corner arches to support the dome. In neither chamber is there any plaster on the walls. The entrance to the small chamber is made in the south-eastern wall and that into the burial chamber from the porch in the south-western. To keep unwanted persons and animals out of the rooms, the entrance openings are made with high thresholds. The floors are of earth and are at ground level. The building has no foundations, and is therefore suffering premature dilapidation.

The material used is adobe clay, easily procured on the spot. Despite the low durability of the material, the building, helped by the stout construction of the walls and the absence of rainfall, has well withstood the ravages of time, although the weather has had its effect on the outer surface of the walls. Through the absence of any written sources or oral traditions about this monument, we do not know the exact date of its erection, but, judging by the style, the construction and the state of the building on the analogy of others similar, we can assign it to the first half of the eighteenth century.

The three architectural monuments examined above, different in type, construction, materials, and date of erection, are characteristic examples of the work of national artists of the period lasting from the seventeenth to the first half of the nineteenth centuries. This was a time of political and economic disintegration for Kazakhstan, when frequent civil dissension and economic ruin brought with them a decline in building activity. However, we have inherited several monuments of this period which, although they may not be of great aesthetic value, should not be ignored. All these buildings, like most Kazakh monuments, are orders executed for individuals, unlike Uzbek monuments, which were usually erected by the State or by communities. Here the order would issue from individual representatives of the feudal aristocracy, whose taste and demands had a definite influence on the work of the builder.

Kumukanov's mausoleum has a heavy and badly proportioned appearance. Its architectural and constructional detail has been carelessly finished, with the exception of the cornice, the pilasters, and the entrance arch. But the mausoleum was built according to local practice and popular traditions, whose discovery and study must be our task until we have re-established the history of the development of Kazakh national architecture. The Taichik mausoleum is in this connection unique. Its dimensions are small, but give the impression of an artistically integrated structure. If it had been carried out in good and lasting material (such as, for example, fired brick) its fine architectonics would have been preserved. Its architectural and constructional details are in no way

different from similar elements in other analogous buildings of adobe clay, but they are adapted and executed here with greater taste. The third tomb also attracts attention by its general composition. True, there is not here the compelling quality that we find at Taichik. The mass hugs the earth, there is not the same slenderness and upward direction. Its uniqueness lies in its unusual plan and its large conical stepped dome.

In this article, which gives a description of three little-known monuments in the inaccessible Bet-Pak-Dala desert, the author has tried, by all the means at his disposal, to contribute to the work of collecting and systematizing architectural and historical material for the compilation of works on the history of the national architecture of the Kazakh people before the Revolution.

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CULTURAL AFFAIRS

THE DECISIVE STEP:

A TURKMEN HISTORICAL NOVEL

Reshayushchii Shag (The Decisive Step). By B. Kerbabayev. Moscow, 1952.

The modern Central Asian novel - Summary of the plot of The Decisive Step - A British version of the events described.

Of recent years, and particularly since the war, the creation of popular "national" literatures in the Central Asian republics is a subject which has received a great deal of attention from Soviet publicists. Broadly speaking the aim is to create in local languages literatures which reflect the lives and cultures of the various Central Asian peoples but which conform to a standard Soviet, and usually Russian, pattern in subject matter, spirit, and in style. A favourite medium, and one quite foreign to traditional Central Asian literature, is the novel.

To write with ease and distinction in a new and unfamiliar medium is a task which has baffled some of the world's greatest writers. It is not therefore surprising that the quality of the novels so far produced by Central Asian writers is not remarkable by international or even Soviet standards. Moreover many of those which have appeared have been criticized with a destructive violence hardly calculated to encourage novelists as a whole. Nevertheless, the appearance of writing not only in a new medium but in languages which until twenty-five years ago had been written very little, and in some instances not at all, must be accounted a literary phenomenon.

Novels by Central Asian writers can be more readily obtained in Russian translations than in their original form. Some of them, indeed, have only appeared in Russian in their full form, and of these The Decisive Step is one. It is, however, obvious that the Russian version represents a faithful translation from a Turkmen original. The Decisive Step, written between 1940 and 1947, is generally considered to be one of the most satisfactory Central Asian novels both from the political and from the literary point of view. Although it has been criticized

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for not putting the events of the 1916 Revolt into proper perspective, it is described in the Soviet Encyclopaedia (1953) as "showing the part played by the peasants in the Socialist revolution and their friendship with the great Russian people." In fact, however, the latter theme is hardly treated at all.

The Decisive Step is a narrative of historical events woven round a human story of the most slender description. The hero, Artyk, is made the central character merely as a matter of form and his romance and marriage with Aina are quite irrelevant incidents. Nevertheless, the selection of the novel as a medium does provide an excuse for much lively dialogue. The brief analysis of the book which follows is concerned primarily with the historical part. With a view to setting forth some of the facts about the objects and activities of the Malleson Mission, which figure prominently in the book, some excerpts are appended from an article entitled "The Twenty-six Commissars" written by General Malleson which appeared in the Fortnightly Review of March 1933.

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The story begins in the autumn of 1915 in the village of Gosh, situated on a canal connected with the Tedzhen-Kyal river. Khalnazar-Bai, a rich notable of the village, has just been appointed mirab (water-controller) of the canal.

Artyk, the hero of the story, is the son of a poor shepherd who, being unmarried, has no land of his own. All he has is the plot belonging to his mother; he also rents another plot. He is in love with Aina, the daughter of a well-to-do Turkmen of the same village. He is in revolt against the way in which the land is exploited by the bais and against the unfair distribution of the water. He is particularly opposed to Khalnazar-Bai whom he accuses of corruption in connection with the distribution of the land-plots and with the work on the canal.

Chernyshov, a Russian employee on the railway, informs Artyk of the impending revolution when both the Russian and the Turkmen poor will revolt against their taskmasters, the rich property-owners and bais. In the middle of June an order is received calling up the Turkmens for work behind the lines on 25th June. There is a meeting of protest at which Artyk speaks violently against the Tsar. The Russian military commander is, however, informed by the mayor that the population is quite ready to obey any call-up. News is later received that the Governor-General of Turkestan, General Kuropatkin, has postponed the call-up in order to allow

the harvest to be brought in. Hearing that Guldzhemal Khan, the widow of a former Governor of Turkmenia, is to go to Petersburg to petition the Tsar against the call-up, the villagers begin to collect money for her journey. In fact, however, Guldzhemal Khan never gets beyond Tashkent and all the money is lost. The date of the call-up is fixed for the 30th September 1916.

News of the outbreak of the revolt in Dzhizak reaches Artyk who resolves to take part in a similar revolt in Turkmenistan. The leader of the revolt is a certain Aziz Khan, who is in fact using it as a means of wreaking vengeance on the chief water-controller with whom he has an old quarrel. With Aziz Khan, Artyk takes part in the attack on Tedzhen. This attack, however, is defeated by the Russian military forces, and Artyk is arrested and put in prison. The call-up is then applied by force and a thousand Turkmens are despatched to Russia.

During 1917 there is a severe drought and famine in Turkmenistan, and the peasants receive the news of the Revolution with equanimity. The bais and rich people, on the other hand, are filled with alarm for the future of their property. Under Kerenskii's provisional government, a council of deputies is set up in Tedzhen, but only one of its members, Chernyshov, is a real Bolshevik - the rest being members of the moderate bourgeois opposition. Artyk is released from prison and returns to his village where he marries Aina.

Under the Provisional Government the condition of the Turkmen peasants is no better than before. Artyk, disgusted with the corruption of the cooperative society which is being set up in Tedzhen, decides to work for the overthrow of the Provisional Government. Hearing that he is to be arrested for his opposition to the cooperative society, Artyk proceeds to beat up its president, Kulikhan. At this moment news is received of the overthrow of Kerenskii's government. Turkestan passes into the hands of the Soviets but among them are a number of Social Revolutionaries, Mensheviks and bourgeois nationalists. At this juncture, Aziz Khan returns from Afghanistan whither he had fled after his defeat at Tedzhen. The starving peasants, the bais and rich people rally to him and he promises to protect them. In this way, two parties are set up in Tedzhen - the Soviets headed by Chernyshov and the other party headed by Aziz Khan. Chernyshov tries to persuade Artyk to join the Soviets, but Artyk distrusts them on account of the position still held by Kulikhan. He therefore joins Aziz and is put in command of one of his detachments.

Aziz Khan is visited by a certain Abdulkерim Khan who gives himself out to be an Afghan and an emissary of Habibullah Khan, the Emir of Afghanistan. He tells Aziz that the Emir has decided to profit by the

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confusion in Russia and to join Turkestan, and particularly Turkmenistan, to his own country. Abdul Kerim claims to have had conversations with the Khivan Khan, Dzhunaid in Tashauz and to have secured his cooperation. Aziz declares his readiness to support the Emir of Afghanistan.

In December 1917 a congress is convened in Kokand of the peoples of Turkestan, and the autonomy of Turkestan is declared. Niyaz Beg is appointed head of the delegation representing Turkmenistan. On his return to Ashkhabad he is approached by the same Abdulkerim who previously declared himself as an Afghan to Aziz Khan. This time he gives himself out to be a Turk called Hamid Bey and tries to find out how Niyaz Beg would react to the possibility of joining the Turkish forces then attacking in the Caucasus. He also asks Niyaz Beg what his attitude would be to the British if they should appear in Turkestan. To these questions Niyaz Beg gives an evasive reply although he knows that a British mission has already arrived in Meshed.

At a meeting of the National Committee in Ashkhabad, Artyk becomes convinced that this Committee is not concerning itself with the needs of the population and that Aziz Khan is determined to exploit it to his own advantage.

During the temporary absence of Aziz, the Red Guards under the command of Kulikhan attack Tedzhen and Khalnazar-Bai is killed. Artyk with his detachment is obliged to withdraw from Tedzhen. After meeting with Chernyshov, Artyk becomes convinced that in cooperating with Aziz Khan he has acted against the people, and that the Soviets regard him as their enemy.

At the time of Aziz Khan's forced withdrawal from Tedzhen, Kulikhan captured a quantity of arms from him. These he despatches to Tashauz with the intention of selling them there to his own advantage. But Dzhunaid Khan gets hold of these arms and returns them to Aziz, who in the meanwhile has set up his headquarters at Ak-Alan, a few miles outside Tedzhen. Artyk informs Chernyshov of Kulikhan's action, but Chernyshov is afraid to take any steps against Kulikhan on account of his popularity among the Turkmens. Kulikhan arrests Artyk and puts him in prison.

After Aziz Khan's defeat, Tedzhen passes into the hands of the Soviets, but shortly afterwards, the opposition to the Soviet regime in Turkestan begins to grow and Aziz Khan's forces situated near the railway constitute a special danger, as they threaten to cut off communications between Transcaspia and the centre. In order to liquidate Aziz Khan's forces, Osipov, the military commissar of the Turkestan republic, is sent to Tedzhen. But instead of attacking and disarming him, Osipov

enters into friendly conversations with Aziz with the object of obtaining his cooperation. He first promises to place him at the head of the Fedzhen Soviet, and later, begins to talk to him about the British mission in Meshed. Aziz refuses to have anything to do with the British, but at Osipov's suggestion he agrees to join forces with the Emir of Bukhara, provided that the latter agrees to share power with him.

The rest of the book consists mostly of a graphic description of the confused military operations in Turkestan between June 1918 and February 1920. The principal belligerents are the White forces operating from Ashkhabad, Krasnovodsk and Kaakhka, and the Red forces sent by the newly constituted republic of Turkestan. But the issue is complicated by the semi-independent forces under the command of Aziz Khan who, although he had originally started the revolt against Tsarist authorities, associates himself first with the Provisional and later with the White Governments of Ashkhabad. Other complicating factors are the activities of Dzhunaid Khan, operating from the Khorezm oasis, and the presence of emissaries of the Emirs of Bukhara and Afghanistan, and of the Turkish government. By the 21st July, 1918, the whole of Transcaspia was in the hands of the Whites, Soviet rule being confined to the Kushka and the Merv districts. It was just at this time that General Malleon arrived in Meshed to take charge of the Mission there, and much of the book is devoted to the activities of him and his officers, and of the small detachments of the 28th Light Cavalry and the 19th Punjab Regiment which he had at his disposal. The British are represented as being in league with Aziz Khan, to whom Artyk, the hero, continues to adhere, in spite of his hatred of the British. Later, when the British turn against Aziz, Artyk continues to support him declaring that "he can never be friends with the British bloodsuckers and that he spits on everything which emanates from the British".

The object of the Malleon Mission is described as "intervention" and as directed solely against the Bolshevik Government. Apart from the operations of the British Indian troops against the Red forces, the British aid afforded to the White forces is described as unimportant: Malleon simply gives them worthless money and with the same paper money buys up large quantities of valuable carpets, skins and other articles and despatches them across the frontier. The incident of the shooting of the twenty-six Baku Commissars is not described in great detail. It is, of course, assumed that it was organized by the British, but even though he knows this from his friend Chernyshov, Artyk still remains loyal to Aziz Khan who continues to oppose the Red forces. With the withdrawal of the British troops at the beginning of April 1919, the position of the Red forces rapidly becomes stronger. Ashkhabad is occupied on the 19th July 1919 and Krasnovodsk on the 6th February 1920.

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The "decisive step", which constitutes the title of the book, is apparently that taken by Artyk when he finally decides to leave Aziz Khan's side after the departure of the British forces. Until this time, however, he is torn between his friendship for Chernyshov and his admiration of Soviet ideals, and his loyalty to Aziz Khan. In fact, his whole career as described in the book is characterized by indecision, which can be explained by the extraordinary confusion prevailing at the time, a confusion which is most tellingly conveyed by the author.

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Great importance has always been attached by the Soviet authorities to the part played by the Malleston Mission in Turkmenistan, and particularly to the incident of the shooting of the twenty-six Baku Commissars. This, it has always been maintained, was the work of the Mission, a charge recently repeated in the current edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia. In his article mentioned above, General Malleston describes as follows the original objects of the Mission:

"Early in 1918, in view of the serious possibility of a Turco-German incursion in Central Asia, the British and Indian Governments took alarm and began to think of counter measures. A small mixed force under General Dunsterforce was sent from Mesopotamia to Northern Persia, with a view to the capture of Baku. The story of Dunsterforce has been written by its leader, and it is only necessary to say here that, after great difficulties and in face of a minimum of support from the authorities in Mesopotamia, Baku was occupied for a few days, but had to be abandoned because of the advance of superior Turco-German forces.

Apparently at much the same time as this Baku move was decided on, the British and Indian Governments thought of another scheme, in case the first should fail. This was to send a British Military Mission to Russian Central Asia with a view (1) to organize local resistance to a Turco-German advance; (2) to secure, if possible, the Central Asian Railway so as to deny its use to the enemy; (3) to get control of all shipping on the Caspian Sea; (4) to intercept enemy agents, and (5) to counter enemy propaganda."

After describing the appeal for help which he received from the Provisional Government of Transcaspia in July 1918, a body composed almost entirely of the rank and file of the railway workers, General Malleston says:

"Naturally it was a serious thing to embark on hostilities with the Bolsheviks in Central Asia with a mere handful of troops which would be operating at a distance of nearly two thousand miles from the nearest base, Quetta. On the other hand, it seemed hopeless to expect that the Bolsheviks, who in European Russia had now ceased to offer any sort of resistance to German penetration, would give us any facilities to obstruct or oppose a Turco-German advance via Baku and Krasnovodsk into Central Asia. On the whole, therefore, it seemed best that I should be authorized to support the Provisional Government of Transcaspia against the Bolsheviks."

Describing the aid actually given to the Provisional Government, General Malleson writes:

"All the help which could be immediately sent was a detachment of machine guns. These proceeded towards Merv and did great execution. But the enemy was in greater force and continued their advance in the direction of Ashkhabad. A very gallant regiment of Indian infantry, the 19th Punjabis, then stayed further advance. Later, but this was after the incident of the Twenty-six Commissars, by putting in the 28th Indian Cavalry, our forces decisively defeated the Bolsheviks, driving them back in full flight almost to the Oxus."

In dealing with the incident of the Twenty-six Baku Commissars, General Malleson explains that the only connection with, and control over, the Transcaspian Provisional Government which he was able to maintain was through their representatives in Meshed. The Commissars had been sent from Moscow to "liquidate" the situation in the Caucasus before cleaning up Central Asia. Caught up in the Turkish advance, and being unable to escape through the North Caucasus owing to the presence of Denikin and his White troops, they took ship to Krasnovodsk. General Malleson explained to the Transcaspian representatives in Meshed that the British mission did not desire that these Commissars should enter or remain in Transcaspia. But they had no desire to see them murdered. In fact they were much more valuable alive. General Malleson writes of the representatives:

"They agreed about the undesirability of the presence of these people in Transcaspia, but when I went on to ask that they should be handed over to us, alive, they demurred. Finally I had to press the matter strongly and say that if they could not meet us in this matter it might lead to a withdrawal of our assistance. They then said they would do their best to press their Government to accede to our wishes, but that in all probability it was too late, as the

twenty-six were not likely to be alive. 'it is a question,' they said, 'of their lives or ours. If they get to Ashkhabad they will bring about a revolution against us, and then all of us, not a mere twenty-six but many hundreds who helped to clear out Frolov ^[Ed. i.e. a Bolshevik leader] and his gang, will certainly be slaughtered. Clearly it is better the twenty-six should die, but if you insist we will endeavour to get them handed over to you.'

And later: "As a matter of fact, it was too late, and nothing we could have done in the time available could have saved them. At that period we had no troops and no British representative in Krasnovodsk, though we had both some weeks later. That port and its immediate neighbourhood was under the control of a Russian named Kuhn, a strong and pitiless man, as he had need to be, since no other sort survived long in the turmoil of the revolution. He kept himself largely independent of the Ashkhabad Government. Having barely escaped with his life from the Bolsheviks in Central Russia, and having had several attempts on it since he had established himself as the ruler of Krasnovodsk, he governed that place with a rod of iron. Whilst according complete individual liberty to everyone he instantly suppressed all political intrigues. To what extent he really received instructions from the Ashkhabad Government in the matter of the Commissars I know not, but I am of the opinion that even without such instructions he would have made away with them. As it was, he appears to have lost no time. He put them on a train ostensibly for Ashkhabad, but a few miles out from Krasnovodsk the victims were made to alight. They were all shot and buried in the desert alongside the railway track. The fate of the Commissars, and the action I had taken to get hold of them, were duly reported to Simla, and I was told to convey to the authorities in Ashkhabad the horror and detestation with which the Government of India viewed this cold-blooded crime."

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THE ROLE OF THE KAZAKHS IN THE
ADMINISTRATION OF KAZAKHSTAN

PROBLEMS OF "NATIVIZATION" IN THE YEARS 1920 - 1930

Introduction - Early measures of "nativization" - The "functional" method - Education of Kazakhs - Achievements up to 1930 - "Nativization" of the Party - Conclusion - Editorial note.

The following is the substance of an article by A.P. Kuchkin, which appeared in Istoricheskiye Zapiski, No.48, 1954 (published by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR: Institute of History), entitled "The Problem of the Nativization of the Soviet Apparatus in Kazakhstan in the First Decade of the Republic's Existence (1920-30)". The word here translated "nativization" is the Russian korenizatsiya - a word not found in most modern Russian dictionaries. The author of the article gives as a synonym natsionalizatsiya, which is found in dictionaries and in the encyclopaedias, but only with the meaning of "nationalization" in the usual sense. Korenizatsiya was in use during the period covered by the article to describe the process of appointing Kazakhs to responsible posts, or - and this is a meaning hardly covered by the English "nativization" - of seeing that those holding important positions in the government of Kazakhstan had a knowledge of Kazakh.

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The political foundation of the state structure established in the Soviet Union after the Revolution was the soviets. It is with the help of the soviets, and according to the path laid down by Lenin, that Socialism will be built even in backward frontier areas where there is no industrial proletariat; and it was to further this end that the soviets in such areas had to be "nativized", that is, composed of indigenous nationals. This task was one of the first to confront the

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newly formed Kazakh ASSR after 1920.

In the beginnings of Soviet power in Kazakhstan, the administration was everywhere in the hands of Russians knowing no Kazakh. All government business was transacted in Russian, while the greater part of the rural population of the republic knew no Russian at all. The Party and Soviet organs of Kazakhstan had thus to train Kazakhs for the republic's administration without resorting to "Kazakhization", i.e. the replacement of the existing administration by one exclusively Kazakh. "Kazakhization", it is true, was one aspect of "nativization", but, at the same time, in areas where there existed groups of other nationalities, these also were brought into the administrative organs.

First, the Kazakhstan Government adopted two official languages - Kazakh and Russian, and in regions of mixed population business and official talks were carried on in both. In the first years of the Kazakh republic the number of trained Kazakhs was negligible, and their training was impeded by the illiteracy of the Kazakhs. The number of literate Kazakhs in 1913 was less than two per cent, and even in 1926 less than ten per cent. The Kazakhstan authorities had a "formalistic" approach to the problem of "nativization" and conducted no wide-scale propaganda campaign, nor did they enlist the aid of the local Party aktivs.

The second session of the IVth meeting of the Kazakh Party Central Committee in 1924 proposed immediate measures of "nativization" - soviets in areas inhabited by Kazakhs were to be entirely composed of "Kirgiz" (Kazakhs) and in mixed areas to have half their members Kazakhs. This decree was used by bourgeois nationalists to serve their counter-revolutionary ends; they demanded the replacement of Russian and Ukrainian Party members in posts of responsibility by themselves. This was counter to the basic Party directives which said that "nativization" must be carried out in conjunction with the preservation and consolidation of the dictatorship of the proletariat and with the education of the local population in the spirit of Marxism-Leninism and internationalism. The "nativization" movement in Kazakhstan must therefore be in the hands of Communists.

The Vth all-Kazakh conference of the republican Communist Party in December 1925 discussed the existing practice of forming local soviets and put forward a motion for the reconsideration of the percentage method of selection. The kraikom of the Kazakh Party, meeting on 8th May 1926, and later the Kazakh Party Central Committee, favoured the introduction of a new method - the "functional" method. This was the filling of those posts in the administrative system, which had the most to do with the public, with Kazakhs or men knowing Kazakh. The Kazakh Party Presidium

meeting on the 27th May 1926 gave the republican Party the duty of listing the posts to be "nativized" immediately, and of creating courses and schools to educate Kazakhs to fill them. Schools were opened for Russians working in the administration to learn Kazakh.

In the case of these "nativized functions" business and accounts were to be transacted in Kazakh. Forty-two posts were marked for "nativization" in the next two years, while 13,000 "functions" were given dates for "nativization". Six courses were organized in the educational year 1926-7 to teach Kazakhs business methods and typewriting, and 335 workers passed them. 1,500 non-Kazakhs attended the Kazakh language courses. To cut short resistance to "nativization" an article was inserted into the Criminal Code laying down penalties for such action.

The bureau of the Party Krai Committee, in its meeting on the 6th October, and the December plenum of the Krai Committee in 1926 remarked on the opposition to nativization on the part of "bureaucrats and civil servants" and on the lack of propaganda explaining the importance of these measures. They therefore pronounced the preparation of qualified Kazakh workers unsatisfactory and opened a new campaign. On the 29th December 1926 the Sovnarkom of Kazakhstan gave the Narkom of education the task of elaborating a plan for organizing courses to prepare Kazakhs for government work and for teaching Kazakh to non-native workers. These courses, lasting six months, were organized in all soviet and cooperatives after the decision of the Sovnarkom of Kazakhstan on the 12th January 1927. Up to 1927 the results of "nativization" had been slight; it had affected only the heads of institutions and the lowest categories of workers, while the average official, who had more than any other to do with the population, was only very slightly affected by "nativization". By 1927, out of 11,068 "functions" in all provinces, 2,567, or 23.2 per cent, had been "nativized", while in republican institutions 195 of 842 "functions" had been "nativized", or 23 per cent. This was pronounced unsatisfactory by the bureau of the Party Krai Committee on the 20th March 1927 and the NKRKI blamed for it. This verdict was upheld by the VIIth all-Kazakh Congress of Soviets (March-April 1927) and subsequently by the Party Central Committee.

The Central Committee and the Sovnarkom therefore, on the 14th April and the 17th May, appointed the 1st October 1927 as the date by which all volost executive committees and aul soviets must go over to Kazakh for normal business, and the 1st January 1928 as the corresponding date for mixed districts. At the same time it was declared necessary that all instructions and decrees should be issued in Kazakh and Russian. The VIIth all-Kazakh Party Conference, in November 1927, approved the "functional" method of "nativization".

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The Krai Committee of the Party, in January 1928, reported that the administration of the republic was 23 per cent "nativized" and the volost executive committees and aul soviets entirely so. The existence of resistance to these measures on the part of central and provincial institutions was again affirmed.

"Nativization" in 1928 progressed unevenly in different provinces - from 34 per cent in the Ural province, to 19 in Syr-Darya, and 13 in Semipalatinsk. The Krai Committee of the Party introduced new measures on the 4th June 1928 to ensure the education of the young Kazakh worker at every level and for extension teaching in Kazakh for officials of the higher levels. Nevertheless, "nativization" developed slowly because of the existence of deviation to nationalism - both Kazakh and Great Russian. Some of these deviations were to be found in members of the Government, although this was not then known. To break this nationalist resistance the Kazakh Party Committee set up a new commission at the January 1929 meeting to initiate and supervise the execution of measures of "nativization". However, the measures taken were insufficient; in March 1929, of 11,879 posts, 2,683 or 22.6 per cent, had been "nativized". In the year 1926, 7,509 Kazakhs were prepared for office and accounting work on special courses; on 21 such courses in 1927, 8,647 men were trained, and in 1928-29, on 13 courses, only 311 men. This sharp decline in the numbers of specialists is explained by the careless selection of men to take the courses, by the lack of teaching equipment and the lack of ability of the teachers, all of which had weakened the interest of those who could have furthered the project.

At the VIIth all-Kazakh Congress of Soviets in April 1929 strong opposition was displayed to "nativization" on the part of heads of institutions. The December plenum of the Krai Committee in the same year pointed out that the whole process was being delayed by the widespread illiteracy still prevailing in Kazakhstan. The general educational level was too low. In the educational year 1929-1930, 130,000 Kazakh children were receiving primary education and about 5,500 secondary education of one sort or another. There were 3,500 Kazakh teachers in primary schools and 600 in secondary schools. About 75 per cent of the teachers in primary schools had only a primary education, and it was this that was responsible for the low general level of the national schools. In 1928 the first establishment of higher education in Kazakhstan was opened - the Abai Teacher-Training Institute in Alma-Ata, and in 1929 the Veterinary Institute was opened there; in 1929-30, 900 Kazakhs were receiving higher education.

The Presidium of the Kazakh Party Central Committee on the 21st January 1930 directed the Government to work out a five-year plan of

"nativization", to force the pace of "Kazakhization", and of the preparation of "cadres" for the construction of Socialism. The achievements in "nativization" up to 1930 are these:

the personnel of the forty-one republican institutions was 20.2 per cent "nativized"; the personnel of local organs of government, 25.2 per cent; and heads of offices, 35.5 per cent. Government directions were issued in Kazakh and Russian and official correspondence was carried on in Kazakh and Russian areas of mixed population, and in Kazakh in areas of purely native population, where the courts and legal actions were entirely "nativized". The percentage of Kazakhs in VUZ, tekhnikums and factory schools was 44.5 in 1927, 46.6 in 1928 and 53.4 in 1929. From 1926 to 1929 altogether about 10,000 Kazakhs received some form of higher education in VUZ, tekhnikums, factory schools or on special courses. Not all of these, however, finished their courses, and not all of those who finished were suitable for the work of "nativization". The number of Kazakhs on the further education courses at times reached 20-40 per cent, but it was remarked that on these courses, and indeed in all the branches of education mentioned, the Kazakhs were subjected to teaching with bourgeois-nationalist tendencies. However, these tendencies had little or no effect. It is a striking tribute to the intensity of the efforts of the Government during the Soviet era that, in 1930, 34 per cent of Kazakh children were receiving some sort of education, where before there had been almost complete illiteracy. There was a set policy of promotion of Kazakhs, when they were sufficiently talented, to executive posts.

The "nativization" of the Party in Kazakhstan accompanied the campaign for the "nativization" of the administration. The number of Kazakhs in the Party rose from 6,645 in 1925 to 18,369 in 1929. The percentage of Kazakhs was in 1925, 30.7, in 1926, 36.5, in 1927, 36.5, in 1928, 37.9, and in 1929, 41.2. The number of Kazakhs in responsible posts rose similarly from 104 in the guberniya Party committees in December 1925 to 240 on the okrug committees in 1929. In 1929 45 per cent of the members of the leading soviets were Kazakhs and 19 per cent of other national minorities, and 52 per cent of all the lower soviets in Kazakhstan were Kazakhs. The growth of the industry of the country also increased the number of Kazakhs taking part in it; in 1926-7 of 46,768 workers in the republic 16 per cent were Kazakhs, and in 1929-30 34 per cent of 163,966. Kazakhs formed 26.5 per cent of all the clerical workers of the republic in 1929.

These figures show that, although much was achieved during the period in question, the main task of "nativization" was completed in subsequent years. The factor impeding progress was the educational backwardness of the Kazakhs. These are the achievements in the field

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of education: the number of Kazakhs receiving education in all types of school was 21.7 per cent in 1920-1, 31.2 in 1927-8, and 38.3 in 1932-3. In 1927-8, 140,000 Kazakhs learned to read and write; in 1929-30 almost half a million. Of all Kazakhs 90 per cent were illiterate in 1928, but only 60 per cent in 1930. Towards the end of this year there were five VUZ in the republic, and 60 per cent of their students were Kazakhs; there were 800 various Kazakh cultural institutions, twenty newspapers were being issued in Kazakh, nine magazines, and thousands of books.

"Nativization", despite all the shortcomings, had brought the administration nearer to the mass of the people; this was especially the case after collectivization had eliminated the kulaks and bais as classes. The struggle was now not for quantity, but for quality. So in the first decade of the existence of the Kazakh republic, a successful solution of the central problem not only of Kazakhstan, but of the whole Soviet Union, was reached - the problem of the building of Socialism, to make possible a bold and confident progress towards Communism, the peak of human happiness.

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Although the author seems to assume, in his conclusion, that the foundations of the "nativization" policy were firmly laid by 1930, and that the process has since been completed, it should be remembered that since the period covered by the article, the Slav population of Kazakhstan has greatly increased, and that with the settlement schemes attendant on the new lands campaign it is today rising even more sharply. On the other hand, between 1926 and 1939 the Kazakh population dropped by nearly one million and there is no evidence to show that it has since risen. These considerations suggest that in the present situation where already nearly one half of the total population of the republic is non-Kazakh, complete "nativization" of government administration is no longer a practical proposition. The likelihood of more than a minute proportion of new settlers learning the Kazakh language seems almost equally remote.

It is interesting that an article, by Romeo A. Cherot, which deals with the same subject, appeared in the American Slavic and East European Review for February 1955 with the title "Nativization of Government and Party Structure in Kazakhstan, 1920-30". Whereas Mr. Kuchkin has written what is essentially an exposition of successive Party conferences and resolutions, Mr. Cherot has used many valuable contemporary statistical sources, not least among them the complete text of the 1926 census, and gives many more detailed analyses of the national composition of the

various organs of the administration. His figures sometimes differ from those of Mr. Kuchkin, notably in the proportions of Kazakh to Russian in the Party organizations, although these differences are very slight. A list of some of Mr. Cherot's sources is appended below.

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SOVIET ORIENTAL STUDIES :

THE NEED FOR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

Introduction - Pre-revolutionary Russian orientalism - Achievements of Soviet orientalism - Shortcomings of Soviet oriental studies - Measures for their improvement - Editorial note.

The following is an abridged version of an unsigned article (Za dalneishii podyem sovetskogo vostokovedeniya) which appeared in Kommunist No. 8 of May 1955. This article is one more indication of the increased attention now being paid to oriental studies in the Soviet Union. Other indications have been the appearance of Smirnov's book Outline of the History of Islamic Studies in the USSR, (analysed in the last three issues of Central Asian Review), the strong Soviet delegation sent to the International Congress of Orientalists held in Cambridge last year, and the new periodical called Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye (Soviet Orientalism) of which the first issue appeared in May 1955.

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The task before Soviet orientalism is the creative study of the history, economy, and cultures of the peoples of the East. It must explain those great changes that have taken place in the East during the past few decades and reveal the forces and influences that have shaped them.

Pre-revolutionary Russian orientalism in certain aspects far outstripped the work of West European and American orientalist of that time. The works of that great founder of Russian Chinese studies, N.Ya. Bichurin, of the Sanskritist, P.Ya. Petrov, of the specialist in Pali, Prakit, and modern Indian languages, I.P. Minayev, of the turcologist, V.V. Radlov, of the Arabist, V.R. Rozen, and of others have received world-wide recognition and have advanced world orientalism. Despite the historically determined limitations of pre-revolutionary Russian orientalism, with its formal philological approach to the documentary study of the material and spiritual culture of the peoples of the East,

it is noteworthy that a number of Russian orientalists, in contrast to Western orientalists, did not shrink from criticizing colonial policies and protesting against racial discrimination. Moreover, they threw light on several social and economic problems and, to some extent, expressed sympathy for the oppressed peoples of the East.

The progressive, humanist direction of Russian social thought of the pre-revolutionary period had an important influence. Belinskii, Dobrolyubov, and Chernyshevskii displayed a deep interest in the East. V.G. Belinskii persistently castigated West European colonizers when they asserted that China and India played no great part in world history. "China and India are countries in the fullest sense historic" wrote Belinskii, "China is a great phenomenon.. India deserves an honourable place in history."

The October Revolution opened up the widest possibilities for a genuine scientific development of orientalism. Thanks to the unremitting attention which the Party and Government have paid to the development of learning, Soviet oriental studies, steeped in Marxist-Leninist theory and permeated with the best traditions of pre-revolutionary Russian orientalism, have risen to a new level. In the twenties, an all-Russian Association of Orientalists was inaugurated; journals devoted to oriental studies began to appear and special institutes were established in Moscow and Leningrad. In the years following the Revolution were published most of the notable works of such Soviet orientalists as V.V. Barthold, of B.Ya. Vladimirtsov, the expert on Mongolia, of the Arabist, Yu. Krachkovskii, of the Sinologist, V.M. Alekseyev, and of the Indian expert, A.P. Barannikov. More recently, Institutes of Oriental Studies have been founded by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and the Uzbek Academy of Sciences. Relations between orientalists of the People's Democracies and the progressive scholars of other countries have greatly improved and are continually being consolidated. Especially fruitful are the ties with the scholars of China, Mongolia, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. A number of works on various aspects of oriental studies have also been published. Particularly notable is the collective work China in the BSE (Great Soviet Encyclopaedia) edition, to which both Soviet and Chinese writers have contributed. Soviet and Mongol historians have collaborated in a history of the Mongolian People's Republic. The Institute of Oriental Studies of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences has issued the first two volumes of A Collection of Eastern Manuscripts, and Avicenna's The Canon of Medicine which had not previously appeared in any European language. The Institute of Oriental Studies of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR has prepared and issued Chinese-Russian, Urdu-Russian, and Hindi-Russian dictionaries. A collection of articles, The Korean People's Democratic Republic, and a comprehensive study, The Peoples of Africa, have been

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published by the Institute of Ethnography. Scholars of the Institute of Oriental Studies are at present engaged in research on the history, economy, literatures and languages of China, India, South-East Asia, and the Arab East. For this, archaeological and palaeographic data, early and late mediaeval sources, and modern documentation on the economic and political development of these areas have been collected. In the Department of History of Moscow University a number of serious works on the modern history of Turkey and the development of capitalist relations in India have been produced.

Nevertheless the development of Soviet orientalism still does not correspond to the demands made on it. Many important problems of great educational and practical significance appear to have been altogether ignored. Our oriental philological studies, especially those dealing with the languages and literatures of the peoples of India, South-East Asia and Africa, leave much to be desired. Our African studies in particular are very badly organized. Experts in African studies - never very numerous - are few and far between. The countries of the African continent are studied only in the Institute of Ethnography, elsewhere Egypt is the only country dealt with.

Research into the history, economy and culture of the African peoples, their struggle for national liberation and the unmasking of the colonial policy of imperialism in Africa is one of the immediate tasks before Soviet orientalism. In the sphere of recent history it is necessary to study the crisis of capitalism in the East, and to expose the specific features of the development and nature of the forces underlying the people's revolution in China, Mongolia, Korea and Vietnam. Other subjects in which research and publication must be developed are: the history of the masses as opposed to that of dynasties and rulers; the formation of the working class and the agrarian problem, which, as is known, underlies the anti-imperialist, anti-feudal movement of the peoples of the East; and the development of the forces of production.

A serious shortcoming of many historical works is the absence of a thorough analysis of the policies of Tsarist Russia in the neighbouring countries of the East. Despite the reactionary nature of the Tsarist regime, the annexation of Central Asia and Transcaucasia to Russia had a progressive significance. The annexed peoples entered into trading relations with a country far more advanced economically; moreover, they encountered not only Tsarist colonizers but came into contact with the working masses and with the representatives of the leading Russian social thinkers of the day. The peoples of Central Asia and Transcaucasia together with the Russian people carried on the struggle against autocracy, and, under the leadership of the Russian working class,

achieved their national and social liberation. In the two-volume work, Novaya istoriya stran zarubezhnogo vostoka, issued by Moscow University, for instance, the authors do not fully reveal the part played by Russia in liberating Bulgarians, Roumanians and other peoples from Turkey. Nor are the colonial policies of the Western powers in the Near and Middle East sufficiently laid bare. A substantial flaw in the many modern histories of the countries of the non-Soviet East is the underestimation of the culture of these people. The problems of its ideological superstructure and the interaction of influences are hardly ever touched upon; and grave errors in the assessment of the role of the national bourgeoisie are allowed to pass. In many works, the progressive aspects of Kemal's struggle against imperialism have been ignored. When considering the part played by Gandhi our orientalists have not always proceeded from the actual (historical) situation in India. Nor do our orientalists adequately investigate the colonial policies in Asia of individual imperialist powers, particularly of America. The problem facing Soviet orientalists consists in revealing the real causes which hinder the development of certain eastern countries.

The availability of essential materials relating to a particular subject under investigation is, of course, an indispensable condition for fruitful study. Hence the need for a thorough improvement in the editing and publication of the invaluable collections of Eastern manuscripts in the Institute of Oriental Studies and other institutions. The issue in Russian of the works of scholars of the People's Democracies in the East would also be of value. The Soviet orientalist must be familiar with the latest achievements not only of other Soviet but of foreign scholars as well. Soviet historians and orientalists, however, do not make full use of the opportunities offered them by our archives, which contain documents and material concerning the external and the internal affairs of the non-Soviet countries of the East.

Soviet oriental philology has not on the whole attained a level commensurate with the problems it has to deal with. Certain of its branches as, for example, the Tibetan language, have been almost completely neglected. Too little work is also being done in the field of South-East Asian and African languages.

Soviet orientalists are required to wage an incessant fight against all manner of falsification and misrepresentation by means of which the imperialists attempt to disarm ideologically the peoples of the East and to "justify" colonial enslavement. Abroad, a number of serious works by scholars of undoubted integrity have been published; along with these, however, others of a pseudo-scholarly type have appeared which openly call for the support of the most reactionary and venal elements. In other

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instances "scholars" contend for the active interference of their governments in the internal affairs of other countries on the pretext of giving them military or economic "aid". Particularly zealous in this respect are American "orientalists".

Since the dawn of the Soviet regime there has grown up in our country a whole generation of talented and capable scholars and orientalist. However, the number still falls short of the growing needs of Soviet orientalism. The training of specialists in the philology and economy of China, India, the countries of South-East Asia, and the Arab East is progressing very slowly. We still have very few philologists with a thorough knowledge of oriental languages and sources. Yet such knowledge is essential equipment for a serious student of orientalism as it provides access to all the hitherto unknown sources on the ancient, mediaeval, and modern history of the East and assists in its objective and scientific interpretation.

The legitimate interest which the Soviet people manifest in the foreign East must find a reflection in the curricula of middle schools and higher educational institutions. Unfortunately, in the existing curricula of middle schools far less attention is paid to the history of the Oriental peoples than to that of the West. In the history faculties and pedagogic institutes the history of Western countries receives greater prominence and is studied far more thoroughly. The Ministry of Public Instruction and Higher Education should rectify this position by providing better textbooks for schools and by raising the qualifications for entrants to the Institutes of Oriental Studies and to the universities, as well as the standards of graduates.

To achieve a real improvement in the training of orientalists it is essential not only to strengthen the history and philology sections of the Oriental Departments of Moscow, Leningrad and the Central Asian Universities but to organize properly the employment of specialists who have advanced training in oriental studies.

One of the vital problems of our oriental studies is the coordination of research of the various oriental institutes of the Soviet Union. At present the connections between orientalists of Moscow, Leningrad, Central Asia and Transcaucasia are poor. Various kollektivs are engaged on research work on the history of the Soviet and foreign East but there is lack of cooperation with the leading centres. The Institute of Oriental Studies must become a genuine centre coordinating the work of all Soviet orientalists.

The publication of the new periodical Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye

has an important part to play in promoting the work of our orientalists. It has before it serious tasks: the interpretation of the main problems of orientalism and the organization of creative discussions. The journal must acquaint its readers with the latest works of foreign orientalists. If it fulfils its tasks, as it must, Soviet oriental studies will be raised to a new and higher level.

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The foregoing article does perhaps rather less than justice to the volume and range of Soviet publications on oriental subjects since the Revolution. As early as 1924 the Leningrad Oriental Institute (since merged in the Moscow Academy of Sciences) began to produce works which, although for the most part written by orientalists of the previous regime, bore evidence of a new approach. The claims of classical antiquity were not to be disregarded, but the main emphasis was to be on modern social and political developments and on the modern as opposed to the classical forms of eastern languages.

Until recently Soviet attention has been focussed principally on the Middle East and on the Muslim peoples living in the USSR, but even before the war some important works were produced on Far Eastern and Indian languages and history. As indicated in the Kommunist article, Africa and South-East Asia have so far been somewhat neglected, but an effort is to be made to make good this deficiency.

Although an idea of the quantity and range of Soviet publications on oriental subjects can readily be obtained from bibliographies and book catalogues, their contents and importance are matters which have so far received scant attention in the West. This is partly due to the fact that the Russian language is not ordinarily included in the linguistic equipment of Western orientalists, and partly because almost all Soviet oriental research is known to be informed by Marxist political considerations. The difference between the Western and Soviet approaches to oriental studies is indeed very marked. Most Western scholars embarking on the study of eastern history, religion, philosophy and ethics, do so in a spirit of sympathy and respect. Soviet scholars, on the other hand, while admitting the importance of eastern cultures, are largely concerned with the process of razoblacheniiye or the unmasking of what they regard as the deadening effect of outworn eastern customs and beliefs, which, they allege, have been deliberately perpetuated by Western "capitalist-imperialism". The strictly "scientific" approach on which Marxism insists brings to oriental studies the same kind of enthusiasm which a

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bacteriologist brings to the study of the cause, course, consequences, and ultimately to the eradication, of pernicious diseases.

Soviet academic authorities are for their part aware and highly critical of the Western attitude towards oriental studies. They now, however, advocate much closer attention to the work of Russian and foreign "bourgeois" orientalists which they consider contains much that is of value for Soviet scholars. There is so far little sign of a similar realization on the part of Western scholarship. In linguistics and philology Soviet scholarship has produced much valuable work, particularly that dealing with the modern forms of eastern languages such as Arabic and Persian, of which little or no cognizance or advantage has been taken by the West. Again, comparatively little notice has yet been taken by the West of the vast work of elaboration and russification of the Turkic languages of Central Asia and the Caucasus carried out by Soviet orientalists. This work may be repugnant to Western scholars, but it is of great importance and bears evidence of considerable learning and research. The same can be said of much Soviet writing on eastern history and culture. Its accuracy, objectivity and the positive contribution which it makes to learning may be doubted; but its examination is essential if the nature and potentialities of Soviet eastern policies are to be properly apprehended.

The Kommunist article makes it clear that the authorities are by no means satisfied with what has so far been achieved. A great expansion of oriental studies is envisaged and this will evidently include the sphere of classical antiquity in which Western scholars have so far more than held their own.

The increase in Soviet interest in classical antiquity and the evident desire to profit from the works both of pre-Soviet Russian and of Western orientalists might give rise to hopes of an impending change in the Soviet attitude towards oriental studies in general. If the expressed wish for closer intercourse with Western scholars is put into practice there would certainly be a response from the West and much mutual advantage might result. A change in the Soviet attitude is not of course impossible, but judging from the introductory note to the first issue of Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye, it is not imminent. Although a wider field of study is advocated the negative aims of "unmasking reactionary ideologies" and denigrating Western relations with the East are still to receive high priority.

The first number of Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye has been received too late for detailed analysis but it is hoped to undertake this in later issues of Central Asian Review.

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NEWS ITEMS

The following news items refer to the first six months of 1955. It is hoped to include as a regular feature of the Review similar items of news which are of interest but on which there is insufficient material for an article. Items are arranged by republics, and a list of abbreviations of their sources is given at the end.

KazakhstanFirst television transmitter for Kazakhstan

The building of a television transmitter in Alma-Ata will begin in 1956 and is to be completed in 1958. It will be housed in a three-storey building, with a 200-metre mast, to be constructed in the grounds of the Alma-Ata tekhnikum of the Ministry of Communications. Transmissions will normally be received within a radius of 60 - 70 kilometres, but to the north of Alma-Ata they should be received up to 180 kilometres away. At present transmission is made from Moscow, Leningrad, and Kiev. A station is shortly to open in Tashkent. [KP. 20th May]

New coal pits at Karaganda

During the first four years of the present Five-Year Plan eight new pits have been opened in the Karaganda coalfield. Twelve more are now being sunk; three of them are in the new town of Sarani, and five in the new area of Churubai-Nurin. The latter eight mines are expected to yield as much coal as the whole of the Karaganda basin does at present. [KP. 10th June]

Exploitation of Kustanai iron ore

Work has begun on the building of the Sokolovsko-Sarbai kombinat near Komsomolsk, not far from Tobol, in the Kustanai oblast. The presence of iron ore here was first remarked in 1950 by a pilot, Surgutanov, who noticed considerable deflection in his compass when he flew over the area. After five years of work by geologists, work has begun on the excavation of a huge quarry, to be 350 - 400 metres deep,

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at Sokolovskaya. The companion quarry at Sarbai is to be even deeper. A railway will link the electric railway system of the quarries with the stations of Sokolovskaya, Predotbalnaya, and Fabrichnaya, and with the line from Kustanai to Tobol. A concentration plant will be built near the quarries, from which the ore will be sent to Magnitogorsk or Chelyabinsk. A new town to house the workers is also to be built five kilometres from the works. The plant should come into operation in two or three years. More than 100m. cubic metres of earth will be excavated, and more than 800,000 tons of concrete are to be used to build the kombinat. A concrete plant will be built nearby. [KP. 20th April]

Uzbekistan

Restoration of historic buildings at Bukhara

The restoration of the madrasesh of Ulugbek, built in 1417-18, has just been completed. The work was done under the guidance of the master-craftsman Shirin Muradov, an honorary member of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, who has restored the "stalactite" in the gateway to its former state. Thirty-five buildings in Bukhara have now been placed under the care of the State, and in 1955 over 1,500,000 rubles are to be spent on their restoration. In 1954, the corner part of the Miri-Arab mosque, the summer mosque in the Abdulaziz-Khan madrasesh, the Labi-Khauz tank, and the Khonako Divan-Beg mosque have been repaired. [FV. 5th April]

Opening of new irrigation canal

The Iski-Angar canal, 184 km. long, which runs from the Dargom river to the Kashka-Darya river, was opened on 27th April with a ceremony at the head of the canal at the river Dargom. The canal will irrigate 33,000 hectares of land in the Samarkand and Kashka-Darya oblasts, and will water 140,000 hectares of grazing ground. 11m. cubic metres of earth have been excavated to make the canal. The work was done by 20 - 25,000 kolkhoz workers from the adjacent oblasts. At the ceremony the oblast Party secretaries said that over 15,000 Komsomol members had taken part in the building of the canal. [FV. 28th April]

Tadzhikistan

Chance discovery of archaeological remains

Three Kaganovichabad school children have found in the dried-up bed of the Kumsangyr canal the skeletons of an adult and a child together with

a narrow-necked jug, a twined ring, and a ring set with a stone. Archaeologists from the Tadzhik Academy of Sciences have identified the remains as those of nomads who lived in Khuttal in the fourth or fifth centuries A.D. [KT. 11th March]

Agricultural output for next five years

The Fifth Plenum of the Central Committee of the Tadzhik Communist Party was held on 30th and 31st March 1955. The Second Secretary, N.S. Obnosov, read a report on "Practical means of fulfilling the decree of the January Plenum of the all-Union Party Central Committee, entitled Increasing the output of the products of animal husbandry." In his report he said that in 1960 Tadzhikistan must produce 1m. tons of cotton; the output of meat must be twice that of 1954, of milk 2.4 times, of eggs 1.7 times, and of wool 2.3 times. This would mean, for every 100 hectares of cultivated land, an output of 15 centners of meat, 67 centners of milk, and 175 kg. of wool; and for every 100 hectares of grain sown, an output of 22,000 eggs. [KT. 3rd April]

Teaching of Russian in Tadzhik schools

A conference lasting three days was held in Stalinabad of teachers of Russian in non-Russian schools. They remarked that Tadzhik pupils were learning to read Russian but not to speak or write it. The existing textbooks were too dull, and grammatical rules were not put in an easily memorizable form. Pupils had far too small a vocabulary at the end of their courses. [KT. 12th April]

The role of the Party in higher educational establishments

The recently held republican conference of VUZ Party secretaries resolved that Party secretaries must in future be free to engage in Party work without being hindered by their teaching duties. The directors of institutes were all too ready to solve the problems of student delinquency by expulsion; they should take steps to ensure that public opinion among the students discountenanced such behaviour. At the time of the conference there were said to be over 19,000 students in the higher educational establishments of the republic. [KT. 2nd June]

Central Asia's largest hydroelectric station

The foundations of the Kairakum hydroelectric station, to be the largest in Central Asia, have been completed. Work on this station has been proceeding since 1951. The reservoir basin has been excavated and the frames of the power-station erected. The walls of the basin and the

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frames of the buildings are now being covered with concrete. When completed, the station will supply industries in Leninabad and Tashkent with power.

[KT. 19th May]

Turkmenistan

Afforestation around Krasnovodsk and Tashauz

The heavy rainfall in March has greatly assisted the work of afforestation in Turkmenistan. 13,000 hectares are to be planted in 1955; this year the Krasnovodsk oblast afforestation authority has already planted 2,843 hectares near Dzhebel and Kum-Dag with saxsaul, cherkez and kandym. (See article "Science versus Sand" in this issue of the Review.) The Tashauz authority has planted more than 1,750 hectares of desert around the cultivated regions of the oblast with drought-resisting trees.

[TI. 6th April]

Kirgizia

New satirical magazine

A new monthly satirical magazine in Kirgiz will soon be published in Frunze, beginning with the number for July. It is to be called Chalkan (The Nettle).

[SK. 2nd June]

Conference of geologists

A conference on the geology of the "polymetals" of Central Asia opened in Frunze on 3rd June under the auspices of the all-Union Academy of Sciences, Ministry of Geology, and Ministry of Non-Ferrous Metallurgy, and of the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences. In the course of the conference more than twenty papers were read by scientists from Moscow, Leningrad, and the neighbouring republics to Kirgizia. The papers were about such subjects as "The tectonic zones of Central Asia", "The study of Upper Palaeozoic stratification and volcanic formations and polimetal ores", and "Hydro-chemical methods of searching for deposits of lead and zinc".

[SK. 4th June]

Abbreviations

KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda

PV for Pravda Vostoka

KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana

TI for Turkmenskaya Iskra

SK for Sovetskaya Kirgiziya

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

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

A S E L E C T E D L I S T

The following is a selected bibliography of source material on Central Asia which appeared in Soviet publications in the second quarter of 1955. The list does not claim to be comprehensive and includes only material not used in the body of the Review. The bibliography is divided into sections on agriculture, cultural affairs, geology, industry, and topography.

Agriculture

Antipov-Karatayev, I. & Belyakova, L.

Vsemerno povyshat plodorodiye oroshayemykh pochv Tadzhikistana. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.4, p.20-24. 1,500 words. (The authors describe the means of maintaining the fertility of old ploughland by the "rational" management of the humus content of irrigated and non-irrigated soils. The article includes five tables showing:

1. The rate of accumulation of root mass and humus in a 0-45 centimetre layer of heavy argillaceous serozem.
2. The distribution in percentages of humus and structural aggregates in the irrigated serozem of the Vakhsh Valley depending on the depth of ploughing in of organic matter.
3. The gross cotton harvest in centners per hectare in the Vakhsh Valley in relation to the depth of ploughing in of organic fertilizer.
4. The gross cotton harvest in centners per hectare in the Gissar Valley in relation to the depth of ploughing in a layer of 2-year lucerne.
5. The distribution of humus and structural aggregates in a layer of cultivated and irrigated serozem in the Vakhsh Valley in the spring of 1954.)

Barayev, A. Iz opyta osvoyeniya tselinnykh i zalezhnykh zemel v Kazakhstane. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.4, p.9-15. 3,000 words. (The area of the new lands ploughed up in Kazakhstan in 1955 are

given in million hectares and the best means of cultivating various crops are discussed.)

Dontsov, V. Kak nashe zveno vyrashchivayet 80 tsentnerov urozhaya khlopka. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.3, p.22-24. 1,000 words. (A descriptive account by the Hero of Socialist Labour, Shamurat Musayev of the methods of cotton cultivation in the Akhunbabayev kolkhoz, Keness raion, Kara-Kalpak ASSR.)

Eremenko, V. & Shchupakovskii, V. Ispytaniye metodov obrabotki pochvy T.S. Maltseva v polivnom i bogarnom zemledelii Uzbekistana. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.6, p.43-46. 1,000 words. (A description of an experiment in land cultivation by the Maltsev method, carried out by the Ak-Karak experimental station.)

Kazakov, V.E. & Kondakov, S.I. Vozdelyvaniye sudanskoi travy pri oroshenii. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.3, p.18-20. 440 words. (A brief but informative article about the cultivation of Sudan grass in the Alma-Ata oblast.)

Khanazarov, D. Uspekhi Kara-Kalpakii v razvitii Khlopkovodstva. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.3, p.9-16. 3,300 words. (The author, the Minister of Agriculture of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR, describes the achievements of the leading workers, MTS and kolkhozes. The targets for 1955 are also given.)

Khodzhamuradov, Kh. Nash opyt vyrashchivaniya vysokikh urozhayev tonkovoloknistogo khlopka. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.4, p.15-20. 2,200 words. (A description of the cultivation of fine-fibred cotton in the Zhdanov kolkhoz, Mary raion, Turkmenistan.)

Kochetkov, A. Polivy khlopchatnika pri suzhennykh mezhduryadyakh v Gissarskoi doline. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.6, p.35-40. 1,400 words. (A description of a special method of irrigating cotton in the Gissar Valley. The article includes 9 tables showing the quantity of buds and flowers on one cotton plant in relation to the frequency of irrigation in 1952, 1953 and 1954.)

Koldayev, A. & Kondratyuk, V. Agrotekhnika pri kvadratno-gnezdom razmeshchenii khlopchatnika i prodolno-poperechnoi obrabotke. Khlopkovodstvo,

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1955. No.6, p.17-22. 1,800 words.
(A fairly specialized illustrated article. Describes the square-cluster distribution of cotton and its longitudinal-transverse cultivation in Central Asia, Kazakhstan and Transcaucasia.)

Kovtanyuk, M.S. & Isayenko, N.P.

Rezervy povysheniya urozhainosti yarovoi pshenitsy v severnom Kazakhstane. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.4, p.23-25. 1,200 words. (The authors discuss the various possibilities of raising the harvest of spring wheat in Kustanai grain sovkhos.)

Kropachev, L.P. Obrabotka pochvy po metodu T.S. Maltseva v Karagandinskoj oblasti. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.5, p.56-58. 1,100 words. (A comparison of the wheat harvests in the kolkhozes Stalin, Toksumak, Put k kommunizmu and 30 let Kazakhstana in the Karaganda oblast where Maltsev's methods of ploughing and sowing have been adopted.)

Kulikov, V. Predevoi agrokompleks v khlopkosovkhoze "Pakhta-Aral" Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.6, p.16-28. 4,300 words. (An interesting and informative article on the achievements and future prospects of the cotton sovkhos Pakhta-Aral in South-Kazakhstan oblast. Technical details on irrigation and methods of planting are given. The article is illustrated.)

Mikhailovskii, O. Podnyat kulturu lyutsernovodstva v kolkhozakh Uzbekskoi SSR. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.3, p.32-37. 2,200 words. (The author discusses the importance of lucerne and the possibilities of its further development in Uzbekistan.)

Reshetkina, N. Vertikalnyi drenazh na zasolennykh zemlyakh Uzbekistana. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.5, p.47-50. 1,500 words. (Technical details on vertical drainage of cotton fields.)

Shubin, I. Opyt kvadratno-gnezdovogo sposoba vyrashchivaniya khlopchatnika v Murgabskom oazise. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.5, p.13-16. 1,700 words.
(A technical article describing the cultivation of fine-fibred cotton of the 2-IZ variety in the Bairam-Ali experimental fields. The article includes two tables showing:
1. The growth and development of cotton in relation to the number of plants in the cluster.
2. Results of experiments in square-cluster sowing of cotton.)

Stasenko, P. & Urman, I.

Puti povysheniya urozhainosti tonkovoloknistogo khlopchatnika. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.4, p.8-14. 2,800 words. (An illustrated, fairly informative article on the cultivation of fine-fibred cotton.)

Troitskii, A.A., Firsov, B.R. & Kreidik, B.M.

Novye progressivnye agrotekhnicheskiye priemy vozdeleyvaniya khlopchatnika v Tadzhijskoi SSR. Tadzhijskosizdat. 1955. 128 pp. (Written by agronomists, the book describes new methods of cotton cultivation. A review of the book by A. Anastasov appeared in Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.5, p.61-4. 2,500 words.)

Vagner, K.

Iz opyta raboty agrokhimicheskoi laboratorii vtoroi Yangi-Yulskoi MTS. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.5, p.21-23. 1,200 words (The author sets forth the recommendations made by the Yangi-Yul MTS laboratory with regard to the use of mineral fertilizers in cotton cultivation.)

Zakharchenko, V.

Nasyshchnye voprosy melioratsii i osvoyeniya novykh zemel v Turkmenii. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.6, p.60-64. 1,400 words. (An illustrated technical article on the development of new lands in Turkmenistan.)

Zapryagayeva, V.I. Turkestanskaya archa v Tadzhijistane. Priroda, June 1955. p.102-104. 1,200 words.

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3. Anthracite coals of Yavlonsk.)
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the Kursk oblast in the new lands of Kazakhstan and of the progress
so far made in the building of the new town provisionally called
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A quarterly review of current developments
in Soviet Central Asia and
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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.

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RUSSIA AND THE KAZAKHS
IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Since 1951, Soviet writers and publicists have laid great emphasis on the benefits which accrued to Central Asia and Kazakhstan from their incorporation in the Russian Empire. In 1937, Pokrovskii's theory of the "absolute evil" of this incorporation had been replaced by the theory of "the lesser evil". It was then explained that bad though the Imperial conquest and annexation were for Central Asia, its annexation and ultimate administration by other powers such as Britain or Germany would have been very much worse. In 1951, this doctrine of the lesser evil was pronounced to be incorrect since on balance the result of the incorporation was not bad but good: it had brought the peoples of Central Asia in contact with the great Russian people.

The pre-eminence of the Russians among all the peoples of the Soviet Union is a theme which seems to have been gaining ground for some years, particularly in literature directed towards the Central Asians. But although tributes have frequently been paid to the achievements of individual Russians, including certain of the Tsars, the notion of the Imperial State or of Imperial governments as a beneficent force is one which appears so far to have been scouted. The appearance therefore of an article warmly applauding certain aspects of Imperial governmental policy connected with the incorporation in the Russian Empire of what is now Kazakhstan and strongly criticizing the treatment of that policy by certain Soviet historians constitutes something of a new departure.

The June issue of the Bulletin of the Kazakhstan Academy of Sciences contains under the heading of "Discussions" an article by S.E. Tolybekov entitled "The Reactionary Struggle of the Kazakh Sultans and Batyrs of the Lesser Horde against Voluntary Union with Russia". The source most frequently quoted in this article is Materialy Po Istorii Kazakhskoi SSR (Source-material for a history of the Kazakh SSR), published in 1940, which presumably formed the basis of the official history of the Kazakh people first issued in 1943, a work recently subjected to severe criticism. As will be apparent from the following abridged version of Tolybekov's article, he disagrees on several fundamental points with M.P. Vyatkin, formerly regarded as an authority on Kazakh history and author

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of a number of works on the subject. Vyatkin is indeed almost the only Soviet historian directly quoted by Tolybekov; he refers, however, often with approval, to the works of many pre-Soviet writers.

. . .

The Reactionary Struggle of the Kazakh Sultans and Batyrs of the Lesser Horde against Voluntary Union with Russia

by S.E. Tolybekov

"In the 15th century, as a result of the destruction of the Tatar-Mongol regime, a powerful centralized Russian state was formed. Russia emerged on the world arena as a gigantic force which acted as a liberating influence on all the countries of the world where the reactionary Tatar-Mongolian conquest held sway, and among these countries was Kazakhstan."

The Kazakh nomadic khanates were formed on the basis of an extremely backward but extensive nomadic cattle rearing economy and constituted military, semi-feudal and tribal units moving over the waste and dried-up steppe lands of the central part of what is now Kazakhstan. This spread of a nomadic economy over the vast expanse of the desert was not a progressive development, but rather one of the reactionary consequences of the Tatar-Mongolian domination. In the 15th century, although the Kazakh cattle-breeding economy was slightly in advance of other similar medieval economies, it was none the less an anachronism at a time when the break-up of feudalism was in progress and capitalism was developing. A cattle-breeding economy can only be developed when it is combined with hay and grain cultivation and passes on to a stable basis; otherwise it must disappear as did the economies of the Dzhungarians, Nogais and other medieval societies which followed a warlike and nomadic way of life. In the 16th century, the Nogais disappeared from their territory on the left bank of the Volga from the Kama to Astrakhan and along the northern and north-eastern shores of the Caspian Sea. Their downfall was not due to their having been deprived of their pasture lands, any more than the critical situation of the Kazakhs in the 18th century was due to their having been squeezed out of their pastures by the Russians. The reason is to be found rather in the essence of nomad economy, with its endless intertribal wars and feuds.

Many students of the pre-Revolutionary history of Kazakhstan have failed to understand the reason for the disintegration of the economy of

the Kazakhs in the 18th and the beginning of the 19th centuries. They wrongly assumed this collapse to be the direct result of the acceptance by the Kazakhs of Russian subjection. In 1940, for instance, M.P. Vyatkin wrote that "the acceptance of Russian subjection by Khan Abul-khair in the thirties of the 18th century facilitated the attack of feudal Russia on the Kazakh Steppes." It is quite incorrect to describe in this way the beginnings of the union of the Lesser Horde with Russia. "In the first place, the Kazakh Steppes were not conquered by the Russian state, and the incorporation of the Lesser, and later of the Middle and Greater Kazakh Hordes was carried out by their own free will. In the second place, the union of the Lesser Horde with the Russian Empire did not involve the restriction of its territory or of its nomadic practices. The isolated punitive expeditions carried out by Russian frontier troops in reply to the marauding expeditions of the Kazakh batyrs, in the course of which many innocent Kazakh villages also suffered, cannot be regarded as a general campaign of conquest against the Kazakhs carried out by the Russian state."

Denial of the progressive significance of the voluntary union of Kazakhstan with Russia has served as a theoretical basis for the glorification of the reactionary attacks by innumerable Kazakh batyrs and the sultans who held up the process of incorporation. Supporters of this theory describe all the plundering operations of the Kazakh batyrs in the 18th and 19th centuries as a struggle of "the simple people" for pasture land, and consequently as a national struggle against the "seizure" by the Russians of Kazakh lands, and the restriction of the Kazakh people to "barren deserts". So far from limiting the extent of Kazakh territory, the union resulted in its being greatly extended. After the successful operations against the Dzhungarians in 1729 the nomadic peregrinations of the Kazakhs of the Lesser and Middle Hordes extended in the north to the rivers Ishim, Ubagan, Tobol, Uy and Or, while in the west they occupied the vast territory between the Mugadzhzar mountains and the Ural river, which had formerly been occupied by the Kalmyks. After the defeat of the Dzhungarians by the Chinese government in 1758, the Kazakhs reached the left bank of the river Irtysh and Lake Zaisan.

The establishment of a common frontier between the Russian state and the Kazakh Hordes exercised a civilizing and stabilizing influence on the latter. Vyatkin contends that "in the beginning of the last decade of the 18th century the poverty of the masses increased. It was particularly felt near the frontier line where the influence of the alliance between the feudal upper class of Kazakh society with the representatives of colonial powers had a special effect on Kazakh economy. A proof of this poverty is to be found in the extent to which the Kazakhs took up fishing on the lower course of the Ural river. It is well known that the Kazakhs

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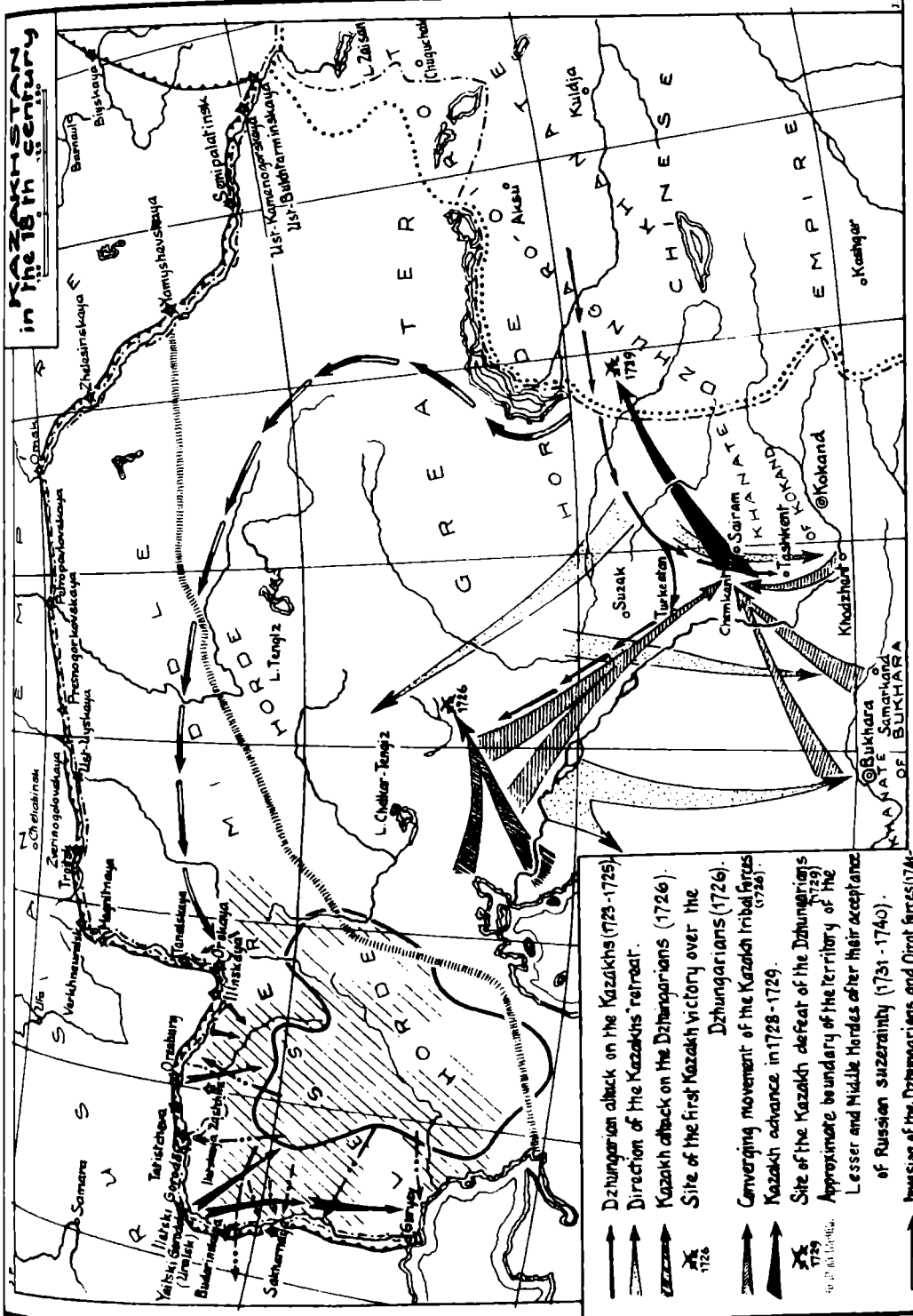
despised fishing and only took to it as a dour necessity." There is no truth whatever in this theory. The starving Kazakhs approached the Russian fortified line in search of protection and because they were attracted by the prospects of a more stable existence. This was borne out by A.K. Geinns, writing in 1866 in the Voyennyi Sbornik. The poverty of which Vyatkin speaks was brought about not by the incorporation of Kazakh territory in the Russian Empire but by the internecine feuds of the batyrs and sultans.

The construction in the 18th and 19th centuries of military forts on the frontiers, and later in the heart, of Kazakh territory was the only sensible and progressive step which the Russian government could take to change the long-standing semi-feudal and tribal-nomadic life of the Kazakh people by teaching them agriculture and by inculcating in them the Russian system of state control. The Russian government was influenced by a desire to substitute agreement, quiet and general order for tribal squabbles, plunder and "baranta" (the driving away of cattle).

There were three reasons why the Kazakh nomad economy did not suffer the complete extinction which was the fate of the Nogai and Dzhungarian economies. The first was that the Kazakhs made themselves much more mobile by substituting camel pack-transport for the old-fashioned Mongolian wheeled carts. They also confined their flocks to horses, camel, sheep and goats and almost entirely abandoned the breeding of large horned cattle. They were thus able to move in very large bodies, which was better from the security point of view and also resulted in their preserving the patriarchal family way of life. The second reason was the vast extent of the territory over which they roamed, a state of affairs which continued even after their incorporation in the Russian Empire. The third and most important factor, which came into operation in the fourth decade of the 18th century, was the protection afforded by the Russian government to the Kazakhs as being their own subjects. The beneficial influence of Russian economy and culture on the economy and way of life of the Kazakhs gradually increased as the Kazakh and Russian peoples moved closer together.

The whole of Kazakh economy was governed by cattle-breeding and by the extent to which natural conditions and the attitude of neighbouring peoples or tribes made this possible. Kazakh society cannot be described as fully feudal since all classes were ignorant and primitive alike. The "ruling class" were the owners of cattle and these were the batyrs or sultans who were in reality family or tribal chieftans. Real power was only wielded by a khan if he combined his titular position with the practical wealth of a batyr or a sultan. The "exploited classes" were the owners of smaller herds of cattle, and the slaves. "The social and

KAZAKHSTAN in the 18th century



- Dzungarian attack on the Kazakhs (1723-1725)
- Direction of the Kazakhs' retreat.
- Kazakh attack on the Dzungarians (1726)
- Site of the first Kazakh victory over the Dzungarians (1726)
- Converging movement of the Kazakh tribal forces (1728-1729)
- Kazakh advance in 1728-1729
- Site of the Kazakh defeat of the Dzungarians (1729)
- Approximate boundary of the territory of the Lesser and Middle Hordes after their acceptance of Russian suzerainty (1731-1740)
- Invasion of the Dzungarians and Oirat forces (1741-1742)
- Approximate frontier of the Dzungarian-Oirat Khanate in the middle of the 18th century.
- Attacks of Syym Datov's detachments on the frontier line.
- Russian punitive expeditions against the insurgents.
- Fortified frontier line of Russia at the end of the 18th century.

Areas of revolt under the leadership of Syym Datov.
 // 1783-1786; ○ 1789-1797.
 - - - - State boundaries at the end of the 18th century.
 ☆ Russian fortified points.

economic life of the Kazakhs at this stage (i.e. the incorporation in the Russian Empire) was characterized by low greed, sordid avarice and by the plunder of the weak and unprotected by the strong. All such abominable expedients as rape, slavery, brigandage, theft, deception and treachery were in full swing." In order to put an end to this state of affairs it was necessary to liquidate the batyrs, and to change the economic life of the people by combining cattle-breeding with agriculture and thus gradually to transform the nomadic and patriarchal way of life. There were indeed progressive elements among the Kazakhs who yearned for a more peaceful and stable mode of life; but they were unable to do anything without outside help, and the only aid to which they had recourse was that afforded by Russia. The first man to take the initiative in securing Russian aid was Abulkhair, the khan of the Lesser Horde, who at the same time had constituted himself a leader and a batyr, and who was popular among all three Hordes on account of his brilliant victory over the Dzhungarians. In accepting Russian sovereignty Abulkhair represented the interests of the progressive elements among the Kazakhs and he took no account of the hostility of the reactionary batyrs and sultans nor of the so-called ancient traditions and customs which had so long vitiated the Kazakh nomad khanates. In spite of certain defects of character, he was not simply an opportunist as many of his enemies in the contemporary Orenburg government made out, but a man of real sagacity who was sincerely in favour of the spread of Russian influence in the Kazakh Steppes. A contemporary writer, P.I. Rychkov, bears witness to the fact that Abulkhair was instrumental in founding the city of Orenburg and many other towns in the Kazakh Steppes. These new developments resulted in the foiling of a Dzhungarian invasion attempted in 1740. The Dzhungarian forces advanced as far as the fortress of Orsk, but they were turned back by the commander of the fortress threatening retaliation on behalf of Russia's new Kazakh subjects. Had this invasion succeeded the plight of the Kazakhs would have been worse than in 1723, the year "of great hunger". Thereafter the Dzhungarians to some extent made common cause with the reactionary batyrs and sultans against the "incorporation", which they did not consider to be in their interest.

After the incorporation, the internecine feuds among the Kazakhs increased. The reason for this was that the whole issue of incorporation had become the main bone of contention between the progressive and reactionary elements among the Kazakhs. Both the Lesser and Middle Kazakh Hordes were convulsed by these feuds, which culminated in the assassination of Abulkhair in 1748. The real cause of the continued dissension among the Kazakhs was not understood by the Russian authorities of the time. Both then and later the theory was from time to time advanced that the Russian government had adopted the wrong way of controlling their new subjects and were acting in defiance of old-

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established customs. Many Soviet historians have fallen into the same error with the result that a faulty interpretation has been put on many important phases of Kazakh history connected with the incorporation of the Kazakhs in the Russian Empire. "Vyatkin's contention that the Russian government fortified its frontiers with the object of conquering Kazakhstan is too one-sided and therefore incorrect. The "emergency plan" of Neplyuyev (the Governor of Orenburg) was a precautionary and preventive measure against the constant attacks of the Kazakh batyrs on the Russian frontier settlements and on the peaceful Kazakh auls which had become subject to Russia. It did not constitute part of the basic policy of the Russian government. This policy aimed at the gradual attachment of the nomads to the soil, at developing among them a settled existence, and consequently, at changing their way of life and at checking the unbridled use of force and plunder."

Beginning with the movement organized by Srym in 1787 all the movements and revolts which followed and continued up to the middle of the 19th century were on the one hand the result of intertribal dynastic quarrels, and on the other, demonstrations by reactionary elements against the beneficial effects of incorporation in the Russian Empire. Srym was in touch with Turkish official emissaries and the hand of Britain was also at work in the background. He was in addition under the reactionary influences of the Muslim authorities in Khiva and Bukhara. The Kazakh people were opposed to Srym's movement which aimed not at the abolition of the reactionary Kazakh Khanate as many historians suppose, but at transferring the power of the Lesser Horde from the hands of the progressive dynasty of Abulkhair into those of the reactionary sultans such as Kaip, the Khan of Khiva. Vyatkin maintains that Srym's movement resulted from the Russian threat to turn the Lesser Horde into a colony and that it therefore bore the character of "a struggle for freedom". He claims that the law of 1756 laid down the general line of Russian policy which was "to weaken colonial and semi-colonial dependencies and to confine them to what Stalin has described as 'barren deserts'." To believe this would be to believe that the effect of the incorporation on the Kazakh people was entirely bad. It would follow that in the course of nearly two centuries the Russian government merely pursued a reactionary policy, whereas its policy, directed as it was towards facilitating the voluntary adherence of Kazakhstan to Russia, was a progressive one. Vyatkin has used Stalin's words out of their context for they were uttered with special reference to the Stolypin reforms of the imperialist period.

The movements which followed that of Srym were all of similar character: Sultan Karatay Nuraliyev (1805-1816), Sultan Arungaza Abulgaziz (1815-1821), Batyr Zholaman Tlenshin (1819-1824), Sultans Sarzhan

and Kenesary Kasymov (1830-1840). They were all manifestations against the new ideas which had arisen and been developed in connection with the union of the Kazakhs with Russia.

The process of assimilating the whole Kazakh people into the Russian Empire was a very long one and extended over more than 130 years. The reason for this was the overestimation by the Russian government of the significance of the 18th century Kazakh Khans who took on themselves the obligations of subjection to Russia. The government did not realize or take into account the social composition of the Khanates; they were extremely weak and primitive state organizations which enjoyed practically no power in time of peace. The Kazakh clan leaders only obeyed their Khans while it was in their interest to do so.

One of the principal features of Kazakh nomad society was slavery. It was still in the process of suppression in the twenties of the 19th century and was only abolished in the fifties when complete union was finally achieved.

"The union of the Kazakh hordes with Russia, conditioned as it was by the social and economic as well as by the external political situation in the first half of the 18th century, was an historical event of great significance which sprang from the fundamental interests of the Kazakh people. It gradually exercised a beneficent influence on the whole course of the further economic and cultural development of the Kazakhs. The history of the union of Kazakhstan with Russia is the history of the struggle of political groups, of the struggle between progressive and reactionary tendencies in Kazakh society... The patriarchal-feudal upper crust of Kazakh society (sultans, batyrs, biis and bais) as a whole conducted a long and energetic fight against the voluntary union of the Kazakh people with Russia and in favour of the preservation of the old foundations of an outworn and backward pastoral and nomadic society."

. . .

It is of considerable interest to compare the foregoing article with the relevant articles in the current edition (1950-1953) of the Soviet Encyclopaedia. These ascribe the union of the Kazakhs with the Russian Empire to fear of the Dzhungarians and it does not attach to Abulkhair's victory over them the same importance as Tolybekov does in his desire to emphasize the voluntary character of the union. The Encyclopaedia holds

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that after the union the Kazakhs were under pressure from two sides: from the sultans, and from the tsarist officials who confiscated the best land. In the Encyclopaedia "the sultans and batyrs" are never bracketed together as they are by Tolybekov. The sultans are uniformly stigmatized, but the batyrs are generally approved. This approval is even extended to Batyr Srym to whom Tolybekov takes particular exception. The separate encyclopaedia article on Srym finds that his movement did not bear a sufficiently "class" character, but it affirms that his declaration of war against the sultans and the tsarist government had the support of the Kazakh people. There is thus a marked discrepancy between the official version of this period of Kazakh history published as late as 1953 and the version now put forward by Tolybekov. It may be assumed that the latter represents the current official view and thus a new phase in historiographical policy.

The extensive quotation from contemporary and 19th century tsarist writers on 18th century Kazakh history is part of another relatively new phenomenon which has already been noticed in Central Asian Review. This, together with the tributes now paid to certain aspects of tsarist policy and even of tsarist administration may seem to support the theory that Soviet historians are now trying to establish some kind of continuity in Russia's dealings with Asian peoples from the earliest times until the present, with the emphasis laid rather on the genius of the Russian people than on the peculiar merits of international communism. This process, if it is consciously or subconsciously in operation, is bound to be gradual. Although some progress has been made in the "unmasking" (razoblachenije) of former "national heroes" such as Srym, Kasymov, Ablai and Shamal, the more difficult task of whitewashing the "enemies of the people" of the "imperialist period" such as Stolypin, Muravyev and Kaufmann has not yet been tackled. The possibility of its ever being tackled may seem remote; but the tergiversations of Soviet historiographical policy have already been so great that even this possibility cannot be excluded.

H I S T O R Y

CENTRAL ASIA BEFORE AND AFTER
THE REVOLUTION:

A STUDY IN BLACK AND WHITE

In its Bulletin No.48 for 1954 the Institute of History of the Moscow Academy of Sciences published a long study by Professor S.I. Yakubovskaya entitled "The Elimination of the State of Inequality among Nations (on the basis of the history of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan)". (1) An abridged version of this article, which amounts to some 22,000 words, is given below.

The volume of Soviet writing on Central Asian historical subjects alone is very considerable and, from the western point of view, much of it is prolix and repetitive. It is often moreover inconsistent in its conclusions and interpretations, which appear to change according to the policy of the day. It is, nevertheless, important to keep Soviet writing on Central Asian history under as close scrutiny as possible for two reasons: firstly Soviet writers alone have access to Tsarist and Soviet official archives and to archaeological discoveries, however selective and partial their use of these may be; secondly, the periodical changes in historical interpretation afford some insight into the psychological undercurrents of Soviet, or perhaps one should now say, Russian thought and policy.

In dealing with Soviet historical writing it is not possible, as advocated by Lytton Strachey in another context, to "row out over that great ocean of material and lower down into it, here and there, a little bucket, which will bring up to the light of day some characteristic specimen to be examined with a careful curiosity." It is extremely difficult to prepare concentrated extracts from Soviet historical studies, of which the essential features often elude definition in western terms; and the most conscientious precis may fail faithfully to reflect the spirit of the original. Perhaps the best expedient is from time to time to select what appears to be an authoritative summing-up of Soviet historical views at a given moment and to set forth its purport as fully as space permits. The article at present under consideration seems to

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be of this category. It is of particular interest as having been published just before what is widely greeted as a détente in the Soviet attitude towards the non-communist world. It follows the stereotyped method of painting the darkest possible picture of Central Asia before the Revolution in order to show what has been done since in the best possible light. There are some indications that this method may be going out of vogue and one of them can be found in the first article of this issue of the Review. It would be premature to attach great importance to these indications but it is plainly useful to record them.

. . .

The purpose of this article is to survey the essential stages in the process of eliminating the inequality among nations, as they are illustrated by the history of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan.

In explanation of the significance of the Soviet social order, as a liberating force, the author in the course of her dissertation gives a description of the state of the peoples of these territories on the eve of the October Revolution.

At that stage of her history Tsarist Russia had achieved some degree of development as a capitalist Power, but in matters of rural economy she was still backward. Survivals from the times of feudalism and serfdom, which still lingered in the system of Russian imperialism, acted as a powerful brake on the economic development of the country; yet the bourgeoisie, anxious to preserve its solidarity with the monarchy and the land-owning class, made no effort to remove such anachronisms as the oppression and exploitation of the various peoples of the country.

There was considerable oppression of every description in Russia at this time; the people had been subjected to plunder by the monarchy and ruling classes who had to some extent turned Central Asia into a "semi-colony". As world capitalism developed there arose a tendency towards the suppression of nationalism and towards economic and cultural contacts between the different peoples. This tendency could be seen even in multi-national Russia. The national territories which had become part of the Empire, were closely bound to the central regions - a state of affairs which strongly favoured the development of the natural resources of the national territories, and which was supported by European Russia. Nevertheless, under capitalism this approach to the nationalities was in direct opposition to the coercive, imperialist methods of unification

then in operation. The policy of the ruling classes aimed at the exploitation of the productive resources of the national territories. The living conditions of the peoples of these territories were very hard, and they were backward both economically and culturally.

Central Asia and Kazakhstan constituted a useful additional source of raw materials and agricultural products to the economy of European Russia. The urban population in these territories was, however, negligible, as was the organized working class, although groups of workers were beginning to form. As Russia regarded Central Asia and Kazakhstan as colonies, she had perforce to set up industrial enterprises and these were mainly connected with the processing of raw cotton.

The newly formed local Uzbek bourgeoisie, which faithfully supported the Tsarist regime, acted chiefly as middlemen although it was also active in industry. It associated itself with the ruling classes in their plunder of the Uzbek people, and at the time of the socialist revolution, openly declared itself against it, thus "attempting... to turn Uzbekistan into a colony for foreign capital." The majority of the Uzbeks, about 90 per cent, were engaged in settled agriculture. These people were cruelly exploited both by the feudal bai and by avaricious traders. By entangling the peasants in protracted and specious transactions, the cotton traders used to ruin them, often taking even their land from them. The condition of the peasants was rendered even harsher by the burden of taxation, and the fact that the Imperial Government had pegged down the price of cotton in order to keep the prices of industrial and consumer goods low.

In the territories subsequently included in the Turkmen SSR, there was no industry and the number of persons working for what small enterprises there were totalled little over 2,000. In Kazakhstan the first mines and foundries appeared at the close of the 19th century, and were owned mainly by Russian capitalists. These enterprises were on a small scale, and the numbers engaged on them was not greater than 8,200.

Life was extremely hard for the workers of Central Asia; the working day was 12 to 14 hours, and wages were low. The peoples were oppressed by the ruling classes, and the disposal of lands, pasturage and water was in their hands. In the emirate of Bukhara and the khanate of Khorezm the position of the peasants was, in actual fact, that of serfs; they performed feudal tasks and paid feudal rent as well as State taxes and dues. The opening in Central Asia of State and private banks made the position still worse for the masses. In Kazakhstan and Kirgizia the nomads bred cattle, but 60 to 70 per cent of the cattle were owned by the feudal ruling class. Besides cattle-breeding the feudal bais also engaged in trade and used to

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employ hired labour on a considerable scale. At the same time, as part of the inducement to Kazakhstan to join in the general development of an all-Russian economy, increased supplies began to appear on the Kazakh home market, an impetus being given simultaneously to the settlement of Kazakhs on the land.

Apart from Kirgizia, which was as yet unaffected, the foundations for the development of capitalism in Central Asia and Kazakhstan had been laid before the October Revolution. But in the pre-revolutionary period the peoples of the national territories had not yet passed through the stage of industrial capitalism.

As a result of the ruthless oppression exercised by the Tsarist regime, the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan remained markedly backward in matters of culture. In Uzbekistan, at this time, the proportion of literacy was not more than 1.8 per cent and in Turkmenistan not more than 0.7 per cent. In these regions there was neither a national theatre nor any literature in the native tongue, and of all the newspapers published there was only one in the Uzbek language. The position was equally unsatisfactory with regard to health and epidemics were widespread.

"The broad masses of the people of these regions languished under the oppression of Tsarism and of local exploiters and their hopes were centred on the war which the working class, under Bolshevik guidance, was waging against Tsarism and exploitation by bourgeois landlords." With these words the author terminates her exposition of the state (as she sees it) of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan prior to the October Revolution, and proceeds to depict the significance of the liberating function of the socialist revolution.

The renaissance of the peoples of the national territories derived its origin from the new social and political order founded by the Revolution. The general measures taken by the Soviet Government with a view to the abolition of political oppression, that is, the nationalization of the land, natural resources, forests, railways, banks and industry, had an effect of the first magnitude on the economy and social development in all the national territories. These measures laid the foundation for the establishment of a socialist way of life. This new way of life provided an economic basis from which the problem of the "elimination of inequality" among the nationalities and the assimilation of backward and mainly peasant peoples into the constructive order of socialism, could be solved.

As one of its first acts, the Soviet Government instituted full

equality of rights in the spheres of political, economic and cultural life. In its dealings with "All Muslim workers of Russia and the East" the Council of Peoples' Commissars declared: "From now onwards your faiths and customs, your national and cultural institutions shall be free and unmolested. Organize your national life freely and without hindrance. Your rights will be preserved by all the power of the Revolution and its organs."

The Soviet Government recognized immediately the sovereignty of the Turkestan Soviet Republic which was formed in 1918, the people of which expressed their firm desire for a close association with the Russian Republic.

The elimination of inequality was accomplished during the construction of socialism throughout the Union. In his work on "Taxation in Kind" Lenin, while emphasizing the backward state of the national territories, set as a task the transition from pre-capitalism to socialism by by-passing capitalism. In his pledge at the Xth Party Congress, Stalin showed how the essence of the nationalities problem lay in the abolition of the existing state of backwardness of certain nations, and in affording these nations the opportunities of catching up with European Russia.

In the resolution passed at the Xth and XIth Party Congresses, ways and means of overcoming the economic and cultural backwardness of the Soviet East were elaborated. The most important points were the setting up of industrial centres in the backward areas, the formation of a proletariat from amongst the native workers, socialist reconstruction of agriculture and a strengthening of Soviet rule, and the development of a culture which was national in form and socialist in content.

Great importance was attached to the national-political demarcation of the territories of Central Asia and Kazakhstan; a concept implying the merging of the peoples of these regions into independent national States, thereby consolidating Soviet rule in a national form comprehensible to the masses of the people.

After describing the different stages in the formation of the existing Central Asian republics and Kazakhstan, the author gives an account of the events of the period 1926-29, a time which marked the beginning of industrialization in these territories as part of the process of overcoming the backwardness of the people. The Soviet State granted financial help in the form of subsidies to the republics of Central Asia and Kazakhstan to assist them in the starting up of industrial enterprises. Three large textile factories were transferred from European Russia to Central Asia, together with their complete equipment and organized teams of Russian

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workers. The raw cotton industry was restored, the cotton-textile, and silk-reeling industries were founded, power for the electrification of Uzbekistan was acquired, oil production increased, mines were opened up and progress was made in the construction of the Turkestan-Siberian railway, all in a comparatively short space of time. The Russian workers engaged in these enterprises acted as instructors to the native workers during their development into an organized body.

During the same period land reform was carried out in Central Asia. In Uzbekistan land was seized from 23,941 agricultural holdings, 1,347 landowners' and 1,296 wealthy merchants' estates were liquidated and surplus land was also seized from 12,198 holdings. As a result of these requisitions a reserve of 270,370 hectares of land was available for distribution among 65,579 farm-labourers possessing little or no land. In the Turkmen SSR land was distributed to 32,377 peasants.

In Kazakh ASSR 1,300,000 hectares of grass - and 1,250,000 hectares of arable land were taken over from the bais and distributed among the villagers. These seizures, together with the confiscation of cattle from the bais and semi-feudal magnates, contributed to a marked degree towards the overthrow of the patriarchal and feudal order and served also to strengthen the economy of the working elements of the villages. On 27th August 1928, on the establishment of the Kazakh Soviet State, 608 bais were deprived of their cattle (some 150,000 head) and other possessions, all of which were distributed among 25,000 of the poorer farms as well as 300 collective and State farms specializing in livestock. These confiscations, and the subsequent re-distribution, were carried out amidst acute class-warfare and resulted in a complete change in the appearance of the Kazakh village, its central figure now being the well-to-do peasant.

Land reform was strongly supported by the rulers of the Soviet Union and by 1928 it had been completed throughout the whole of Central Asia. It was not, however, these social and economic reforms that brought about the socialist transformation of the rural economy.

During the years 1926-29, besides strengthening the class basis of the workers' dictatorship, the Party and the Soviet rulers took measures to attract women into productive activity. As a result of these measures the number of women engaged in production in Uzbekistan, for instance, was 40 per cent of the entire number of women (1,700 were engaged in industry in 1926 as compared with 5,000 in 1929). The numbers of organized workers of the different nationalities also increased considerably.

The strengthening of Soviet rule in Central Asia and Kazakhstan met

with violent opposition from the bais and other feudal elements which still exercised some influence on certain sections of the working population. It was therefore decided to draw the workers away from this influence and to awaken in them a sense of active political participation and of independence.

The elections which took place in 1929 showed a remarkable increase in political comprehension and in confidence in Soviet rule and the Party. The elections were conducted in an atmosphere of intense class warfare, but attempts by hostile elements to gain inclusion in Soviet State organs met with no success. The results of the elections in all the republics showed a considerable increase in voters as compared with the 1925 elections, when the average number of votes cast in Central Asia did not exceed 30 per cent of the electorate. In the 1929 elections the proportion voting was: Uzbekistan 70 per cent; Turkmen SSR 62.5 per cent; Kazakh SSR 60 per cent, whilst the proportion of women taking part in the elections rose from 2 per cent in 1925 to 49.7 per cent in 1929.

The 1929 elections changed the composition of the village soviets, the majorities of which now consisted of poor and well-to-do peasants. Initial successes had been gained in the inculcation of Soviet methods and in the translation of official secretarial proceedings into the native tongue.

In 1926 courses were instituted in the auls and kishlaks for the training of village Party workers in order to strengthen the Party organization in the Republics and also to raise the general cultural and political level of the communists. The success of these courses was due to the participation of Russian workers from the industrial enterprises of Central Asia and Kazakhstan. The numbers of the various Communist Parties rose in a particularly satisfactory manner between the years 1927 and 1929. In Uzbekistan the number of members and candidates of the Party increased from 26,819 in 1927 to 62,039 in 1929; in the Tadzhik SSR from 795 to 4,429 and in the Kazakh ASSR from 4,273 to 8,051. Attempts by elements hostile to Soviet rule to infiltrate into and disrupt Party organizations met with no success.

The political activity of women increased to a remarkable degree; in the Uzbek SSR elections of 1926, 16 per cent voted, this percentage increased to 51 in 1928, and the number of women members of the soviets increased from 12 per cent in 1926 to 26 per cent in 1929. In the Turkmen SSR the percentage of women taking part in elections rose from 12 per cent in 1926 to 40.7 per cent in 1929 and the numbers of women members of village soviets from 9.6 to 16.7 per cent. There was considerable opposition to the emancipation of women, in regard both to their political

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activities and towards those who discarded the traditional veil. Hostile elements organized terrorist actions, and in 1928 the judicial organs of the Uzbek SSR passed forty-five death sentences on those convicted of terrorism.

The spread of national education was also meeting with success. In the Uzbek SSR in 1914 there were 17,229 pupils in primary and secondary schools, in 1928-29 there were 167,938; in the Turkmen SSR the figures were 15,736 in 1925 and 31,415 in 1928. There was also an increase in the number of girls attending school and in the school year 1927-28 their numbers had risen to 26.1 per cent in the Uzbek SSR. Teaching was in the native language. During the same period the religious schools (mekteb) closed down automatically owing to lack of pupils. There was also an increase in the number of institutions for political instruction and other branches of culture in Central Asia and Kazakhstan. By 1928 the Uzbek SSR had 187 libraries, 98 of these being in villages, and 12 theatres.

Considerable progress was also made in health services. In Uzbekistan there were 890 hospital beds in 1913 and 4,214 in 1928; in Turkmenistan there were 32 dispensaries and hospitals in 1925 and 55 in 1929, whilst the number of hospital beds had increased from 210 to 818.

Thus, in the period 1925-29 considerable advances were made towards socialism, and in their economic and cultural progress by the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan. The victory of socialism in the Soviet Union inevitably eliminated inequality among the different nationalities. Thanks to their socialist industrialization, Central Asia and Kazakhstan had been transformed into industrial-agrarian countries.

During the first two five-year plans, operations for the development of natural resources were put into effect. In Kazakhstan large scale geological prospecting brought to light a number of exceedingly rich strata. At the same time construction of lead and copper-smelting works and of immense undertakings from other non-ferrous metals, was begun. Millions of rubles were allocated from the Union budget for the development of Kazakhstan and a substantial flow of machinery was despatched from the factories of the Union to these territories. Large numbers of qualified workers, engineers and technicians were sent to Kazakhstan where they trained thousands of the workers and intelligentsia in their special crafts. The third coal base of the Soviet Union was also established in Kazakhstan during this period, together with a number of large-scale enterprises in ferrous metals and oil-prospecting was started in the Emba region.

This period also saw the equipping of the Tashkent textile combine and

agricultural machinery works, the Yangipol tinned products combine, the Tashkent tanning works, the Fergana spinning and weaving factory, three oil-producing concerns, etc. In the Turkmen SSR chemical enterprises were set up in the Kara-Kum and Kara-Buz districts and also food industries. The number of electric power stations was increased.

The elimination of inequality was also helped by an increase in capital investment in the national economy of the republics. In the Turkmen SSR capital investment in industry amounted to 7.7m. rubles in 1929 and had increased to 23.7m. rubles in 1931; in Uzbekistan it amounted to 77.5m. rubles in 1928 and 522.3m. in 1937. The numbers of organized workers in the proletariat increased too, reaching the figure of 500,000 in Uzbekistan, 150,000 in Turkmenistan and 700,000 in Kazakhstan in 1936. Moreover the percentage of indigenous workers rose to a remarkable degree.

The collectivization of agriculture was effected in Central Asia and Kazakhstan with the help of the Russian people and as the result of industrialization; they were thus able to pass directly to socialism without passing through the capitalist stage of development. The Soviet Government and Party together with local Party organs and soviets laid down the ways and means by which collectivization in each individual republic was to be effected. The workers in aul and kishlak actively supported collectivization but there was bitter opposition from the bais, kulaks and "bourgeois nationalists". The opposition of these elements expressed itself in the mass slaughter of cattle, in terrorist acts against communists and activists, and, in Karakalpakia, in an armed rising. A highly important role in the enforcement of collectivization was played by the workers of the "Twenty Five Thousand", sent to Central Asia from the industrial regions of European Russia. Much significance attaches, moreover, to the fact that workers from the industrial centres of Russia were put in charge of those of the national republics.

The position with regard to agricultural machinery improved greatly between the years 1928 and 1936, and was helped by the policy of the Government of the Soviet Union which facilitated the equipment and development of machinery centres in the national republics. The number of tractors and combines available from MT stations, as well as the MT stations themselves, increased considerably in both the Uzbek and Turkmen SSR.

Large sums were devoted to irrigation; during the first and second five-year plans, 2,494m. rubles were spent on works of this kind. Considerable sums were also spent on the settlement of nomadic elements on the land, 20m. rubles from the Union budget being sent to the Kazakh SSR in 1930 and 35m. in 1931 for this purpose. Towards the end of the second

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five-year plan cotton production had risen to 1,527.9 thousand tons (1937) as compared with 516.4 thousand tons in 1913. At that time, however, the total grain harvest had not reached the 1913 level, and it was not until 1938, in Uzbekistan, that a grain harvest of 102 per cent of the 1913 figure was achieved.

These figures show that during the years of the second five-year plan the peoples of Central Asia were no longer backward economically, and their economy had become a socialist one. But culturally some elements of inequality still existed; these were overcome in the course of further drastic cultural changes. The victory of socialism in the USSR had brought an increase in material prosperity and an improvement of the cultural level amongst the peoples of Central Asia. During the period 1929-37 there was a fall in workers' pay in capitalist countries. In Germany this was 21 per cent, in Italy 18 per cent, in the USA 14 per cent and in Japan 12 per cent. But in Uzbekistan, for example there was an increase of 2.8 per cent.

Both living conditions and medical services improved during these years. Between 1917 and 1936, 5,215 dwelling houses covering an area of 960.2 thousand square metres were built in Uzbekistan. The number of medical institutions in the republics increased fourfold between 1913 and 1937; the number of doctors was 18.5 times greater, and there was an increase in children's clinics and kindergartens.

There were further increases in the numbers of pupils attending primary and secondary schools. In the school year 1938-39 the numbers in the schools of Uzbekistan were 64 times greater than in 1913, 71.3 per cent of them being Uzbeks. Towards the end of the second five-year plan, there were 10,000 specialists with higher education working in Uzbekistan 50 per cent of whom were Uzbeks.

In 1914 there had been only one theatre in Uzbekistan, in 1937 there were 44 and the number of cinemas had by that time increased 22.5 times. The classics of Marxism and Leninism had been published in popular editions.

The fundamental change in the moral and political outlook of the peoples of Central Asia and Kazakhstan had, as the result of the victory of socialism, made them into socialist nations with a high standard of culture and sharing in the sentiment of Soviet patriotism; and it "strengthened their confidence in the Party and in their own Soviet rule."

The moral and political unity of these peoples was demonstrated during the elections for the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and for the Supreme

Soviets in the National Republics, when they elected as members of these bodies "the finest sons and daughters of the multi-national Soviet people."

The Constitution of 1936 consolidated the victory of socialism in the USSR, so that during the ensuing period of gradual transition to communism the problem of the elimination of the inequality of nations no longer existed; it had already been solved.

Note

- (1) Likvidatsiya Fakticheskogo Neravenstva Natsii (NA Primere Istorii Narodov Srednei Azii i Kazakhstana).

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DRIVE FOR INCREASED MAIZE PRODUCTION

Introduction - Research and improved methods of cultivation - Mechanization - Cultivation in individual Republics.

Great emphasis has recently been laid in the Soviet press on the necessity for a substantial increase in livestock throughout the Soviet Union; but difficulty is being experienced in producing even enough fodder for the present livestock population. Propaganda drives and numerous speeches by agricultural leaders urging sovkhozes and kolkhozes to make greater efforts in the drive to grow more maize for animal feed have had comparatively little effect. A year or so ago it was announced in the press that the drive for more maize was to be intensified, and in January 1955 as the result of a report submitted by N.S. Khrushchev, the Central Committee of the Communist Party issued a directive concerning the development of by-products of livestock breeding. The importance of maize cultivation for fodder was particularly stressed and by 1960 it is planned to have about 28m. hectares under maize in the USSR.

It is evidently considered that maize constitutes the best solution to the fodder problem. Maize contains 70 per cent starch, 13 per cent albumen and 5-6 per cent fat and it is estimated that 1 kg. of maize grain produces 3,290 calories as compared with 2,160 calories from oats and 3,060 calories from barley. But the usefulness of maize is not limited to its grain, as maize stems, cobs and green leaves make excellent silage for cattle, and the cobs can also be used as pig fodder. In addition to its usefulness as animal feed, maize is also used as a raw material in the starch-molasses industry, distilleries, sugar and chemical industries and the building industry.

In 1955 sovkhozes and kolkhozes were instructed to substitute maize cultivation for that of other grain crops and perennial grasses, and also to extend the area under maize by ploughing up meadow and pasture-land. The drive for increased maize production is likely to be even further intensified in the near future.

In spite of the great importance of maize as a fodder crop, it has up to now been cultivated almost exclusively in the southern and central

regions of the Ukraine, in Moldavia, North Caucasus and Trans-Caucasia. Prior to the 1955 directive, little maize was grown in the Central Asian republics, as it was believed by the agricultural experts that this crop could be cultivated only in a moderate or warm climate and on black soil. It is now thought that many areas of Central Asia could produce two maize harvests a year, the second crop being cut for silage while still green.

It is now considered in the Soviet Union that the square-cluster method of maize cultivation gives the best results. For a good crop, 40-45,000 plants per hectare are sufficient; to achieve this number of plants, only 15-18 kg. of seed need be sown if the square-cluster method is used, as opposed to 30-50 kg. if sown in rows. Clusters of 2 or 3 plants are sown, each cluster is separated from its neighbour by a square of 70 x 70 or 60 x 60 cm. Several cultivations and waterings are necessary if the best results are to be obtained. In experimental stations as much as 70-80 centners of grain and 800-1,000 centners of green mass for silage per hectare has been obtained.

In Kazakhstan, experience has shown that the best yields are obtained by sowing about 122,000 seeds per hectare by the square-cluster method. Clusters of 5 or 6 seeds are planted 10 cm. deep, with squares of 60 x 60 or 70 x 70 cm. between. For the highest yield, only two young plants per square (40-45,000 per hectare) should be left after hoeing and cultivation has been completed. The right selection of seed is, of course, also of great importance and in south Kazakhstan the "Alma-Atinka-51", "Alma-Atinka-54", "Krasnodarka-4" hybrids and varieties such as "Transcarpathian Yellow" and "Partisanka" have proved the most satisfactory.

Other good results have been obtained by using "Alma-Atinka-236" seed with 6 plants per cluster and 70 x 70 cm. squares; three waterings were given and the yield was 1,077 centners of green mass per hectare. By using this method, the experimental station of the Kazakh branch of the Vashnii have obtained 70 centners of grain and over 1,000 centners of silage per hectare, and Michurin kolkhoz of the Alma-Ata oblast 86 centners of grain per hectare.

In spite of intensive propaganda in the press and the issue of special publications to encourage this method of maize cultivation, many kolkhozes of Central Asia and Kazakhstan are not yet using it.

Particular attention is being paid to the development of hybrid varieties of seed, which have been found more suited to the climatic conditions of north Kazakhstan and to produce better crops. The Kuban experimental station of the All-Union Botanic Institute has recently developed the "VIR-42" hybrid, which has yielded as much as 58 centners of

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grain per hectare. In Kazakh SSR yields of between 30-50 centners of grain have been obtained from the "VIR-25", "VIR-50" and other hybrids. In the Alma-Ata oblast, the "Krasnodarka-4" hybrid has proved quite satisfactory, and in the Taldy-Kurgan region the "Collective 13/380" hybrid (produced by crossing "Minnesota 13" with "Grushevskaya 380") has also given good results. Other satisfactory yields have been obtained with the "Krasnodar-4" hybrid (85 centners per hectare) and "Krasnodar-2" (67 centners). These compare favourably with the non-hybrid "Sterling" which yields 63 centners of grain per hectare.

Within the next three years all kolkhozes and sovkhoses of Central Asia are to use hybrid seed. The State selection stations are responsible for providing the most suitable varieties.

At the Kazakh experimental station of the Vashnii, the following methods of fertilizing maize have been tried out:

In one field 25 tons of manure per hectare were used and the yield per hectare was 89 tons of grain. In another field only chemical fertilizer was used and the yield was 74.3 centners per hectare. In a third field the soil was originally dressed with 25 tons of manure; 2.2 centners of superphosphate, 2.2 centners of potassium salt and 2 centners of ammonium nitrate were added prior to sowing, and while the maize was maturing 0.8 centners of potassium salt and 1 centner of ammonium nitrate were applied per hectare. This produced a grain yield of 100 centners per hectare.

Fertilizers are usually ploughed in to a depth of 22-25 cm. applied at a depth of 10-12 cm. before sowing and at 8-10 cm. during the vegetation period.

In 1954, the MTS and sovkhoses of Central Asia and Kazakhstan received their first "SKT-6" planting machines. These are a modernized version of the "SSh-6A" planting machine equipped with a "VIM" device. These machines sow 6 lines spaced at 70 cm. intervals in one run. If coupled to a "U-2" tractor they can sow 1.3 hectares per hour. They are not, however, as yet available in sufficient numbers and in the meantime the re-equipped "T-8-2A", "SZTK" and "SD-24" planting machines are also used.

If the square-cluster method of maize growing is employed, cultivation can be entirely mechanized. This results in a saving of 30 to 35 man-days per hectare.

In Uzbekistan, the "Local Late" and "VIR-156" varieties of maize are cultivated; both are sown between 15th March and 15th April and both have a 110-130 day vegetation period. The "Samarkand White" and the "Minnesota 12 extra", with a 85-90 day vegetation period, are used for the second sowing in June-July. Cultivation of hybrid varieties is shortly to be organized; these seeds produce a much better grain crop.

Maize is now being grown on a large scale in the Fergana Valley. The kolkhozes of the Fergana oblast require more than 600 tons of maize seed, but only some 40 tons had been delivered by the end of March 1955. Only four special "SKG-6" maize planting machines are available in the Fergana oblast and many fields have not been prepared for sowing. According to Pravda Vostoka of 24th March 1955, any further delay in sowing will result in the non-fulfilment of the planned quotas and the consequent shortage of fodder for animal husbandry in this region.

In Tadzhikistan the cultivation of maize is also behind schedule. In spite of this, the total area sown in Leninabad oblast in 1955 is several times that of 1954 but little is being done to ensure the preparation of maize silage. Only one-fifth of the planned number of silage plants have actually been laid so far. In some kolkhozes of the Vakhsh valley and of Kulyab oblast, however, as much as 50-55 centners of corn and 1,100 centners of green mass were obtained per hectare in 1954. The method of cultivation in Tadzhikistan is to plant 20-25 kg. of seed per hectare, with intervals between the rows of 60 cm.; in square-cluster sowing after the young plants have been mechanically cultivated fertilizer is added. When the panicles appear on the plants, a second dressing of fertilizer is given.

In the spring of 1954 maize seed was first introduced in the Pamir kolkhozes. At the Karl Marx collective yields of 40.5 centners of grain and 300 centners of green mass for silage were obtained. It is expected to increase this to 50 centners of grain and 400 centners of silage in 1955. In March 1955 a conference of 300 leaders of the "maize brigades" took place at Kulyab and it was decided to sow 6,000 hectares to maize in this oblast in 1955.

100,000 hectares of maize should have been sown in Kirgizia in 1955. The Chu Valley is especially suitable for maize cultivation. In Frunze oblast it was planned to put 21,000 hectares under maize in 1955, but this target has not been reached. Lack of organization and the general inefficiency of the administration responsible seem to be the reasons why the programme was not fulfilled. In Dzhalal-Abad oblast it was planned to sow 16,000 hectares of maize in 1955 and 170 special "brigades" have been organized for this purpose. Many of these "brigades" have pledged

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themselves to obtain a yield of 25 centners of grain and 350 centners of silage per hectare. A few kolkhozes completed sowing by the middle of April but by the end of the month only about 30 per cent of the programme had been achieved. The kolkhozes of the Issyk-Kul oblast should have sown 12,000 hectares to maize in 1955, but in many raions the work is behind schedule; special tools are lacking and hand-sowing is a very slow process. By May 15th this oblast had sown only 6.3 per cent of the planned hectarage.

Several varieties of maize have been experimentally tested in Kirgizia, among them the "North Dakota", "Zhemchuzhina Chakinskaya", "Risovaya", "Spassovkaya" and "Risovaya 645" seeds. These varieties all yield between 31 and 50 centners of maize grain per hectare. In grain cultivation (as opposed to green mass for silage) the pattern of sowing is 20-40 kg. of seed per hectare, together with 60 kg. of granulate superphosphate and 15-20 kg. granulate ammonium nitrate. This encourages early and good growth of the young plants. Manure, chicken droppings and stove ash are also used as fertilizers in Kirgizia.

Numerous shortcomings are reported from various regions of Kirgizia. Many kolkhozes did not organize special "brigades" for maize cultivation, and square-cluster planting is not as widely used as had been expected. There is a shortage of special planting machines which has led to the use of so-called "reconstructed" grain and sugar-beet planting machines. These shortcomings appear to be due to the fact that whilst the administration issues a large number of orders and regulations, little practical help is given to collective farms.

It is planned to increase the area under maize in Turkmenistan tenfold between 1954 and 1960. The first experimental crops have shown that it is possible to obtain 250-300 centners of green mass for silage per hectare in Tashauz and other oblasts. In individual cases yields were between 218-519 centners per hectare. As the result of late sowing, no grain crop was produced in 1954.

In Turkmenistan the vegetation period of the different varieties of maize varies from 85 to 140 days. Grain grows well when planted at a depth of 10 cm. with a temperature of 10-12° C. Several maize-planting machines are in use including the cotton-sowing machine "SSK" equipped with a special device for square-cluster sowing. An average of 35 kg. of maize seed is sown per hectare. In lineal sowing the interval between the weeded plants is 25-30 cm.

A number of kolkhozes in Turkmenistan cultivate the "Krasnodarka-4" hybrid and the "Grushevskaya" maize. Good fodder crops from these varieties

were obtained in 1954 but hybrid seeds are important for the further expansion of maize cultivation in this area. Despite the fact that the hectarage under maize in 1955 is much larger than that of 1954, in many collective farms sowing had not been started by the middle of April, whilst in others progress was very slow. In the Ashkhabad oblast out of a planned 372 hectares, only 30 had actually been sown by April 10th.

Particular importance is attached to the cultivation of maize in Kazakhstan. By 10th June 1955 over 700,000 hectares were under maize.

In addition to the southern provinces of Kazakhstan, in which an average temperature of 30° C. lasts for 140-200 days per annum, the cultivation of maize is now being extended to west and north Kazakhstan. In some of the eastern regions of the republic, favourable conditions for certain types of maize are found, i.e. a number of quick-ripening varieties can be cultivated for grain in this area, whereas in other areas it is only possible to obtain a green crop for silage.

The southern provinces of Kazakhstan are to become the main centre for maize cultivation. State experimental stations and specially chosen kolkhozes and sovkhoses are to ensure the supply of high quality sorted seeds and hybrid grains to the collective and State farms of the other regions of the Kazakh SSR. According to records recently published in the regional press of Kazakhstan, the average maize yield in 1954 at the Gigant kolkhoz of the Chilii raion (Kzyl-Orda oblast) was 80 centners of grain and 1,029 centners of green mass per hectare. The "Krasnodar-4" hybrid maize yielded 92 centners per hectare in the Dzhambul oblast. Here the average yield of maize during the last three years was 43.5 centners of grain and 309 centners of green mass per hectare. In south-east and southern Kazakhstan, the yield has varied between 39 and 92 centners of grain and 350 to 400 centners of green fodder per hectare during the past few years. But in many kolkhozes, even in irrigated areas, the yields remain poor; often maize is sown on unsuitable land or in inadequately prepared areas. Irrigated land has to be used for maize cultivation in the southern and south-eastern oblasts of Kazakhstan. Moisture is conserved in the soil, which has to be well softened as maize roots penetrate much deeper than those of other grain crops.

In many kolkhozes and MTS of South-Kazakhstan, Taldy-Kurgan, West-Kazakhstan and other oblasts, hoeing is late and the situation is no better in the majority of collective farms of the Aktyubinsk and Kustanai oblasts. Communist party executives, agronomists and directors of the MTS and chairmen of kolkhozes are, apparently, responsible for this failure. Criticisms of this state of affairs have been published in the local press.

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The western part of Kazakhstan is warm enough for the cultivation of several varieties of maize. The average temperature during the vegetation period of between 130-150 days, varies from 15° C and 31° C. The low rainfall in this area, however, necessitates the special selection of maize seed, ploughing must be deep and watering assured. According to data obtained over the past four years by the Kluhevskii selection station (Aktyubinsk oblast) the average maize yield was 21 centners (local maize) and 19.9 centners (North Dakota maize) per hectare. At Baksai experimental station (Guryev oblast) the yield (Alma-Atinka 236 variety) with square-cluster sowing and watering, was 57.8 centners of grain and 900 centners of green mass for silage, per hectare.

In northern Kazakhstan between 250-400 centners of unripened maize and green mass can be obtained per hectare. The frostless period varies here from between 100 and 300 days, but the average temperature during this period does not exceed 18-20° C and no normal ripening is possible. In Dvor Ilyicha kolkhoz of the Sokolovski raion (North-Kazakhstan oblast) 500 centners of unripened maize and green mass were obtained per hectare in 1954. In Beregovoi sovkhov of the Pavlodar oblast 300 centners per hectare were harvested in 1954.

At Pobeda kolkhoz (Akmolinsk oblast) 500 hectares are to be put under maize in 1955, compared with only 140 hectares in 1954. 10,000 centners of grain and 15,000 centners of high quality silage should be produced this year. In this oblast agricultural courses were organized during the winter to train people in maize cultivation.

Prior to 1955 and in spite of repeated efforts on the part of officials, maize cultivation in some kolkhozes and sovkhovs in Kazakhstan had in fact decreased in recent years. In the South-Kazakhstan oblast, for instance, only 1,300 hectares were sown in 1954 instead of the planned 6,300 hectares, and in certain raions its cultivation had been completely neglected. Many kolkhozes were sceptical as to the suitability of local conditions for maize cultivation and were reluctant to make the attempt. Selection of land was far behind schedule and equipment remained unclaimed at the stores of the agricultural supplies organizations. But some individual collective farms have shown initiative; for instance, the Telmann kolkhoz (Chimkent raion), in which the target of 30 centners of grain and 600 centners of green fodder per hectare was achieved.

An ambitious programme for large-scale increase in livestock has been planned for Kazakhstan. This is, of course, dependent on the production of sufficient feeding-stuff and in this connection the importance which is attached to the maize drive was recently made clear when N.D. Undasynov, Chairman of the Praesidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Kazakh SSR announced

that the number of cattle is to be doubled between 1955 and 1960, and poultry is to be increased twelve times. Thus by 1960 there should be 6m. head of cattle, including at least 2,600,000 cows, more than 36m. sheep and goats and about 1,500,000 pigs. During the next five or six years Kazakhstan is to double or treble the output of meat, wool and milk.

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A G R I C U L T U R E

L A N D R E C L A M A T I O N I N K A Z A K H S T A N

The new immigrants - Their requirements - Communications - Ploughing -up campaign - Lack of granaries and other shortages - Progress in individual oblasts.

When Kazakhstan's land reclamation programme is completed, an area of about the size of Italy will be under cultivation. More than 26m. hectares of virgin land will have been ploughed up, which, together with the original 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. hectares of arable, will bring the total to 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ m.

A programme of this size obviously demands a large staff of surveyors, planners and scientists, a huge labour force, vast quantities of machinery, transport and equipment, and a system of communications by road and rail.

An article in the last issue of this Review entitled The Settlers on the New Lands gave some account of the scientists' work to date. Since then they have been studying soil erosion in the Kustanai and Pavlodar oblasts, and the possibility of using sub-soil water in the Pavlodar oblast for farms, fields and settlements. A team of hydrologists, hydrochemists, meteorologists and aerophotographers from the Leningrad Hydrological Institute has been investigating water resources over an area of 180,000 sq.km. in the Kokchetav, Akmolinsk and Kustanai oblasts. It has set up 76 stations on rivers and lakes to observe their level and flow, and has drilled bore-holes and wells to study the behaviour of water underground.

As to the labour force, the same article stated that the number of settlers on the new sovkhoses had reached 132,000 by April 1955. By the 8th June, according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, it had exceeded 140,000, of whom more than 4,500 were agricultural technicians. They came from various parts of European Russia. Moscow City and oblast provided staffs for 21 sovkhoses, Leningrad for 15 sovkhoses in the Pavlodar oblast. The Kustanai sovkhoses got their labour from the Orel, Gorki and Sverdlovsk oblasts, those in west Kazakhstan from the Ryazan and Molotov oblasts, and those in Aktyubinsk from the Yaroslavl, Kursk, Tambov, Ivanovo, Belgorod, Voronezh, Kalinin and Krasnodar oblasts.

Elsewhere, Ukrainians staffed 54 sovkhoses, Byelorussians 24, and Moldavians, Latvians and Lithuanians 4 each. The above-mentioned figure of 4,500 technicians includes 2,000 graduates from the School of Mechanization of Agriculture in Novosibirsk. Young mechanics are still arriving from Minsk, Gorki and Dnepropetrovsk, builders from Lithuania, Armenia, Leningrad, Novosibirsk and Orekhovo-Zuevo, railwaymen from the Donets, Moscow-Kursk and Donbass lines.

Immigration on this scale has entailed much inconvenience and even hardship for the workers themselves. Accommodation is often scarce and shopping facilities inadequate. On several sovkhoses in the Akmolinsk, Kustanai and Kokchetav oblasts not a single house had been completed by the end of May 1955, and in August the total for all the sovkhoses on the new lands was only 12,000. The Irtyshtroi Authority, which is responsible for building work in east Kazakhstan, spent only 450,000 rubles, or less than 6 per cent of the 8m. rubles allotted to it. On the other hand, where local authorities and farm managers have been particularly efficient, work is progressing satisfactorily. For example, at the Rentabelny sovkhos in the Akmolinsk oblast several streets of houses were built from local materials within four months. Again, at the Molodezhny sovkhos 14 eight-flat houses, a canteen, a shop, public baths and a granary had all been completed by mid-August, while 47 privately built houses were under construction with the help of Government loans.

As for shopping facilities, Mr. D.A. Kunayev, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Kazakh SSR, says in his report on the republic's farms that, although this year's grant of 260m. rubles to Kazpotrebsoyuz (Kazakh Co-operative Union) was three times that of 1954, neither it nor its regional counterparts have distributed supplies in accordance with the immigrants' needs. Some raions have more stocks than they can sell while others cannot meet the demands made on them. Things like kerosene, matches, soap, furniture, cooking utensils and crockery are often scarce, (see article on The Availability of Commodities in Central Asia in this issue). Canteens, he says, are dirty and their fare monotonous. The building of shops, especially in the Akmolinsk, North-Kazakhstan, Pavlodar and Kokchetav oblasts, is progressing very slowly; 355 were due to be built in 1955, but not one had been begun by 10th August. Canteens are also behindhand; out of 267 planned for the year, only 27 had been started.

To set the immigrants to work, huge quantities of mechanical equipment were obviously needed. Up to June 1955, grants of over two billion rubles had been made for buying it. Machines supplied to the new sovkhoses include 38,000 tractors, 15,000 ploughs, 16,000 planting machines, 12,000 combine-harvesters, 7,000 cultivators, 7,500 lorries and 1,000 mobile electric power-stations. Twenty-six new MTS are due to be built this year.

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The tractors come from Stalingrad and Chelyabinsk, the combine-harvesters from Rostov-on-Don, and the lorries and power-stations from Moscow.

The plans for road and rail communications on the new lands were described in the last issue of this Review. Over 2,000 km. of new railways are to be built and it is expected that they will be in full working order by the autumn of 1957, though some skeleton services were due to be running by August 1955. In addition, about 1,800 km. of metalled asphalted roads will be made by 1957. Meanwhile, some 100,000 bicycles have been imported for the settlers' use.

The army of immigrants described above, using machinery of the kinds just mentioned, is rapidly changing the face of the countryside. What only two years ago was fallow virgin land is now bearing crops of wheat, maize, rice, sunflowers, cotton, sugar-beet, tobacco, poppies and hemp.

It would be rash to state categorically the area of virgin land that has already been ploughed up or sown, since the figures given from time to time by the Central Asian Press are hard to reconcile. Press reports, however, agree to this extent - that for the republic as a whole, the planned quotas for ploughing were exceeded in both the 1954 and 1955 seasons (see Appendix I). (It should be noted, however, that no information is available as to how quotas are arrived at.) Nevertheless, complaints of slow progress have appeared in the papers. Mr. G. Melnik, the Kazakhstan Minister of Agriculture, wrote in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of the 27th May 1955 that many MTS were not using all the tractors that they might. The Konzhasharskaya, Novo-Federovskaya, Kzyl-Zharskaya, Tamdysai and several other MTS in the Aktyubinsk oblast, each of which was due to plough up between 10,000 and 13,000 hectares, had not even made a start. The same paper said on 18th June that sovkhoses in the Aktyubinsk and East-Kazakhstan oblasts were behindhand, for which it blamed the regional authorities, Vishenin and Nazarov. Again on 17th August it complained of delays in the North, South, East and West Kazakhstan oblasts, as well as in Akmolinsk, Kokchetav, Kustanai, Karaganda, Pavlodar, Aktyubinsk and Taldy-Kurgan. Machines, it said, were not being used to their full capacity owing to bad organization. It stressed the importance of ploughing early in the year, for experience had shown that land ploughed in May or June yielded 3 or 4 centners per hectare more than land ploughed later in the year. Yet again on 25th August it said that in the Alma-Ata oblast 8 MTS had not begun ploughing; in South-Kazakhstan oblast none of the sovkhoses and not one of its 24 MTS had got the land ready for sowing next spring; in the Pavlodar oblast the kolkhozes and MTS had ploughed only 117,000 hectares, or 7.7 per cent of their quota.

Reclamation is taking place mainly in the northern part of the Republic

- in the North-Kazakhstan, Kustanai, Akmolinsk, Kokchetav and Pavlodar oblasts, where black soil predominates. According to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of the 29th June 1955, it is being done by the staffs of 2,348 kolkhozes, 421 MTS and 513 sovkhoses, 337 of which have been started in the past two years. Each of these new sovkhoses was charged with the task of reclaiming from 20 to 40 thousand hectares. The same paper reported in August that the area reclaimed to date had reached 16m. hectares and that the total then under crops, on both old and new lands, was 17,553,000 hectares. The latter is $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. hectares above the planned quota and consists mostly of wheat, the hectarage of which is 6,640,000 more than in 1954. The area under maize is 20 times what it was in 1954, and that under millet, at 1,400,000 hectares, is nearly double.

The harvesting of these 17,553,000 hectares is being done by 30,000 combine-harvesters. By 13th August, 3,191,000 hectares had been finished and by 5th September much still remained to be done (see Appendix II). This has been largely due to the requisite machinery being out of repair when it was wanted. In the Akmolinsk and North-Kazakhstan oblasts 257 combine-harvesters were awaiting overhaul in workshops. Another cause was that, owing to drought, the crops often did not grow high enough to reach the cutting blades on the combine-harvesters, which meant that they had to be fitted with special devices to deal with short stems. There was a scarcity too of screening machines. Some had been ordered from the Kuibyshev Works at Petropavlovsk but did not arrive in time, while the sovkhos staffs, who should have made 1,200 machines themselves, had made only 200 by the time harvesting started. A hundred and fifty loaders were ordered from the Akmolinsk Wagon Repair Shops, but not a single one was delivered.

The storage of harvested crops is a formidable problem. One thousand and twenty-three granaries should have been built in time for this year's harvest, but by the end of June no more than 252 were ready; in other words, there was storage room for only 804,300 tons as against the 3,273,600 tons for which plans had been made. Moreover, some of the existing granaries in the Akmolinsk, Pavlodar, East-Kazakhstan and Kokchetav oblasts were not repaired in time for the harvest, and on the 10th August Kazakhstanskaya Pravda was complaining that the building of grain dryers had not been started.

The building of granaries is the responsibility of 16 Construction Authorities. In the Kustanai, Aktyubinsk and West-Kazakhstan oblasts it is in charge of the Glavzapstroj (Main Western Construction Authority) working under the republican Ministry of Town and Country Building. According to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of 30th June, this Authority had completed only 10.3 per cent of its scheduled work by the end of May. Labour,

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materials and transport, it said, were all available but in West-Kazakhstan, at least, progress was very slow owing to the Authority's inefficiency. In many areas cement, timber and other materials were not obtained in time and many sites were short of lorries, concrete mixers, cranes and conveyors. Bricks were being brought from distant mills when new mills should have been built on the spot or existing local ones enlarged.

In the Kokchetav and North-Kazakhstan oblasts the main body responsible for building work is the Glavsestroy (Main Northern Construction Authority), though some other authorities also operate here, such as the Kazstroimekhanizatsia (Kazakh Mechanization Construction Authority), the Glavzapstroy already mentioned, and the Zagotzerno (Grain Procurement). The Glavsestroy has a staff of about 15,000 skilled workmen and 1,000 engineers and technicians; these are divided into seven groups, and in the Kokchetav oblast alone they are working on 100 sites. In this oblast this year's harvest is expected to be $2\frac{1}{2}$ times what it was last year, and plans were accordingly made for 101 new granaries. But by the end of May not a single one was ready and only eight had been started. For the Kokchetav and North-Kazakhstan oblasts together, 369 granaries with a capacity of more than 1,200,000 tons were to have been built this year; many of them were to have been ready by June or July but by the end of May only two had been finished.

Not only granaries are behind schedule. The Kazakh Government allotted 2,000m. rubles for building new MTS and sovkhoses in 1955, 275m. of which were for sovkhoses. But by June, only 8.6 per cent of the sovkhos programme had been completed. The Ministry's officials, it is said, waste much time at conferences, send out too many instructions and make endless changes of plan.

So much for the general picture of what has been done so far. For four oblasts, Kokchetav, Akmolinsk, Kustanai and Alma-Ata, some rather more detailed information is available.

Kokchetav is on the way to becoming one of the largest grain-growing areas in the Republic. Two years ago it possessed no more than 10 sovkhoses cultivating only 40,000 hectares, but since then 58 new sovkhoses have been started, with the result that this spring 1,090,000 hectares were under crops. The area under wheat has increased 20 times, spring wheat being the main crop. The largest grain sovkhoses, such as the Tselinnyi, Zhdanov, Gorkovskii, Bidakskii, Zharkalskii and Khersonskii produce between 20 and 30 thousand tons of wheat each. Although as many as 2,100 combine-harvesters were at work in August, there were still not enough, and it is estimated that 4,000 machines were needed to harvest the crop in good time. Actually,

the shortage was to some extent relieved by the arrival of extra machines and crews from the Ukraine. All combine-harvesters have to be fitted with electric lights so that they can work after dark; they work in groups and the bunkers are unloaded without stopping the machines. Mobile repair shops have been set up out in the fields. No rain fell between June and August with the result that instead of the expected 15 to 20 centners per hectare, the average yield was only 9 to 10. Many sovkhoses, however, reported higher yields. There was a severe shortage of lorries and trailers for getting the crops to the granaries, so that 600 new lorries had to be obtained from East-Kazakhstan and Karaganda.

In Akmolinsk, 3,287,000 hectares of virgin land have been ploughed up in the past two years, and the area sown to grain this year was $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that of 1953. The oblast has 77 new sovkhoses and in nearly all of them the ploughing programme had been fulfilled by the 20th August this year. The Kalinin, Dalmi, Krasivenskii, Krevskii, Svobodnyi and Kultura sovkhoses produce annually between 20 and 32 thousand tons of grain each. In the Esil raion, which is as large as the Netherlands, the area sown to grain this year was ten times that of 1953 and should exceed a million hectares next year. Nevertheless there have been complaints in the Press. A correspondent of Sel'skoye Khozaistvo wrote on the 19th August that more than 6,000 centners of wheat were left out in the rain at the Ostrovskii sovkhos in the At-Bazar raion. Only one of the two OV-10 screening machines was working and two VIM were not used at all. Sixty lorries were needed for transporting the crops, but by the middle of August only nine were available. Another complaint was that the state of affairs in many new sovkhoses was unsatisfactory, and that better organization and more co-operation between "brigades" of workers was urgently needed.

An American Agricultural Delegation led by Mr. William Lambert, recently visited several of the new sovkhoses in the Akmolinsk oblast. These included the Krushchev sovkhos in the Esil raion which had ploughed 20,000 hectares in 1954, and the Svobodnyi which had ploughed 27,000 hectares in one season. The Delegation was shown round by Mr. M.E. Butya, Chairman of the Oblispolkom (Oblast Executive Committee), who told them that since May 1954 over 3m. hectares of virgin land had been reclaimed in the oblast, and that in the 77 new sovkhoses 95.6 per cent of the work was mechanized.

As for the Kustanai oblast - 95 new sovkhoses have been started in the past two years. On some of these, including the Pavlov sovkhos, ploughmen worked day and night in three shifts for 22 hours a day and consequently results were very satisfactory. But this was rather exceptional for on the whole Kustanai, in August, was far behind both Akmolinsk and Kokchetav.

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In the Alma-Ata oblast more than 50 sovkhoses finished harvesting by 13th August and they often obtained yields of as much as 16 centners of wheat per hectare. Altogether 700,000 hectares of grain crops have been cut, an increase of 16 per cent over last year's figure.

As to the future of the reclamation programme, Professor G.N. Cherdantsev in his book Ekonomicheskaya Geographiya SSR published in 1954, estimated that by the spring of 1956 the total cultivated area would be about 27m. hectares, as compared with 4.2 and 9.7m. in 1913 and 1953 respectively. As 17,553,000 hectares were already sown by the spring of 1955, this estimate would mean the ploughing of 9,447,000 hectares before the spring of next year. Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of the 14th April 1955 said that of this total of 27m. hectares, 23m. should be sown to grain, including 18m. hectares of wheat compared with 4,600,000 in 1953. On the other hand, Mr. A.I. Barayev in his book Osvoyennye Tselinnykh i Zalezhnykh Zemel v Kazakhstane published in 1955, estimated that the total cultivated area should reach 28.5m. hectares in 1956, compared with 9,200,000 in 1953.

Mr. Barayev's estimate seems to be fairly correct, for the Council of Ministers of Kazakhstan has planned to sow 1,124,000 hectares with winter crops this year and 27m. with spring crops next year. The Council, incidentally, has also planned to double meat, milk and wool production and to increase the number of cattle by 175 to 180 per cent, within the next five to six years. This means that the Republic would then have 6m. head of cattle (including 2.6m. cows) 36m. sheep and goats and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. pigs.

Both the Council and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan have urged upon the Chairmen of kolkhozes and the managers of MTS and sovkhoses, the immense importance of fulfilling this year's ploughing quotas and of increasing the area under grain crops next year. They have also emphasized that in order to obtain the highest yields of spring wheat, it is imperative to plough the land as early as possible the previous year. Moreover, ploughing must go on day and night; the ploughmen must work in three shifts and every tractor must be fitted with electric lights.

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APPENDIX I

Reclamation of Virgin and Derelict Land
As at 1st August 1955

(In percentages of the planned quota)

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Sovkhozes</u>	<u>Kolkhozes</u>
Kokchetav	111.7	118.2
Akmolinsk	102.5	125.5
Kustanai	86.6	82.8
Karaganda	86.6	100.9
North-Kazakhstan	79.2	84.7
Semipalatinsk	74.9	106.2
West-Kazakhstan	74.7	108.8
Taldy-Kurgan	72.7	59.1
Dzhambul	72.4	120.1
Pavlodar	65.4	84.3
South-Kazakhstan	63.7	66.3
Alma-Ata	61.0	108.2
East-Kazakhstan	49.0	72.3
Aktyubinsk	25.9	91.2
Kzyl-Orda	-	558.3
Guryev	-	556.0

(Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 18th August 1955)

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APPENDIX II

Harvest Progress in Kazakhstan
As at 5th September 1955

(In percentages of the planned quota)

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Sovkhozes</u>	<u>Kolkhozes</u>
South-Kazakhstan	95.9	100.0
Dzhambul	100.7	97.5
Karaganda	50.6	91.7
Alma-Ata	88.5	90.6
Taldy-Kurgan	89.9	85.7
East-Kazakhstan	80.7	77.6
Semipalatinsk	77.1	77.2
Akmolinsk	42.3	66.3
Pavlodar	48.5	62.9
West-Kazakhstan	58.6	61.0
Aktyubinsk	33.0	58.8
Kokchetav	41.4	51.8
Kustanai	44.3	49.8
Kzyl-Orda	54.0	48.1
North-Kazakhstan	27.0	35.8
Guryev	-	26.9

(Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 8th September 1955)

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I N D U S T R Y

D E V E L O P M E N T O F L I G H T I N D U S T R Y
I N C E N T R A L A S I A

Textiles - Clothing - Jute and hemp - Leather and footwear - Furniture
- Hardware - Miscellaneous small industries - Cooperatives.

During the last year there has been considerable emphasis in the Central Asian press and other sources dealing with the economy of this region, on the development of light industry and present shortage of many consumer goods. The main difficulties facing the rapid expansion which has been planned seem to be chiefly due to the fact that light industry has been neglected for many years and there is a great lack of trained personnel and up-to-date equipment.

In spite of shortcomings in individual factories, a general increase in production and overfulfilment of quotas for the first half of 1955 is reported in respect of most industries. For instance, the Ministry of Consumer Goods of Kazakh SSR reports that light industries there overfulfilled their quota for the first six months of 1955 by six per cent; this was represented mainly by textile mills, clothing and knitwear, leather and footwear factories. Uzbekistan and Kirgizia also report that production was ahead of schedule for the first half of the year, especially in the textile industry.

Production of consumer goods is controlled in each republic by the Ministry of Consumer Goods, with the exception of foodstuffs which come under the ministries of Food Industry, Fish Industry, Meat and Dairy Produce.

In Tadzhikistan two new areas are being developed for industry; the first, in the north of the republic, is connected to the Tashkent railway and the second, in the south-west (Gissar Valley) is accessible to the Termez-Ordzhonikidzeabad railway.

The textile industry is now one of the principal light industries of Central Asia, and is being expanded and modernized throughout the region. Before the Revolution only cotton-ginning mills existed in Central Asia,

but since then an important cotton industry has been built up consisting of large mechanized cotton-ginning factories, spinning and weaving cotton kombinats, cotton-wool factories and other subsidiary undertakings. The cotton-ginning mills of Central Asia and Kazakhstan have sufficient capacity to process all the raw cotton produced in this part of the Soviet Union.

During the nineteen-thirties large cotton mills were brought into production in Uzbekistan, including the Stalin textile kombinat at Tashkent, one of the largest in the Soviet Union, and the Fergana spinning and weaving mills which have gradually been extended into another large textile kombinat. A new cotton-ginning mill has been built at Begovat, new spinning mills at Bukhara, Samarkand and Kokand and four large silk-reeling mills at Fergana, Samarkand, Bukhara and Margellan.

In Tadzhikistan a large textile kombinat has been created at Stalinabad. Cotton-ginning mills have been built at Stalinabad, Kanabad, Kurgan, Leninabad and several other towns, and silk-reeling mills at Stalinabad and Leninabad. At Osh, in Kirgizia, a silk kombinat is now in operation and a new cotton-ginning mill has been built at Frunze. Prior to the Revolution there were a large number of small cotton-ginning mills in Turkmenistan; in their place there are now six large mills at Ashkhabad, Mary, Bairam-Ali, Chardzhou, Kerki and Yolotan. There are also a cotton-spinning mill at Ashkhabad and new silk-reeling mills there and at Tashauz.

In Kazakhstan there are wool kombinats at Semipalatinsk, Kargalinka and Alma-Ata, and cloth production has increased several times in comparison with the pre-war level. At present the only cotton-ginning mills are at Chimkent, Alma-Ata and Semipalatinsk but the cotton-ginning industry is now being developed in south Kazakhstan. Cotton-spinning mills are in production at Alma-Ata, Semipalatinsk and Kustanai and a new cotton kombinat is under construction at Chimkent.

Since the end of the Second World War the Tashkent textile kombinat has been expanded considerably and its output as well as that of the Fergana textile kombinat increases every year; it is hoped that the gross output of each kombinat may be raised by approximately 20 per cent in the immediate future. A much greater variety of cotton fabrics was produced by these two kombinats in 1954 as compared with previous years. The Stalinabad textile kombinat, however, has not been so successful and according to Kommunist Tadzhikistana of the 2nd June 1955, many cotton fabrics are below the established standards and some of these have serious defects. New machines often remain idle or are brought into operation after great delay. At present "byaz" (cheap cotton cloth), linen and

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various other cotton fabrics are manufactured at Stalinabad, and a second large textile kombinat is now under construction.

The silk industry is more advanced in Tadzhikistan than in other parts of Central Asia. Prior to the Russian revolution raw silk was exported from Russia to France and Italy and re-imported in the form of finished fabrics. The Leninabad silk-reeling mill was built in 1933 and later transformed into a silk kombinat. The kombinat has five mills and has recently been enlarged and reconstructed; it is now equipped with up-to-date textile machinery. The silk cocoons for Leninabad are collected from Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan. The Krasnyi Tkach silk factory at Leninabad was also recently reconstructed and equipped with modern machinery, and now manufactures more than one million metres of silk fabrics a year. Before the last war only three kinds of silk fabrics were being manufactured at Leninabad, which satisfied the demands of the local market. Now about thirty varieties of high quality silk materials are produced; the Leninabad pongee, crepe, "silk linen" and many others are well-known in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and other towns of the Soviet Union. Recently another mill, specializing in velvet, repp and velours has started production at Leninabad.

Increased output and reduced costs in the wool industry of Central Asia are being ensured by improved organization and greater productivity. In Kirgizia a large wool-cloth mill is now in production at Frunze; in 1954 the output of cloth was 70,000 metres greater than in 1953 and in the early part of 1955 ten new colours and designs were manufactured. At Mary there are wool-washing and wool-combing mills; but there are no weaving factories in Turkmenistan. Production of cloth has increased considerably over the pre-war level at the wool kombinats of Semipalatinsk, Kargalinka and Alma-Ata and the mills are gradually being expanded.

The clothing industry in Uzbekistan is concentrated mainly in the large factories at Tashkent, Samarkand, Kokand and Bukhara, though there are also a number of smaller undertakings and cooperative workshops in various other towns, including those belonging to the local and cooperative industrial organizations. About 780,000 rubles worth of goods in excess of the planned quotas were produced by the Kokand clothing factory within the first quarter of 1955 and a new factory just completed in Tashkent will increase the output of clothing in Central Asia still further. Some of these factories, however, did not achieve their 1954 output quotas; the Uzglavshveiprom chain (Uzbek General Administration for the Clothing Industry) was one, and according to Pravda Vostoka of the 22nd June the Krasnaya Zarya factory still turns out poor quality goods. Similar complaints were reported in Kommunist Tadzhikistana of the 2nd June against the Stalinabad clothing factory. The industry in Tadzhikistan and Kirgizia

is not so highly developed as in the rest of Central Asia and in the former the only clothing factories are at Stalinabad and Leninabad. The Leninabad factory manufactures wool and silk dresses, trousers and children's clothes; it completed its output quota for the first half of 1955 six days ahead of schedule and the gross value rose by three and a half million rubles compared with the same period of 1954.

In Kirgizia the only clothing and knitwear factories are at Frunze, Osh, Talas and Naryn. At Frunze obsolete equipment has been replaced by new machines and output is rising; the mass production of suits for men and women has now been organized here. A great deal of up-to-date machinery has recently been installed in the factories throughout the republic, which has resulted in considerable reduction in operating costs, higher productivity, and a greater variety of clothing.

There are more than twenty clothing undertakings in Turkmenistan, of which the factories at Ashkhabad and Chardzhou are the largest. In Kazakhstan there are clothing factories at Semipalatinsk, Alma-Ata, Kustanai and Petropavlosk and a considerable number of small undertakings represented mainly by workshops of the local and cooperative industries. Specialization was introduced into the Kazakh clothing industry in 1955 and each factory now manufactures a definite range of goods. At Semipalatinsk, for instance, hosiery and children's overcoats are produced, at the two Alma-Ata factories, overcoats, suits and dresses, and at Kustanai and Petropavlovsk overalls for workers engaged on the reclamation of virgin and derelict land. This specialization, according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda (10th March 1955) ensures the regularity of production and the achievement of overfulfilment of output quotas. During the first two months of 1955 the value of clothing produced in Kazakhstan rose by 15m. rubles compared with the corresponding period of 1954.

Jute is now being cultivated in Central Asia and plantations are being extended in Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan. The first jute mill was built at Kirovabad in south Tadzhikistan and another is under construction at Moskovskii (formerly Chubek). Jute and kenaf (a bast plant cultivated in Central Asia) mills are operating in Uzbekistan and a hemp-jute factory is in production at Frunze in Kirgizia. A kenaf mill at Tashkent manufactures sacking, rope and string, and large quantities of hessian and rope manufactured in the jute mills of Central Asia are supplied to industrial undertakings and collective farms in other parts of the Soviet Union. With the development of jute cultivation in these regions, a flourishing jute industry should eventually be built up in Central Asia.

Owing to the expansion of animal husbandry in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, a considerable increase in the output of the tanneries and footwear

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factories is expected in the near future. The tannery at Alma-Ata is being extended and now occupies an area twice as large as in 1950. In other tanneries, at Uralsk, Chardzhou, Ashkhabad and Mary, production of leather for footwear and leather belts for industry is rising and planned quotas are being more than fulfilled.

In many footwear factories quotas are being exceeded and further improvements made to working procedures, as for instance at the Kustanai factory where twelve different improvements were introduced as the result of the initiative of individual workers. At No.1 Tashkent Footwear Factory the programme for the first half of 1955 was exceeded to the value of 800,000 rubles, 24 different styles are manufactured and 200,000 more pairs of footwear should be produced there this year than in 1954. Materials to the value of 700,000 rubles were saved during the first quarter of 1955. The other Tashkent footwear factory, the Tashkent Leather Footwear Factory, however, was criticized by Pravda Vostoka of the 22nd June for having had 1,000 pairs of poor quality shoes returned to it; but productivity is improving at this factory.

At Stalinabad leather factory and the Nos.1 and 2 Footwear Factories at Frunze, modern equipment has been installed and new techniques are being tried out. These are resulting in higher output, considerable saving in materials and quotas are frequently achieved ahead of time.

The Kazakhstan leather and footwear industries are concentrated at Semipalatinsk, Alma-Ata, Petropavlovsk, Dzhambul, Kzyl-Orda, Kustanai, Karaganda and a number of smaller towns. The output of footwear increased by 3,761,000 pairs between 1940 and 1952. Early in 1955 the first automatic machine-tool was installed at the Alma-Ata Footwear Factory; this machine, which was built at the Leningrad Vpered machine-tool engineering works, can finish 1,300 pairs of shoes per day. Several more of these machines are to be installed in Kazakhstan factories during the year and this should raise output still further.

The furniture industry in Central Asia is located mainly in Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Kirgizia. In Uzbekistan the Fifth Five-Year Plan proposes to raise the output of furniture in 1955 five times above the 1950 production figure. New factories have been built at Namangan, Termez and Turtkul, and other older workshops have been enlarged.

The Khorog industrial kombinat (Gorpromkombinat) in Tadzhikistan, which manufactures cupboards, tables and desks, increased its gross output in 1955 by 11.5 per cent over the 1954 figure. But according to Kommunist Tadzhikistana of the 2nd June, the situation at furniture manufacturing factories is far from satisfactory; the Tadzhikpromsovet undertakings

achieved only 89 per cent of their 1954 quotas and those of the Ministry of Local Industry only 68 per cent of theirs. Production for 1955 promises no better.

The furniture industry is being expanded in Kirgizia where various kinds of wood suitable for furniture making are available. The Frunze woodwork kombinat is the largest in Kirgizia; new workshops will soon be brought into production, as a result of which the output of various goods, and particularly of furniture, should be greatly increased. Modern lathes have been installed, as well as light furniture conveyors. The hot pressing of plywood is also employed here. The present intake capacity of the two frames of the kombinat's saw-mill, with a three-shift system, is over 9,000 cubic metres of timber per month, but more than 70 per cent of the sawing capacity is not utilized. The total production capacity of all other saw-mills is only 50 per cent higher than that of the woodwork kombinat, though the number of workers employed is 16 to 20 times greater. Waste at the majority of these mills is not utilized, though the kombinat could use it as raw material for the manufacture of furniture. As the Frunze kombinat is not working to full capacity, Sovetskaya Kirgizia of 2nd June suggests that all but two or three of the small saw-mill frames should be dismantled and the kombinat more fully utilized, though even this would not result in full loading. The same paper complained on the 19th April of the poor quality of furniture manufactured by the Krasnyi Mebelshchik Cooperative Workshop at Frunze. Shortcomings are reported from other factories too and there are frequent complaints about the poor quality of goods.

There has been an acute shortage of hardware, china and metal goods for some years in Central Asia, but plans are now in force to remedy this situation. New factories and workshops in many towns have recently been completed or are under construction and a sharp rise in output is expected in 1955 and subsequent years. In 1955 the production of zinc-plated hardware in Uzbekistan should increase six times over the 1950 figure, and metal bedsteads four times. Hardware and china are now being manufactured in Uzbekistan instead of being imported from other republics. A new factory for metal consumer goods should be completed at Samarkand during 1955. Hardware and bedsteads are manufactured in large quantities at Ashkhabad, Stalinabad, Leninabad and in several other towns. Stamping presses have been installed in many factories although the machines are not always operated to their full capacity at some undertakings and new equipment often remains idle for long periods. There are complaints of poor quality goods still being produced in Kirgizia.

In addition to the above main branches of light industry, there are a number of small industrial undertakings manufacturing such things as

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school exercise books, toys, gramophone records etc. New machinery has been installed at the Tashkent paper mill where school exercise books are produced, and the first workshop for mechanized toys has started production in Uzbekistan. At the Tashkent Gramophone Records Factory a special kind of local clay is now in use as raw material for the manufacture of records. Records made from this clay have proved to be better than those manufactured from raw materials brought from the Urals and the Caucasus.

Local and cooperative industries play an important part in the expansion of the output of consumer goods in Central Asia. Until recently most of these industries were lagging behind in their production programmes; the Uzpromsovet (Uzbek industrial council) did not achieve its 1954 production quota; footwear, crockery, clothing and other branches of local industries are criticized for not working satisfactorily last year. Forty workshops of industrial cooperatives were inspected and, according to Pravda Vostoka of the 22nd June 1955, "the output of seventeen of these was found to be of very poor quality as a result of which trading organizations refuse to accept these goods. The Tashkent Metalshirpotreb continues to manufacture poor-quality bedsteads and hardware. Complaints are received from trading organizations and individual shops about poor-quality goods delivered by various consumer goods factories and workshops in Uzbekistan."

Similar complaints are made of local and cooperative industries in Kirgizia. Out of 50 enterprises 19 failed to achieve their respective quotas in 1954, but there is an improvement this year and the output of clothing, furniture and some other goods has risen to a considerable extent. The gross output of consumer goods continues to grow in Tadzhikistan, though several individual factories, including the Metalshirpotreb and knitwear factories, have fallen short of their production programme.

Workshops of the industrial cooperatives are accused of not carrying out the directives of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the development of consumer goods, and improvements in quality. Most of the cooperative workshops fail to achieve their production quotas and to manufacture new varieties of goods. Insufficient attention is paid to meeting the real demand for consumer goods which exists on the market, as a result of which goods often remain unsold, and the lack of variety is acutely felt. Many cooperatives are reluctant to manufacture such things as toys, wooden and metal wares.

In spite of the priority given in the Soviet Union to the development of heavy industry, a leader in Voprosy Ekonomiki (July 1955) stated "the output of consumer goods will increase by 72 per cent in 1955, instead of

the 65 per cent fixed by the Five-Year Plan, as compared with 1950." Although this is a favourable trend there are still numerous shortcomings in individual factories and workshops due mainly to the fact that light industry in Central Asia, as elsewhere, has long been neglected. There is a shortage of technicians and skilled labour, and trained and efficient management, as well as up-to-date machinery needed for the rapid expansion of the industry.

Nevertheless, great efforts are now being made to reorganize the industry. Modern machinery is being introduced, efficiency in operating factories is being raised and a considerable number of small obsolete workshops are being regrouped into a limited number of highly specialized large factories. For instance, the 35 small tanneries in Uzbekistan have been merged into two large factories, one at Tashkent for cattle hides and another at Samarkand for sheep and goat skins. Clothing factories which were turning out only limited assortments of poor quality goods and old patterns are being reconstructed to produce a wider range of better-quality material. These and similar changes are gradually being applied to all other branches of light industry in Central Asia in an effort to meet the growing demands of the consumer.

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TRADE

THE AVAILABILITY OF COMMODITIES
IN CENTRAL ASIA

Trading organizations - Volume of trade - Goods in short supply -
Expansion of the trading organizations - Advertisement and service -
Agricultural produce - Transport and distribution difficulties.

Retail trade in the Soviet Union is in the hands of the Ministry of Trade and the Consumer Cooperatives Union; collective farmers as individuals may also engage in retail trade in the kolkhoz markets. As a body the collective farmers may engage in trade only indirectly, by selling their produce remaining after the delivery of the State quota either to the Ministry of Trade depot or to the Consumer Cooperatives for sale on a commission basis.

In the Central Asian press the organizations under the control of the Ministry of Trade come in for little comment, and that mostly favourable except in Tadzhikistan; but the Cooperative organizations are constantly criticized. At frequent intervals readers' letters printed either in full or in summarized versions complain of shortages, of bad service, or on occasions of misappropriation. In 1938 all trade in rural areas was made over to the Cooperatives; in 1946 they were again given the right to engage in trade in towns, and a return was made to the earlier system of subscribers and elected management committees. It is not, despite the existence of a Tsentrosoyuz in Moscow, as centralized in organization as the Ministry of Trade - which has been known to fix in Moscow the names of goods produced in Central Asia for local consumption, although these goods already had well-established local names. Today rural trade is still almost entirely in its hands, and it is therefore the more important branch of the general trading organization; in this connection it is perhaps significant to remark that in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan it is known even in Russian publications by its native name (thus, Uzbekbrlyashu, not Uzbekpotrebsoyuz). Both its method of organization and its function bring the Consumer Cooperatives more into the public eye.

The amount of trade has greatly increased in the years since the War. In Uzbekistan the total trading turnover in 1953 was "in comparable prices"

1.8 times that of 1940. This figure includes a rise in meat consumption of 8 times, 7 times the amount of animal fats, 3.5 times the amount of vegetable fats, 3 times the amount of sugar and 2.3 times the amount of confectionery. In Tadzhikistan the retail turnover was 33 times that of 1930 and more than three times that of 1940; in 1954 the turnover was one milliard rubles more than in 1953. In 1953 twice as much meat was sold as in 1952, 65 per cent more animal fats, one and a half times as much milk and dairy produce, twice as much preserved meat and 15 per cent more silk. For the first half of 1954 there was an increase of about 50 per cent in these commodities. In Kirgizia the turnover in provisions rose by 90m. rubles between 1950 and 1954. The turnover of the Turkmen Consumer Cooperative was 205m. rubles more in 1954 than in 1953.

The total figures given above require some qualification. They include all goods sold to the population - not only provisions and consumer goods, but sales of machinery or building materials both to individuals and to organizations such as agricultural or industrial cooperatives (kolkhozes and artels) which are not an integral part of the State system of production. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that the volume of goods available to the population generally is much larger than it has been in the very recent past. Accounts of oblast conferences of the Consumer Cooperatives confirm general and republican surveys to the effect that there has been an increase of about 50 per cent in volume between 1954 and 1955.

Despite the progress made, complaints continue of shortages of products of the most essential type - salt, fats, clothing, paraffin. Such shortages are revealed not only by letters of complaint, but by accounts of "black market" or "under the counter" trading, and by letters of appreciation of the work of a particular shop, where it is easy to buy goods which are short elsewhere. At a conference of (State) trade workers in Kirgizia called in April of this year to discuss instances of misappropriation disclosed by a routine Ministry inspection, the State Prosecutor of Osh said that "speculation" - the resale of goods by individuals, which, though widely practised, is an offence - was encouraged by the shortage of such goods as salt, vegetable fats and lamp chimneys.

This shortage is of long standing. In February 1954 a letter to Sovetskaya Kirgizia protested that in Novonikolayevka (Frunze oblast) it was possible to obtain salt, matches, paraffin, sugar, confectionery, and cigarettes only at rare intervals, while batteries for wireless sets had not been seen for a whole year. Another letter on the same day said that there were shortages of salt, paraffin, tobacco, crockery and glass in the Toktogul raion (Dzhalalabad oblast); another complained of a shortage of paraffin in Malovodnoye (Frunze oblast). In April it was said to be

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impossible to buy cloth in Nikolayevka; there had been some in February, but it had all been sold from the depot to relatives of the storemen. In the Susamyr valley - again in April - it was impossible to find furniture, preserves, sausage, butter or vegetable oil, while in the kolkhoz shops there was no thread, safety razors, toothpaste, crockery, glass, clothing or footwear.

A survey of Cooperative trade in the Issyk-Kul oblast in May 1954 showed that in many villages at the east end of the lake there was often no salt, paraffin, matches or soap to be had for two or three months at a time. For two years there had been no leather boots or shoes, caps or socks in the Taldy-Su raion. There had been no tobacco, paraffin or sugar for two months in Toguz-Bulak, Tort-Kul, and Ak-Sai.

In January 1955 there was no winter clothing for sale in State shops in Osh. There was also a shortage of bread. At the same time in Bystrovka (Frunze oblast) writing materials were not to be found; in April shop assistants were hiding woollen goods under the counter and selling socks and underwear at a profit to themselves. In the more remote kolkhozes surrounding the town there had for long been no paraffin or lamp- and window-glass. A leading article of the 8th April criticizing the Consumer Cooperative said that at Atbashi there was no salt, which is vital for cattle as well as for human consumption. Salt could be procured in Kirgizia, but the Consumer Cooperative preferred to import it. In June a letter said that there was no tobacco or paraffin at Krasnorechenskoye (near Frunze); a letter of the same date complained that there had been no paraffin in Kalininskoye for the last three weeks. Finally, a letter on the 2nd August complains that in Frunze itself one has to take one's place in the queue for paraffin in the early morning to obtain any from the few shops that sell it.

This survey of Kirgiz shortages might well give the impression that they are due to transport difficulties, as Kirgizia has poorer communications than any other Central Asian republic. Yet it must be remarked that of the places mentioned only Susamyr, Atbashi and the villages beyond Lake Issyk-Kul are really remote; all the rest lie very near to or on a railway line. The most recent example is from the capital of the republic. Moreover, this situation is repeated in other republics with better communications. In March 1954 the Tadzhik Consumer Cooperative was criticized as a whole for the general shortage of wheel oil, salt, crockery, glass and paraffin in all rural areas of the republic. In the first quarter of 1954 the Union issued 42,000 directives to its subsidiaries; but, as Kommunist Tadzhikistana remarked, "Directives and telegrams are not salt; they have no food value." Also in March, the Mikoyanabad cooperative was said to have had no paraffin for the last three months, and the Dangara no salt. In May

it was admitted that nearly all the shops in the Varzob raion, close to Stalinabad, had no salt, paraffin or matches. In September a general shortage of soap, matches, paraffin and salt was acknowledged. A selection of readers' letters on the 19th January gave the following shortages: Shakhristan - paraffin, winter footwear and clothing; Varzob - vegetable oil and matches; Dangara - primus stoves, lamp wicks and collar-studs; Vakhsh - children's winter clothing and footwear. In March a shortage of salt, paraffin, lamps and lamp-chimneys was reported in Murgab (Gorno-Badakhshan) and of paraffin, cigarettes and ready-made clothes in Yava, a raion whose Cooperative organization is usually held to be exemplary. In April an article criticizing the Ministry of Trade reported a general shortage of clothing in all the chief towns of Tadzhikistan.

The situation in Tadzhikistan is not ascribed to internal difficulties of communication and distribution; this is only mentioned in the case of Yava, where the letter claims that all the goods are at the raion base, and is a probable cause of shortage in Murgab, high in the Pamirs. But it is clear that Tadzhikistan imports much; an April 1955 article claims that 500 items of furniture are imported, as well as such things as scrubbing-boards, skull-caps, wheels, axes and locks, all of which could easily be manufactured locally but are not. They are hard to obtain because Tadzhikistan lies at the end of a long and complicated railway system, by which most of the republic's consumer goods must come.

The shortages in Turkmenistan are of much the same kind. A survey of trading in Tedzhen in January 1954 showed a shortage of paraffin, crockery, glass, wool and silk. The raion base was full of galvanized buckets, sacks, men's shoes, silk, wool and soap, while in the village shops these commodities were not to be found. The second Congress of the Mary Consumer Cooperative in May announced a rise in turnover of 100 per cent. But in Kuibyshev there was no paraffin, makhorka or cigarettes for sale in the first quarter of 1954, and a survey of 286 shops in the oblast showed that in 22 there was no salt, and in 11 no matches. In October a reader's letter complained that in Mary there were no school uniforms, children's clothes, socks, razor blades, or shoe polish. In Kizyl-Arvat, another letter complained, there was no fuel of any kind to be bought. In Ashkhabad it was impossible to buy tools for house repairs such as chisels, planes and nails. In January 1955 it was said that furniture was only on sale in towns - not even kitchen furniture is to be bought in country shops. In May a selection of letters said that in Sakar customers had to queue for three or four hours to buy a litre or two of paraffin. The oil treat shop in Kum-Dag had no shoes, stockings or summer frocks; they were sold secretly from the store to the managers' friends and relations. The shops were full of baths and basins from the workshops of Turkmenpromsovet;

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there were no gardening tools or buckets, which were imported. In July a letter complained that the salesman at the raion shop in Kizyl-Artrek sold primus stoves and handkerchiefs to his family and not to other customers.

It can be seen that the shortage of paraffin has not been noted in the press quite as much in Turkmenistan as in other republics. At the beginning of 1954 it was, however, acute perhaps because of the lack of transport; in Ashkhabad there were only three one-ton tanker lorries to supply the six shops of the city and to take it round the suburbs. Rail communications are rather better in Turkmenistan than in other republics, with the possible exception of Uzbekistan. An isolated instance of scarcity comes from Bulungur (Samarkand oblast) where in October 1954 no paraffin and hardly any sugar had been on sale for six weeks.

Kazakhstan, for its size, provides surprisingly few complaints. When these are examined, they are found to come mostly from the region of Alma-Ata. A description of the Kaskelen raion cooperative in January 1954 says that the Yeltai shop lacked 27 articles that it should have had according to the usual inventory. Among these were toothpaste, razors and studs. The raion experienced shortages of tea, salt, matches, tobacco, sugar, and paraffin, all of which were present in great quantities at the depot in Alma-Ata. A letter in January complained that it was impossible to find a child's coat in Zashchita, Leninogorsk or Alma-Ata; it was answered only in May, when it was said that the factory found it more profitable to make adults' clothes. In October of the same year a letter complained that it was impossible to buy women's stockings in Chu, Novotroitsk or Alma-Ata itself. The Kaskelen raion cooperative was again criticized in February 1955. There were then in Yeltai no mittens, felt boots, or caps with ear flaps; in summer there had been no underwear. In Kaskelen itself there was never any furniture, crockery or glass. In Karoi there were often no vegetable fats or fish, and for the last six months there had been no batteries.

Accounts are constantly given of increases in the number of shops both in the country and in the towns, and of the extension of the trading system into remote areas by means of mobile shops and kiosks. In Kazakhstan the Tsentrosoyuz has intervened to supervise the organization of trade in the new lands. In the first half of 1955, 350 prefabricated buildings for shops and 900 mobile shops were sent out by it after reports that the new sovkhoses were not assembling the prefabricated buildings sent to them in 1954. 125 new shops and kiosks were opened by Turkmenbirlishik (the Turkmen Consumer Cooperative) in 1954. A report in October had stated that of the 40 then built 4 were general stores, 2 "culture" (luxury) goods shops, 16 village shops and four - in Deinau, Khalach, Iolotan and Kizyl-

Arvat - to sell painting, decorating and building materials. In Uzbekistan the Consumer Cooperative opened 300 new shops in 1954, among them 56 large village shops, 14 "culture" shops, 170 kolkhoz general stores and five shoe shops. In 1955 it was to open 27 shops in raion centres, 85 village shops, 18 "culture" shops and 276 shops in remote kolkhozes. In Kara-Kalpakia - an area whose trading organizations have been entered for the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition - new provision shops were opened in March 1955 in Nukus, Turtkul, Khodzheili, Chimbai and Khalkabad. At the end of 1954, 700 motorized-shops and 1,500 carts were in use to deliver winter clothing, crockery, glass and provisions to the more remote areas of the republic. The same system is in operation, though not, perhaps, on such a scale, in other republics; in the mountain areas of the Dzhabul oblast in Kazakhstan and in the Garm oblast of Tadzhikistan. Such efforts do something to satisfy the complaints that goods lie in the raion or oblast warehouses, and do not reach the more distant consumer. A close watch, however, is kept on costs of transportation and the State Trade Inspectorate frequently rebukes organizations who have exceeded the planned costs, or who have calculated them - they are drawn up on a complicated percentage basis - to their own advantage, so that they can fulfil the turnover norm. During the summer of 1955 there have been articles in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda recommending delivery rounds in place of a number of journeys, and delivery straight from the factory where possible; a shoe factory in Alma-Ata in June began to deliver its goods direct to near-by raions, only using the base in the capital for distant deliveries. The All-Union Ministry of Trade has developed a system of goods by post, recommended for the settlers in the new lands. In May and July 1955 advertisements of this organization, which have appeared only in Turkmenistan, offered wireless sets from Irkutsk - over 2,000 miles away - and watches, photographic equipment, bicycles, alarm clocks, gramophones, primus stoves, records, clothing, cutlery, safety-razors and electric irons from a depot in Tashkent.

Advertisements by ordinary State trading houses appear only rarely, before national holidays, or on receipt of some special delivery. Those of the first class are hardly indicative; they list typical presents - clocks, cutlery, jewellery and china. An advertisement in Pravda Vostoka in December 1954 gives a list of the shops of Yuvelitorg, the authority within the Ministry of Trade dealing in the goods mentioned above. They are in Tashkent (five shops), Fergana, Andizhan, Kokand, Samarkand, Bukhara, Urgench, Margelan, Termez and Chirchik; in Stalinabad; in Ashkhabad, Krasnovodsk, Chardzhou, Mary, and Nebit-Dag. A routine advertisement, of the second class, by the Stalinabad Gorpromtorg (the retail shops of the city cooperative artels) is of clothing of ordinary type, scent, toilet soap, crockery, glass, silk and cotton. The organization operates seven shops in Stalinabad. The parallel organization in

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Ashkhabad held a "conference of customers" in October 1954 to discuss the clothing problem. The shortage of ready-made clothes has been referred to many times. A frequent charge against shop assistants is that they have sold cloth or clothing at increased prices; there are instances of this in all five republics. Again, when new shops are opened, one of the most frequent recommendations is that they have a large assortment of textiles, ready-made clothing and haberdashery. In summer 1955 State shops in the capitals opened sections where customers can have their cloth cut, and it has proved a popular service. The Ashkhabad "conference" proved to be a fashion display in reverse; the audience explained why they disliked the model on show. The director of the shop explained that the criticized defects were caused by the irrational importing and exporting of goods. Often a man would buy trousers from Tashkent with a coat from Bukhara. Much of the factory's output went to Barnaul, from which complaints had been received that the Ashkhabad cut differed from that in use there; all the factory's output could be used in Ashkhabad, and this would reduce the need to import.

Trade in agricultural produce should be free of anomalies of this kind. It is not organized, in general, on an all-Union, but on a regional basis. Thus, while Tsentrosoyuz intervened in the new lands to ensure trading facilities there, the collection and distribution of agricultural produce was left in the hands of the local Cooperative associations at republican and oblast level. But in such a matter, where the crop concerned is not the main crop of the producing kolkhoz and where it is mainly disposed of locally, the temptation to disregard deliveries to the State and to sell produce outside the State organization is very great. The kolkhoz markets are controlled by the town councils, who appoint both sanitary inspectors and market supervisors; but the control exercised by the latter is often at fault, and criticisms of their work is frequent. For instance, an article in September 1954 complained that "speculation" was rife in the markets of Alma-Ata. The "speculators" buy up unsold produce from the kolkhoz stalls towards the end of the day, and sell it next morning before the other stalls open. Moreover, the stalls of the "speculators" are better set out and generally cleaner than the stalls of the kolkhozes, the Cooperative and the State trading organizations. Of these last there are not many, and they do not, therefore, fulfil their function of keeping market prices down.

The State and Cooperative shops do not seem to play a large part in supplying the population with vegetables; much of the produce collected in the form of State quotas goes to the larger cities of European Russia. Thus, by the 10th June 1955 two train-loads had already gone from Stalinabad to Moscow. In Stalinabad itself there are only two or three shops selling vegetables, where, according to the plan, there should be 21; this situation

is repeated in the major towns of the republic. In Kirgizia there are complaints, found in other republics, that the vegetables in the shops although cheaper than on the market, are old and withered. This is undoubtedly a fault inherent in the system of trading. To combat this, much emphasis has been laid - especially during the summer of 1955 - on trading by commission. The Cooperative sells produce on the markets for the kolkhozes, undertaking all the transport and expenses, and taking a commission for its work. This would seem to have advantages for the kolkhozes; but it is clear that they do not avail themselves of it. In Alma-Ata they complain that the collections are irregular. In Turkmenistan very little was done in 1954; in August and September the Ashkhabad Consumer Cooperative only reached 30-40 per cent of the planned amount, Chardzhou 39 per cent and Mary 20 per cent. In 1955 the amount of trade has been greater, but not as it should be; the kolkhozes complain that any losses are accounted to them under the pretext of poor-quality produce. In Kazakhstan in 1954, commission trade realized only 53,500,000 rubles instead of 83,500,000 rubles. Only in the Alma-Ata oblast was the situation normal; in Akmolinsk only 11 per cent of the plan was achieved and in Uralsk the directorate of the Cooperative bought bottled milk, and such things as felt boots, and sold them themselves not only in Uralsk oblast, but in Saratov and Chkalov at a profit - they mistook "speculation" for commission trade. In Alma-Ata in January 1955 the Cooperative sold sugar taken on commission at 9.5 rubles a kilogram when the market price was 8 rubles; commission trade was a means of lowering prices, not a way of breaking trade regulations. It seems that no real substitute for the open market trade can be found; people only buy their vegetables in the shops when all else fails, and the shops offer no serious competition to keep market prices down.

It would be natural to suppose that transport difficulties are the main factor regulating the availability of commodities in Central Asia. Many of the instances quoted support this assumption, and it is a common complaint among the population that "all these goods are lying there in the warehouses." But there are surprising instances where transport seems to provide no difficulty at all. Vegetables are sent from Tadzhikistan to Moscow (though the famous dried melons of Kzyl-Orda and Dzhabul mushrooms are unobtainable in Alma-Ata), trousers are sent from Turkmenistan to Barnaul and from Bukhara to Ashkhabad. Jewellery made in Russia is available at all the more prosperous towns of Central Asia. At the same time, even when transport difficulties are specifically mentioned as the cause of a shortage, the same goods are in short supply in widely differing areas. The fault lies, it would appear, in production and not with the trading authorities, who are given the credit when a kolkhoz farmer manages to buy a piano and the blame when he cannot buy paraffin for his stove. There are obvious defects in their organization, for which it would seem all-

TRADE

Union planning is responsible; but they are not, however, responsible for commodity shortages.

Sources

Central Asian Press.

F I N A N C E

C E N T R A L A S I A N B U D G E T S

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The present article consists merely of a compilation of material bearing on the budgets of 1953-55, which has appeared from time to time in the Central Asian press, supported by interpretative comment where this appears necessary.

The State budget of the USSR has two parts, the Union budget and the State budgets of the constituent republics. Of the two, the Union budget is much the more important. For 1955, of the 590,000m. ruble State budget the Union revenues represented 463,000m. and the constituent State budgets 127,000m. rubles. Republics may retain only a part of taxes collected; the percentages prescribed for the Central Asian republics in 1955 were:

	Uzbekistan	Kirgizia	Tadzhikistan	Turkmenistan	Kazakhstan
Turnover tax	11.3	34.7	34.6	29.3	94
MTS profits	10	25	25	25	25

and for all republics the proportion of income tax retained was 25 per cent, and of the tax on the income of cooperative organizations (such as kolkhozes), the agricultural tax, the bachelors and small families taxes and of State loans, 40 per cent. It is thus possible to calculate the revenue to the Union budget from a given republic on the basis of the amount retained by the republic. The Union revenues include profits from undertakings not under the supervision of republican authorities, from which republican revenues receive an unspecified proportion. The Union budget also covers expenditure on such undertakings. Nevertheless, republican budgets do reflect general economic development and give fairly full information on such subjects as education for which individual republics are entirely responsible financially.

The tables which follow are drawn up on the basis of the budget speeches of the respective Ministers of Finance and of the Chairmen of Budget Commissions, and from the promulgated budget laws for 1954 and 1955. Such information as has been published for the actual fulfilment of the 1953 and 1954 budgets has been included. Tadzhikistan, it will be observed, provides the most detailed information. The grain drive in

FINANCE

Kazakhstan disrupted budget plans there for 1954; only provisional figures were given of its fulfilment and no report was presented for confirmation by the Supreme Soviet.

Asterisked figures are calculated from percentages and are only approximate. All figures are in thousands of rubles.

TABLES

Uzbekistan

<u>Revenue</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
Turnover tax	652,440+	1,469,920+	1,375,685+	847,628+
Profits	290,000	778,530+	719,012+	(1,487,066+
Cooperative tax	-	404,380+	392,708+	(
MTS	-	226,760+	-	111,530+
Income tax	-	256,990+	-	271,290+
		<u>3,136,580</u>		<u>2,717,514</u>
Total given:	3,311,880	3,785,772	3,717,665	3,785,624
<u>Expenditure</u>				
National economy	698,300+	955,520	955,200	867,538
Education	1,473,502	1,630,002	1,555,150+	1,682,521
Health	{ 769,612+	{ 850,882	678,470+	732,745
Insurance			144,330+	157,027
Administration	-	-	268,940	250,643
Remainder	-	-	-	<u>112,427</u>
				<u>3,802,901</u>
Total given:	3,286,795	3,774,885	3,675,391	3,751,466

Kirgizia

<u>Revenue</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
Turnover tax	-	-	-	599,889+
Profits	160,667	182,368	153,000+	228,559
Cooperative tax	-	-	-	26,360
MTS	-	29,650	21,000+	26,000
Income tax	-	-	-	88,100
State loans	-	-	-	100,000
				<u>1,068,908</u>
Total given:	1,111,396	1,253,498	1,221,276	1,207,778
<u>Expenditure</u>				
National economy	304,396	381,880	-	336,020
Education	(644,365	505,121	-	506,712
Health	(172,710	-	182,564
Insurance	(43,104	-	47,232
Administration	124,908	122,385	122,298	109,298
Planned remainder	29,640	-	37,485	-
Total given:	1,099,706	1,253,498	1,208,278	1,207,778

Tadzhikistan

<u>Revenue</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
Turnover tax	551,755	734,944	684,944	562,298
Profits	126,481	174,330	153,047	269,252
Cooperative tax	-	83,604	-	83,410
MTS	-	54,450	-	58,750
Income tax	-	68,565	-	81,487
State loans	-	65,000	-	124,480
		<u>1,180,893</u>		<u>1,179,677</u>
Total revenue:	109,869	1,288,483	1,268,519	1,286,305

FINANCE

Tadzhikistan

<u>Expenditure</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
National economy	317,598	422,315	428,228	380,983
Education	456,158	518,244	490,522	543,480
Health	156,969	176,908	168,663	184,705
Pensions & insurance	28,350	32,345	31,246	33,736
Administration	120,317	113,068	109,913x	97,772
Planned remainder	-	31,389	-	-
	<u>1,079,392</u>	<u>1,294,269</u>	<u>1,228,572</u>	<u>1,240,676</u>
Total expenditure:	1,098,969	1,283,528	1,266,233	1,282,305

x At another point in the same speech, 1954 administration costs were given as 104,217,000 rubles.

Turkmenistan

<u>Revenue</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
Turnover tax	549,600+	586,499	-	462,312
Profits	-	92,334	-	171,577
MTS	-	60,750	-	-
Income tax	-	72,424	-	-
Loans	-	-	-	103,800
From the Union budget	-	-	140,061+	-
Total given:	1,023,709	1,075,311	1,221,623	1,129,802
<u>Expenditure</u>				
National economy	290,094	294,580	-	328,703
Education	357,353	414,455	-	417,472
Health	166,856	188,257	-	194,417
Insurance	-	40,483	-	42,348
Planned remainder	31,806	32,247	-	33,360
		<u>970,032</u>		<u>1,016,300</u>
Total given:	991,755	1,074,911	1,154,904	1,112,909

Kazakhstan

<u>Revenue</u>	1953 actual	1954 planned	1954 actual	1955 planned
Turnover tax	2,369,900+	3,457,658	3,504,000+	7,127,930
Profits	-	409,937	675,690+	1,081,100
Cooperative tax	-	175,964	-	263,000
MTS	-	86,350	-	99,300
Loans	-	201,000	-	403,700
Income tax	348,000	<u>356,074</u>	434,500+	<u>456,400+</u>
		4,686,983		9,431,430
Total given:	4,398,203	5,350,884	7,008,000	10,162,825
<u>Expenditure</u>				
National economy	1,313,573	2,107,023	-	6,523,222
Education	1,628,438	1,748,481	-	1,897,985
Health	713,736	796,172	-	900,225
Insurance	229,116	253,128	-	276,838
Administration	404,480+	374,000+	371,690+	354,134+
Planned remainder	<u>130,156</u>	<u>159,400</u>	-	<u>303,580</u>
	4,419,499	5,438,204		10,255,984
Total given:	4,349,189	5,345,318	6,758,000	10,122,947

Of the sources of revenue given, the "turnover" tax is a tax on retail prices, "profits" are the proportion assigned to the republican budget from industrial undertakings on its territory, "Cooperative taxes" are levied on the income of artels and under "Income tax" are included all taxes levied directly on the population. Only in the case of Turkmenistan is a direct subvention from the Union budget mentioned; this is probably for the building of the Kara-Kum Canal, which is in the hands of a republican authority. The revenue from a republic to the Union budget can be calculated from the percentage table above; in the case of Turkmenistan, the Minister of Finance gave the exact amount of the "turnover" tax:

		1954 planned		1955 planned
Union revenue	...	1,107,400	...	1,117,688
Turkmen revenue	...	549,600+	...	462,312

FINANCE

Expenditure under the head of "National economy" covers capital investment in agriculture, industry, the building of houses and the improvement of communications by road and rail, capital construction, repairs and sometimes the amount available in current funds. The following tables give the available figures for the various republics. Budget allocations are compared with allocations "at the expense of the funds of the enterprises themselves", that is, from sources external to the budget. Some of these sources must come under the Union budget, while others, such as cooperative artels in industry and agriculture (kolkhozes), will not.

TABLES

Uzbekistan

	1 9 5 3	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
	actual	planned		planned	
<u>National economy</u>	budget	budget	external	budget	external
<u>Total</u>	-	2,187,473		867,358	1,210,987
Industry	-	679,562		-	-
Agriculture	-	998,637		-	-
Building	-	153,500		-	-
 <u>Capital investment</u>					
<u>Total</u>	212,880+	502,384	266,127	415,600	329,000
Industry	86,430+	136,000	138,950	306,400	
Agriculture	81,960+	285,809	79,059	275,500	
Building	-	58,000	-	-	

Kirgizia

	1 9 5 3	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
		planned		planned	
<u>National economy</u>		budget	external	budget	external
<u>Total</u>	-	381,880	206,881	336,020	212,914
Industry	-	-	-	53,506	-
Consumer goods	-	-	-	33,336	87,500
Agriculture	-	192,970	-	178,147	69,000
 <u>Capital investment</u>	-	248,018	99,932	-	-

Tadzhikistan

	1 9 5 3	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 4	1 9 5 5	
	actual	planned		actual	planned	
<u>National economy</u>	budget	budget	external	budget	budget	external
<u>Total</u>	317,598	422,315	202,663	428,228	380,983	235,132
Industry	63,018	72,454	-	-	74,445	151,838
Agriculture	108,940	186,481	-	147,668	183,116	40,990
Building	56,765	59,090	-	-	42,828	6,908
Communications	51,101	38,764	-	-	45,542	26,487
 <u>Capital investment</u>						
<u>Total</u>	-	323,966	96,415	-	231,917	89,583
Industry	-	119,850	-	-	109,448	-
Agriculture	-	135,992	-	-	102,579	-
Capital repairs	-	45,402	53,090	-	52,302	60,454
Turnover funds	-	15,026	35,397	-	29,920	56,756

Turkmenistan

	1 9 5 3	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
		planned		planned	
<u>National economy</u>		budget	external	budget	external
<u>Total</u>	-	294,580	210,765	328,703	258,932
Agriculture	-	105,120	442,827 ^ø	159,010	82,923
Capital investment	-	226,471	98,069	212,289	96,441

^ø This includes over 100m. rubles from the Union budget for the Kara-Kum Canal.

Kazakhstan

	1 9 5 3	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
		planned		planned	
<u>National economy</u>		budget	external	budget	external
<u>Total</u>	-	2,107,023	970,959	6,523,222	3,094,052
Industry	-	838,130	-	1,230,826	1,497,776
Agriculture	-	2,225,250	-	4,930,643	1,330,317

FINANCE

The distribution of the budget allotment for education was as follows:

		<u>Uzbekistan</u>	
		1 9 5 4	1 9 5 5
<u>Education</u>		planned	planned
Schools	...	948,000	958,031
Higher education	...	-	312,352
Research	...	-	65,082

		<u>Tadzhikistan</u>	
		1 9 5 4	1 9 5 5
<u>Education</u>		planned	planned
Schools	...	267,408	281,431
Higher education	...	93,079	103,967
Child welfare	...	35,758	34,640
Research	...	21,887	24,745
Libraries etc.	...	15,712	13,574
Cinemas	...	2,660	-
		<u>436,504</u>	<u>458,357</u>
Total given:	...	518,244	543,480

		<u>Turkmenistan</u>	
		1 9 5 4	1 9 5 5
<u>Education</u>		planned	planned
Schools	...	230,305	183,169
Higher education	...	78,059	77,196
Research	...	27,704	-

Kazakhstan

		1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5
<u>Education</u>		planned		planned
Schools	...	938,166	...	978,000
Higher education	...	292,800	...	347,000
Child welfare	...	202,730	...	227,000
Libraries etc.	...	82,976	...	95,000
Research	...	93,650	...	97,000
		<u>1,610,322</u>		<u>1,744,000</u>
Total given:	...	1,748,481	...	1,897,985

Note: "Child welfare" includes orphanages; "Research" means the Academy of Sciences and similar institutions; "Libraries" includes all "cultural and educational" work.

There is no indication of the distribution of the education allotment in Kirgizia.

The State budget of each republic is divided into a Republican budget and the budget of its constituent oblasts and towns of republican subordination. It is thus possible to assess the revenue and expenditure for each administrative division. The following table shows the proportions of the republican and local budgets in 1954 and 1955 as they were planned:

		<u>Revenue</u>			
		1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
		Republican	Local	Republican	Local
Uzbekistan	...	1,436,867	2,342,405	1,383,937	2,401,687
Kirgizia	...	1,114,498	661,414	554,504	653,274
Tadzhikistan	...	1,189,083	649,371	1,188,658	648,218
Turkmenistan	...	950,308	498,485	1,005,382	522,977
Kazakhstan	...	2,782,439	2,568,445	9,489,883	2,882,626

FINANCE

Expenditure

	1 9 5 4		1 9 5 5	
	Republican	Local	Republican	Local
Uzbekistan	... 1,432,480	2,342,405	1,349,779	2,401,687
Kirgizia	... 1,114,498	661,414	554,504	653,274
Tadzhikistan	... 1,184,128	649,371	1,184,658	648,218
Turkmenistan	... 949,908	498,485	988,489	522,977
Kazakhstan	... 2,776,873	2,568,445	9,450,005	2,750,615

In some cases it is obvious that the totals of republican and local budgets are more than the amount of the State budget for that republic. This is explained by direct subvention from the Union budget to the budgets of various towns and oblasts, mentioned in Budget debate speeches.

Sources

1. Pravda.
2. Central Asian press.

The issues of Central Asian newspapers from which relevant statistics have been drawn are the following:

Pravda Vostoka for the 30th May 1954 and the 27th and 29th March 1955; Sovetskaya Kirgizia for the 27th, 28th and 30th May 1954 and the 2nd, 5th and 6th April 1955; Kommunist Tadzhikistana for the 4th, 5th and 10th June 1954 and the 29th and 30th March and the 1st April 1955; Turkmenskaya Iskra for the 13th, 14th and 15th May 1954 and the 18th, 19th and 22nd March 1955; Kazakhstanskaya Pravda for the 16th and 18th June 1954 and the 29th and 30th March and the 2nd April 1955.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

ORGANIZED LEISURE AND
CULTURAL ENLIGHTENMENT

Introduction - Clubs - Libraries - Lectures - Theatre and cinema -
Administration - Plans for increased cultural opportunities -
Conclusion.

The leisure activities of the Soviet citizen are as much a matter of Party interest as his work and the fulfilment of production pledges. The individual is encouraged, at any rate in theory, to spend his leisure not merely in entertainment but in furthering his knowledge, acquiring new skills and developing initiative and latent talents. Participation in amateur arts and crafts therefore is almost a social duty and generally takes place in one of the official establishments provided for the purpose - a Palace of Culture, a club, library or reading room. Outside such establishments the worker will find it difficult to indulge his tastes for games, dancing, the cinema or self improvement.

For the most part these institutions are maintained by the Trade-Unions, or out of special funds allocated by a factory, kolkhoz, sovkhoz or MTS. The Party has very few welfare institutions as such; but in every cultural establishment it maintains a "red corner", room or yurt, depending on the size of the institution. Many of these rooms are hung with red velvet, portraits of Lenin and Stalin and have in fact an almost shrine-like atmosphere; from here propaganda has its source and colours the activities of the whole establishment.

Culture and welfare work (kulturnoye obsluzhivaniye) and the work of culture and enlightenment (kulturnoprosvetitelnaya rabota) are in theory two different things, the second implying Party activity and including the work of ordinary Party "agitators" in factories and fields. In actual fact however they overlap; both are supervised by agitprop (i.e. section for propaganda and "agitation") and it is impossible to have the one without the other. This point was stressed by L.I. Brezhnev, secretary of the Central Committee of the Kazakh Communist Party, when in the course of his speech at the Conference of cultural workers held in Alma-Ata in June he declared, "It must be understood that our clubs, reading rooms, libraries

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

and palaces of culture are a splendid field for bringing ideological influence to bear on the masses. Each centre should assist in the development of socialist construction, should draw the masses into active communal work, and should help the masses to acquire the knowledge necessary to them in their socialist labour."

In Kazakhstan, according to a press report of 5th January 1955, there are 10,000 libraries and clubs. In 1953 there were 788 mobile film units and now there are twice that number. On 24th June, Tazhibayev, the Kazakh Minister of Culture, gave the following figures for the republic as a whole: 28 theatres, 5,200 houses of culture, clubs, libraries, reading-rooms (izby-chitalni) and red yurts, and 1,500 film projectors. In the current year 500 new cultural institutions are being set up chiefly in the raions of the new lands.

In Uzbekistan the total number of clubs in June of this year was 1,300 of which 265 belong to Trade-Unions. There are 1,020 film projectors, 893 being in rural areas, and 80 theatrical-musical establishments, of which 11 are oblast theatres and 8 kolkhoz and sovkhos theatres. In the current year 111 new libraries are to be opened.

No total figures for Tadzhikistan as a whole are available but in the Kulyab oblast (recently abolished) there are 115 "palaces of culture" and clubs, 117 libraries, and 48 cinemas and film projectors.

In Kirgizia according to a statement of Shabayev the deputy Minister of Culture, there are 1,183 cultural-educational institutions of which 1,117 are in rural areas, and 325 film projectors, 127 being mobile.

On the 1st January 1954 there were 395 libraries, 50 houses of culture, 17 rural clubs and 520 reading rooms in Turkmenistan; these figures do not include those belonging to the Trade-Unions whose numbers are not given.

In view of the numbers of the cultural and instructional bodies it is hardly surprising that the work of culture and enlightenment should receive considerable attention in the press. Lengthy articles on the subject, many of them leaders, frequently appear in Central Asian newspapers. Most of these are of a censorious nature and criticism has been sharp particularly in Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan. Conditions appear to be better in Kirgizia and Turkmenistan but even here achievements are far from evenly spread. Indeed the urgency and emphasis with which these themes are pursued in the press indicate both the importance attached to this work and the failure to raise it to a satisfactory level. It appears that cultural welfare work lags behind the economic development of the republics and in some

areas is completely neglected. The cultural organizations do not embrace sufficiently wide sections of the rural population. The authorities are accused of "formalism" and guidance from above is said in many cases to be "superficial" and "nominal".

In theory clubs and libraries are required to project their activity into the territory around them; in practice the influence they exert is well below requirements. Many of the clubs are badly furnished and unheated in winter; dirty walls and broken benches and chairs are not uncommon and scaffolding has sometimes to do duty for a properly constructed stage. In Kazakhstan a "balalaika trend" is said to exist in many of the cultural establishments; people have come to regard them simply as places of recreation to which one only goes to dance or play games. Political work is at a discount and lectures on how the country oblast or kolkhoz lives are rarely to be heard. In fact some of the clubs are far from being "genuine centres of enlightenment"; the buildings are often used for storing a variety of agricultural produce: grain, cotton, cocoons, potatoes. In the club of the Lenin Zhol "millionaire" kolkhoz in South-Kazakhstan oblast several rooms are used for keeping hens. These conditions apply equally to the other republics of Central Asia. In the Kaganovich kolkhoz of Dzhahalal-Abad oblast, Kirgizia, the kolkhoz club has become "a snug place for cows from the adjoining cattle-farm." Sometimes clubs suffer from the depredations of their directors. For instance the administrator of the Dzhalanash house of culture, comrade Mazur, took all the musical instruments home for his children and himself to play on and had the club papers and magazines readdressed to his house.

Satisfactory clubs do, however, exist. Conditions appear to be beyond reproach in the houses of culture of the Kanibadam canning factory, the Leninabad silk mills and the Stalinabad municipal services. In these clubs political and technical education receives a wide dissemination, meetings with eminent people are arranged and active propaganda of current Party decisions is carried on. In Uzbekistan, the Palace of Culture of textile workers and the Palvantash club of oilworkers receive special praise. Here facilities are provided for old and young; the members can make model aircraft, study photography and radio maintenance, and enjoy music. The ideo-political level of the lectures is high and meetings with the foremost industrial and agricultural workers frequent. Conditions also appear to be satisfactory in many of the podshefnye kolkhozes (i.e. those under the patronage of a town). Nevertheless most of the positive instances quoted represent the exceptions rather than the rule.

A similar state of affairs applies to the libraries and to the publication and distribution of books. In Uzbekistan, since the advent of the Soviet regime, 32,000 titles have been issued and the total number of

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books published exceeds 318m., 11m. of which are classical works of Marxism-Leninism. However, publication allegedly is not keeping pace with demand. In Kirgizia there are 69 printing works but more than half do not fulfil their quotas. Even in the leading printing shop in the republic the work is badly organized, competition drives suffer from "formalism" and costs of production are high. In 1954 the plan for the publication of agricultural literature was fulfilled by only 47 per cent and there have been too few reprints of world classics. Moreover the quality of the print and binding leaves much to be desired. Translations into the local languages are bad. Especially unsatisfactory are those into Uzbek which are described as "shocking". It appears that the leading writers in this republic do not undertake translation and so far there are no translations of the complete works of Pushkin, Lermontov, Gogol, Nekrasov, Dobrolyubov and Mayakovskii.

In distributing books no attention is paid to the needs of the local inhabitants; the distributing agencies simply send whatever is to hand. In some districts there are not even bookshops; this applies to 62 raions in Kazakhstan. In Uzbekistan however, the Ministry of Culture has 178 bookshops and 128 kiosks and in 1954 the book distribution plan was fulfilled by 104.1 per cent.

In all the Central Asian republics the purchase of newspapers has considerably increased in recent years, but even so circulation is below requirements. One reason for this, apart from the "inactivity" of the workers of the printing union (soyuzpechat), is the insufficient publicity given to the new issues in kolkhoz and raion centres. In many of the stalls and kiosks old, yellowed papers are on view and even in oblast centres new issues are irregularly displayed, and some of the more remote areas never see a newspaper at all.

The organization and administration of libraries is inefficient. In the Ak-Kurgan raion of Tashkent oblast, libraries are poorly heated, the lighting is inadequate and there are no catalogues. Children get no help in the selection of suitable reading matter. Some libraries are housed in cramped quarters, and some like the Vvedenovsk raion library in Kustanai oblast have been moved out of their buildings. This particular library with its stock of 14,000 books has had its premises taken over by the local council, and has since been leading a "nomadic existence, allotted whatever room is temporarily vacant." In contrast to this there is the Budennyi sovkhov library in North-Kazakhstan oblast. This library has over 1,500 books on all subjects and some 160 regular members. Here book displays are arranged and literary evenings frequently held, at a recent one Musrepov's The Awakening Region was discussed. Book hawkers bring books to the house of every kolkhoznik. But this is an isolated case. Generally raion and

kolkhoz libraries are administered by people who lack not only the necessary qualifications but even a middle school education; some cannot even write down the name of the book they lend. Others have to combine their duties as librarians with those of accountant, housewife and barber, which of necessity receive priority. It is worthy of note that, ideally, librarians are required to help in the selection of books and encourage reading habits. They must see that current issues of newspapers and magazines are available, arrange book displays and the despatch of books to remote grazing grounds and cattlebreeding farms. They are also required to organize excursions to places of interest, lecture on topical subjects, write articles and dramatizations of local events and personalities, and organize advisory and information services.

In an attempt to spread the interest in books the Uzbek Writers' Union last October arranged visits by writers, poets and playwrights to kolkhozes, sovkhoses and raion centres of the republic. The visitors gave firsthand accounts of the 3rd Republican Writers' Congress and spoke of the preparations being made for the 2nd All-Union Congress. They answered questions about their own work, reviewed that of the young local writers, and held literary evenings when various topics connected with literature were discussed. The visits had the desired effect. It is hoped that they will become an annual feature and that similar excursions will be made by writers in the other republics.

An important factor in the communist training of workers is the attention devoted to lectures and every Soviet citizen is expected to spend at least several hours a week of his free time in attending them. The lectures range over a wide field; for example in the Garm oblast of Tadzhikistan some of the subjects in recent months were: "In the World of Learning and Technique"; "The Functions of Trade-Union Aktivs"; "Principles of Socialist Community Life"; "Alcohol the Enemy of Man"; "The Importance of Maize and its Cultivation"; "The Chinese Peoples' Republic"; and "The Struggle of the USSR for Collective Security in Europe". The quality of many of the lectures is not of an acceptable standard. For his treatment of the last subject the lecturer, Vakhrameyev, was severely criticized. He should have debunked the imperialists' idea that the struggle of the USSR for collective security was no more than communist propaganda, and as evidence of the Soviet Union's peaceful intentions and her sincerity he should have adduced such facts as the armistice in Korea and the cessation of hostilities in Indo-China. Instead, these facts were not even mentioned and he treated the main theme of his lecture in isolation from other aspects of the international scene, notably the cordial relations existing between the Soviet Union and India, Burma, Finland and many other countries.

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Lectures are equally faulty elsewhere. Many are "dry as dust", the lecturers often confining themselves to a mere repetition of several statements as a means of propaganda. Moreover, too few lectures are delivered; in Kazakhstan in 1954, 35,000 lectures were given but this is not enough. The organization of lectures is particularly bad in kolkhozes, sovkhoses and MT stations. The services of many lecturers are not used. Some subjects are insufficiently treated; for example there are not enough lectures on anti-religious themes, this is especially so in Tadzhikistan where lecturers are disinclined to touch on the matter. In many areas the struggle against superstition, outworn beliefs and modes of behaviour has been allowed to lapse. The consequences of this have been almost "freakish". In parts of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan although lip service is paid to the ideal of enlightenment, a "feudal-bai" attitude to women lingers on and many people still preserve an old-fashioned, unscientific and indeed long-since discredited outlook. The following incident quoted in full from Pravda Vostoka affords a striking indication of the sort of thing the authorities sometimes have to contend with.

"The leader of a visiting agitkulturbrigada was taking down the names of all the leading workers in the Lenin "millionaire" kolkhoz of Zhailma district, Kyzyl-Kum. Before him stood Zhumabai Nurtazayev and his wife Basharkul Zhumabayeva who each had 500 trudodnei (work-days) in 6 months to their credit. Suddenly the wife leaned across the table and in a hesitant voice asked:

"Could I be registered in my correct family name?"

"But in all the kolkhoz papers you are referred to as Zhumabayeva."

"But that is wrong," she insisted, "my husband's first name is Zhumabai, but for some reason they have decided that I am to be called Zhumabayeva as if I were his daughter and not his wife."

On further inquiry the official discovered that in the kolkhoz there were as many as 15 women who bore as surnames the first names of their husbands and had no legal family names. It also transpired that Polimbetov, the leader of a tractor brigade, had two wives and that instances of amangerstvo (successive monogamy: cases when on the death of her husband a woman becomes the lawful wife of his nearest relative) were prevalent. When members of the agitkulturbrigada remonstrated one old kolkhoznik made the following reply:

"What, do you expect that I should allow my daughter-in-law to go to a stranger?"

"It is difficult" comments the writer of the article, "to re-educate an old man, but one should carry on a continual fight against these barbarous customs and educate the young to see the evil to which these survivals of the past give rise." In the kolkhoz, however, even the komsorg Zhappasov apparently never lectured to the kolkhozniks and was indifferent to the irresponsible behaviour of some of the komsomol members. His explanation of his attitude was that, "it is inconvenient to reprimand people for backwardness when it is obvious that they do not wish to listen and are unwilling to shed habits and customs handed down from their forefathers."

In this kolkhoz it was also found that in the treatment of illnesses and diseases old-wives remedies are preferred to more scientific methods. In one case a child with tonsillitis had its throat squeezed for pus and its condition when seen by a qualified physician was such that immediate surgical treatment was necessary. It appears that many choose to be treated by drugs in a "sanctuary" rather than consult a doctor to whom they resort only in cases of emergency.

In the towns theatrical entertainment is provided by resident repertory companies or amateur groups. In the country the inhabitants have to rely almost exclusively on amateur groups which indeed appear to flourish everywhere. Although frequently handicapped by lack of stage properties, and sometimes even denied the facilities of a stage, they none the less manage to attain a high standard of performance and their repertoire ranges over a wide field - from solo items and one-act plays to complete productions of such works as Rachmaninov's Aleko. Occasionally a troupe of actors from an oblast theatre visit the kolkhozes and sovkhoses of a region, but these tours are neither frequent nor widespread and the amateur groups are particularly valued for the fact that they bring an impression of the theatre to places which normally never see one. Even so, many cattle-breeders on remote grazing grounds hardly ever see a play and the entertainment value of an excerpt acted in the middle of a field by actors who have to contend with a steppe wind and with no properties or backcloth to assist them, is questionable. A more detailed description of the work of amateur groups, was given in Central Asian Review, Vol.III No.2, under The Stage in Central Asia.

Film shows, like theatrical performances and concerts, are expected to take place regularly either in properly constructed cinemas or else in suitably equipped rooms of clubs or libraries. Where there are no clubs, the mobile film units are brought into service. In actual fact, however, except for the main towns and such oblasts as Bukhara and Andizhan in Uzbekistan and Tyan-Shan and Osh in Kirgizia, where conditions are reported to be satisfactory, the distribution and exhibition of films is

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inadequate. In the Shaartuz raion, Tadzhikistan, films are received irregularly and many are dubbed into Kirgiz. In the Surkhan-Darya raion in Uzbekistan films are received months and sometimes years after their showing in Tashkent. In Kara-Kalpakia the work of many film operators is made almost impossible by the raikom which has requisitioned a number of film vans for the use of its officials. Not all the operators are properly trained and sometimes films are carelessly shown with no regard to sequence, the last reel of a film being run off first. Many of the films exhibited also have defective sound tracks. In those raions and kolkhozes where there are no clubs and the units do not carry their own screens, films are projected on to "badly whitewashed walls". Often there is also no proper seating accommodation and as a result of breaks shows drag on till one or two o'clock in the morning. As one writer remarked, "In the circumstances it is no wonder that many workers prefer to spend their leisure in drink shops."

The unsatisfactory position of many of the cultural, educational and recreation establishments and their work is explained first and foremost by the "feebleness" of the cultural and educational workers. There are quite often cases of relatives of managerial officials being appointed directors of libraries, reading-rooms and clubs, regardless of whether they are suited to this type of work or not. Many instances of this particular form of nepotism are adduced. In Uzbekistan many cultural workers are said to have "no acquaintance with culture." But this applies with equal force to other areas. For example a shopkeeper, appointed director of the Dzhilikul department of culture, could not even spell his own name. Officials removed from various posts for corruption find ready employment in cultural organizations in the country. As a result of this haphazard selection of officials, replacement is high and the number of qualified workers extremely small. In the Taldy-Kurgan oblast of Kazakhstan only 22 out of 250 and in Leninabad oblast, Tadzhikistan, only 13 out of 144 librarians have any special training; in the Garm oblast the figures are 1 in 37. The local authorities do little to attract the qualified workers. There are no fixed rates of pay and in some cases not even suitable accommodation; many have to sleep on club stages, but being young this is thought to do them no harm. In consequence graduates of various tekhnikums prefer to look for "snug jobs" in the towns. This problem of staff is of course not new, but it remains to be seen if it can be overcome. Many of the responsible officials of oblast and republican departments of culture are averse to making the intensive effort needed to improve conditions. Indeed, the fact that many have been mentioned by name and repeatedly and severely criticized in the press seems to have had little if any effect. Organizational work is still replaced by the passing of numerous resolutions, and personal contacts by letters and telephone. The various ministers of culture are themselves accused of "eyewash" (ochkovtiratelstvo) and are said

to be remote from the needs and aspirations of the local population.

There is no doubt, however, that a considerable interest in literature and art as well as in the latest technical and scientific advances exists among all sections of the community. Demands for its satisfaction are insistent. This is particularly so among the novosely (new settlers) in the new lands. Coming from the big towns and accustomed as they are to urban standards and choice of entertainment, the present cultural amenities in the settlements are hardly adequate. They will have to be improved if the settlers are to remain on the land; various measures have been proposed in the different republics. In Kazakhstan the komsomol organization is urged to select, train and send to the libraries and clubs of the kolkhozes 3-4 thousand of its members. The Alma-Ata orchestra and actors from the main theatres are to go on tours. In Tadzhikistan and Uzbekistan the rural intelligentsia (agronomists, engineers etc.) is to be drawn into more active work. At the direction of the Council of Ministers of the Kirgiz SSR an investigating committee was appointed on the 31st August to study on the spot the conditions of all cultural-educational bodies in the raions and oblasts of the Republic. Prizes ranging from 5-15 thousand rubles are to be offered to the best-run establishments and fifty prizes of 400 rubles to the most efficient cultural workers. Throughout the republic, libraries, reading-rooms and clubs are to be properly equipped and provided with sufficient fuel for the winter months. Above all there is to be a strengthening of cultural ties between town and country throughout Central Asia. In the capitals all cultural centres have been called upon to serve as models of exemplary work, orthodoxy and artistic skill.

Although press reports describe a most unfavourable picture, the progress registered during the past ten years seems to have been remarkable especially when account is taken of the unresponsive and indeed obstructive conditions in which much of the work has had to be done. The number and distribution of clubs and libraries is itself confirmation of the spread of literacy and the unparalleled importance that is attached to the leisure activities of the workers.

If planned enlightenment has so far failed to combat some of the age-long prejudices, this is as much due to the imposition of an alien culture, which takes little account of native customs and life habits, as to the inefficiency of the cultural workers themselves.

The authorities hope to raise the level of administration and service by more rigid supervision, intensive training of workers, and not least by increasing incentives, notably higher pay, more prizes, and improved conditions of work in the rural areas. All these remedies have been ad-

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vocated in the past but with little effect. Whether they will prove more effective in the future only time will show.

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A p p e n d i x

The following figures of some of the individual oblasts are given as an indication of the distribution of clubs, libraries, etc., in Kazakhstan:

<u>South-Kazakhstan oblast</u>	34 libraries, 19 clubs, 49 schools, 5 kolkhoz radio exchanges, 2 houses of culture and several cinemas.
<u>Taldy-Kurgan oblast</u>	300 instructional establishments, 96 libraries, 9 raion houses of culture, 87 reading-rooms, 32 rural clubs, 34 red yurts.
<u>Karaganda oblast</u>	70 libraries, 20 new ones to be established in 1955.
<u>Kustanai oblast</u>	14 houses of culture, 165 clubs, 94 libraries, and 116 red yurts are to be established in the course of 1955.
<u>Emba oilfields</u>	20 clubs, 26 libraries, 70 red yurts.

The kolkhozes of the republic have undertaken to build 68 houses of culture, 581 clubs, 282 libraries, 344 red yurts, 49 stadiums and 59 sports-fields at their own expense. Radio services are to be extended to 244 points and electrification to 103. 90m. rubles are being set aside by the kolkhozes for this purpose.

Similar figures for the other republics of Central Asia are unfortunately not available.

Sources

1. Central Asian press.
2. Artisty u novoselov tseliny (a collection of articles) Izd. Iskusstvo. Moscow, 1955.

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SOVIET ORIENTAL STUDIES :

A NEW PERIODICAL

In May 1955 the first issue appeared of a new bi-monthly periodical named Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniya. This magazine is entirely devoted to oriental affairs and studies and is controlled by an editorial board composed of well-known Soviet orientalists. The chief editor is V.A. Maslennikov.

Some difficulty was experienced in obtaining the first two numbers of this periodical and it has only been possible to include brief notices of the articles relating to Central Asia in the bibliographical note in this issue of Central Asian Review. The present article reviews at somewhat greater length these items in No.3 of Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye which relate directly or indirectly to Central Asia. It is hoped to subject subsequent issues to similar treatment.

The leading article in the issue under review is entitled "The Tasks of Eastern Philology". The anonymous author defines philology as the study of history, economics and culture and emphasizes its importance in relation to the countries of the East at the present time. He then proceeds to consider the respects in which the Soviet Union falls short in this particular sphere. He notes the absence of what he calls the philological approach to contemporary problems and of adequate study of the early history and languages of eastern countries. He deplores the insufficient study and publication of eastern source material and the failure to use the rich stores of manuscripts in the Union and Uzbek Academies of Sciences. All these shortcomings have resulted in the existing translations of eastern literature being poor both in quality and in quantity and in articles, including even those by well-known oriental scholars, containing errors and glosses. Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye has set itself the task of repairing these defects: it will strive to maintain a high theoretical and ideological standard in its articles and will pay special attention to periodical and other literature appearing in oriental languages and to the discussion of current oriental problems.

In another article the well-known scholar E.E. Bertels emphasizes the importance of the meticulous study of original manuscripts in the preparation of critical commentaries, of which all too few are published

in the USSR. The officially promised complete edition of the works of the Uzbek poet Alisher Novoi has, for instance, never appeared. Bertels concludes his article with some positive recommendations for the building up in the USSR of a great collection of manuscripts and the creation of cadres of young and competent "philologists".

Perhaps the most interesting article is that by I.B. Shevel describing the agrarian reforms in the Chinese province of Sinkiang. A remarkable feature of this study is the way in which the author emphasizes over and over again, and apparently approves, the moderate and cautious tactics adopted by the Chinese Communist Party during the abolition of existing methods of landownership and exploitation and the introduction of revolutionary methods of land distribution among the peasants. Important factors in the Sinkiang agrarian reforms were the isolated situation of the area in relation to economics and history and the backwardness and heterogeneity of its population. Land ownership, irrigation water and livestock were concentrated in the hands of propertied classes. Only a small part of the land was available to the peasants in exchange for rent and labour. The agrarian reforms were preceded by a preparatory period which began in 1949 with the introduction of a progressive system of taxation, an increase in the amount of land leased to the peasants and a lowering of rents, and the prohibition of the sale and parcelling out of land. The distribution of water was also regulated. The actual reforms began in 1952. In the first place the needs of the poor peasants and labourers for land were satisfied; but their alliance with the middle peasants (*serednyak*) was not weakened, the land and property of the latter remaining untouched. With a view to securing their neutrality the farms of the kulaks were also allowed to remain, only their rented land being taken away. The treatment meted out to the landowners varied: those who resisted the reforms were mercilessly punished by the peoples' courts; those who cooperated were treated more leniently and their commercial and industrial concerns were left undisturbed. Lands belonging to religious establishments (*wakf*) were left with those establishments, except for certain plots already transferred to the peasants. Members of religious orders had equal rights with the peasants in the possession of land. In cattle-breeding areas no reforms were carried out. Only draught-cattle were confiscated from the landowners. Breeding cattle were not confiscated. After the completion of the reforms in 1953 the policy of the Chinese Communist Party in Sinkiang was directed towards the organization of agriculture on a cooperative basis. From this article it is clear that, at any rate in Sinkiang, the Chinese Communist Party proceeded on lines entirely different from those followed by the Communist Party in the Soviet Union.

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In an article entitled "The Movement for National Liberation in the Persian province of Gilan in 1920-21", M.N. Ivanov describes in considerable detail the establishment in 1920 of a revolutionary government in Gilan, which in 1921 was proclaimed as a Soviet Republic. The movement arose out of the so-called Jangali movement started in 1919 by Kuchik Khan, who eventually declined to associate himself with the revolutionary government and later cooperated with the Persian government in suppressing it. The author endeavours to give the impression that the revolutionary government was established by the will and independent efforts of the local population of Gilan and he omits to mention the leading part played in it by a Soviet force despatched to Enzeli (now Pahlevi) by sea from Baku. A much fuller account of this episode written from the Persian point of view can be found in Siyasate Daulate Shauraviha dar Iran (Soviet Policy in Persia) by Manshur Gurgani.

In an article on "The Development of Socialist Culture in Tadzhikistan" G.A. Aliyev, Vice-president of the Tadzhik Academy of Sciences describes in some detail the ancient Sogdian and Bactrian culture of Tadzhikistan and the great expansion of national culture under the Soviet regime. He gives a full account of progress in education and the arts and sciences. Among the more remarkable features mentioned is the expansion of the press, which now includes 72 newspapers and twelve magazines.

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FRIENDSHIP AMONG PEOPLES :

THE SOVIET STATE'S SOURCE OF POWER

The following are some excerpts from an article by B. Gafurov, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Tadzhik Communist Party, in Pravda (15th August 1955). The article is concerned with the policy of the Soviet Union in dealing with the "nationalities problem". It begins by quoting the favourable statements made by foreign delegations, giving as examples those of an English delegation of "cultural workers" and a Brazilian delegation of "partisans of peace" who visited Tadzhikistan. It continues:

"Reactionaries, frightened by the success of the Soviet people, try by every means in their power to misrepresent the national policy of the Soviet Union. For instance in 1953 there appeared in London a book by a certain Olaf Caroe, with the eye-catching and provocative title of Soviet Empire.... In his book Caroe sets out slanderous fabrications about the industrialization and collectivization of the national areas. He sheds crocodile tears at the change-over of the nomads to a settled life, and regrets that the Uzbeks, Tadzhiks, Kazakhs, Turkmens and other peoples of Soviet Central Asia have overcome their medieval backwardness; and he is displeased at the liquidation of the basmachis. There are many other inventions in the book designed to bring the successes of the Soviet national policy into disrepute. But these successes are obvious, and no-one can conceal the fact."

After describing the gradual approach to the solution of the nationalities problem, the opposition by "bourgeois and chauvinist" elements and the final achievement of equality and friendship among the various nationalities, Gafurov continues:

"The Soviet federation and autonomy created by the peoples of our country make it possible to ensure that a single policy is adopted for all peoples. This policy is designed to reflect the basic interests of the workers and at the same time to afford scope for the general development of statehood in every nation, and to take into account their specifically national character. In the economic sphere the right relation between the interests of the state as a whole and the interests

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of a people is reached by a sound and scientifically based coordination of centralization (in the administration of the national economy) and of local initiative, leaving the republics full freedom to decide local questions on the basis of the Constitution of the USSR.

"The Party and the Government have established that in the actual course taken in the guiding of the state economy, deviations from these principles have been permitted. For instance, planning authorities have sought to plan from the centre the nomenclature of goods produced for local needs by a republic, and there have been some abnormalities in compiling the budgets of national republics. The Party and the Government have made it clear that such low rating of the Union and Autonomous Republics' status leads to the whittling-away of the rights of those republics and to a lowering of the local workers' sense of responsibility, and they have taken a series of measures to liquidate the abnormalities that existed.

"At the same time, to make national interests absolute and to set them against the interests of the state as a whole is harmful and cannot be permitted. For example, some workers in the mountain areas of Tadzhikistan clung, until recently to their TOZ (Tadzhik Association for the Universal Development of Land), an obsolete form of the kolkhoz movement where the draught oxen and horses were for a long time at the personal disposal of the collective farmers. Many people took no part in the collective work but received trudodni (work-days) in payment for the use of their draught oxen and horses. All this delayed the development of the collective economy in mountain areas, but the leaders stubbornly maintained that this was the most suitable form for this particular area. However, the collective farmers did not agree with this point of view and themselves took the decision to hold draught oxen and horses in common. The development of these kolkhozes is now proceeding more quickly.

"The Central Asian republics, and Tadzhikistan in particular, are very rich areas with exceptionally good prospects for future increases in industrial and agricultural output. None the less some workers, under the pretext that these republics have to perform the laborious task of growing cotton, have for long underestimated the importance of other branches of agriculture in practice. Animal husbandry has been particularly neglected; the output of the cattle-breeding industry in Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan is very low and these three republics have the lowest milk yield in the Soviet Union. Enormous reserves have been kept in abeyance under the excuse of taking local conditions into account and this has harmed the interests of the people

as a whole. After the January plenum of the Central Committee of the Soviet Union Communist Party, the leading workers in agriculture in these republics have begun to put animal husbandry into order and are now convinced that cattle-breeding can be raised to twice the present level in the next two or three years without any damage to increasing cotton output.

"One may give yet another example. Many collective farmers in Central Asia live in old beaten-clay houses with clay floors and ceilings, although they have every opportunity to build well-planned houses. There have been "theoreticians" who have justified the existence of tents and have objected to well-planned houses with the excuse that it is, so they say, more comfortable to live in tents under local conditions. The Central Committee of the Soviet Union Communist Party criticized this point of view. Now thousands of well-planned houses are being built in Central Asia for collective farmers.

"Great harm is done to our common good by the feebleness of the struggle against patriarchal and feudal survivals, and in particular against the feudal bai attitude to women, with the excuse of local peculiarities. In many national republics there are still too few women in leading posts in Party and Soviet work, and in kolkhozes."

The author then quotes a number of instances of mutual cooperation and assistance among the various nationalities of the Union. He continues:

"Our success in realizing Lenin's national policy has been very great, but we must not forget that prejudices on the national question are very much alive and not yet finally overcome. A most important part of the political work of the Party is the "international" education of the workers. Communists are called on to cut short the slightest manifestations of great-power chauvinism in the course of their every-day activity, as well as any instances of nationalism, parochialism, or attempts to oppose the interests of a raion or oblast or republic to the interests of Soviet society as a whole. Any instances of national arrogance and haughtiness in relation to other nations (i.e. of the USSR) can cause great damage to friendship among peoples."

The article concludes with references to the need for friendship between the USSR and China, and the other "Peoples' Democracies", and to the sympathy with which the Soviet peoples watch the struggle for freedom by all those still under the yoke of imperialism.

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Note

B.G. Gafurov has been First Party Secretary in Tadzhikistan since May 1955. He is the author of a much criticized history of Tadzhikistan. He read a paper on Pan-islam and Pan-Iranianism at the conference of historians held in Tashkent in February 1954.

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KARAGANDA

A NOVEL BY G. MUSTAFIN

Translated from the Kazakh into Russian by K. Gorbunova, Moscow 1953

The scene of this novel is the Karaganda coalfields and the action relates to the whole period of Soviet construction from the beginning to the time when a high output of coal was first achieved.

The principal character and the leading light in the whole work of prospecting, organization and exploitation of the coalfields is the Russian Party official Shcherbakov. His collaborators, however, are not Russians only, but include many local Kazakhs of the poorer classes. These latter are shown at first as illiterate and politically undeveloped; but under the influence of Russian Party officials and workers they quickly acquire all the qualities of the most conscientious and able Soviet workers. Members of the Kazakh intelligentsia are also shown as playing an important part in the development and sovietization of Karaganda. The book is indeed almost entirely concerned with the cultural and professional advance of the Kazakhs since their adoption of Soviet culture and labour discipline.

The counter-revolutionary activities of a few individuals among the Kazakhs are described in an unrealistic way. Lacking any firm foundation these activities are quickly liquidated as a result of Soviet vigilance.

The descriptions of the work of construction in Karaganda lack system and cohesion. Achievements are mentioned incidentally and always in connection with changes in the cultural and labour aspect of the Kazakh employees.

Throughout the book the emphasis is on the material experiences of the Kazakhs to the almost complete exclusion of their emotional experiences. Indeed the element of romance is virtually confined to some ten pages describing somewhat perfunctorily the romantic attachment between Meiram Omarov and Ardak. It is difficult to avoid the impression that in the process of editing, to which the novel has admittedly been subjected, some of the emotional content of the original has been sacrificed to make room for political and statistical material.

CURRENT EVENTS

NEWS ITEMS

The following news items refer to the period May-September 1955. Items are arranged by republics, and a list of abbreviations of their sources is given at the end.

KazakhstanWhereabouts of the Chechens

In May, an advertisement in Kazakhstanskaya Pravda announced the opening of subscriptions for the second half of 1955 to a weekly newspaper in the Chechen language, to be called Kinkhyegaman Bairakh (Banner of Labour). A similar advertisement appeared in Kirgizia in August with the name of the paper as Kinkhyegaman bairakkh giving the place of publication as Alma-Ata; also in August the Kazakh Party Central Committee advertised an edition of Bloknot agitatora (Notes for "agitators") in Chechen. The place of settlement of the Chechens after their expulsion from the Caucasus has hitherto been unknown. It was announced on the 28th August that the Society for the Propagation of Political and Scientific Knowledge had arranged lectures in Chechen at Tekeli; at the first lecture on the "friendship of peoples" 300 persons were present. The Karatal branch of the society had organized more than ten lectures in Chechen for the kolkhozes of the raion; lectures in Chechen had also been read in the Kirov and October raions. All these places are in the Taldy-Kurgan oblast to the south of the oblast capital; Tekeli is a lead mining centre. On the 7th September it was announced that the Akmolinsk town Komsomol committee had formed a Chechen-Ingush song and dance troupe. Several of the performers had received favourable notices at the first concerts, including M. Makhauri, a maker of Siberian felt boots, and A. Gagiyev and D. Temirbulatova, building labourers.

[K.P. 17th May, 17th, 28th August,
7th September]

[S.K. 13th August]

Use of Russian contractions in Kazakh

The State Terminological Commission of the Kazakh Council of Ministers has issued the following resolutions on the use of Russian contractions in

Kazakh.

Russian contractions whose use is of long standing in Kazakh (kolkhoz, sovkhoz, komsomol), or whose spelling coincides with the Kazakh (kompartiya, Komintern, komuniversitet, parts'ezd (?), RSFSR, USSR, obkom, gubkom, partkom, partbyuro, RKP, TDR, KazTAG, MTS, MTM, MDS, selsoviet, fabzavkom, FZU, fabzauch, etc.), or whose initial letters or syllables are not in the same order as in Kazakh (RKP(b)), or which are used scientifically or technically, or are brand names (H2O, TASS, Sinkhua, Reiter, ZIM, ZIS, STZ, KhTZ, TEZhE, dot, dzot (sic), etc.), are to be spelt in Kazakh as they are in Russian. The names of institutions or organizations which are made up of a contraction of the initial word and the full form of the succeeding words are in Kazakh to be written in full (gosapparat - memlekettyk apparat, partorganizatsiya - partiya uymi). In future, conventional contracted forms are to be introduced in Kazakh only after confirmation by the Commission, which will continue to examine other problems of the use of contractions in Kazakh.

In an article commending the new rules K. Sharipov said that contractions of foreign words were taken into Russian without change (NATO, SEATO, MRP), as they were into Uzbek, Kirgiz, Tatar, Bashkir, Turkmen and Tadzhik. (Though c.f. OON = Uno.) In Azerbaidzhani, on the other hand, contractions were always made from the translated versions of names. In Kazakh no rule had as yet been adopted; most words were contracted from the Kazakh, but others (ChK, GPU, NKVD, NEP) were not. Many contractions were quite unintelligible; who understood BUU (OON) or MMSnS (MZhS)? Was it not better to follow the example of brother nations and accept the Russian contractions, which were already in daily use? It would be natural to accept them on a par with international words already accepted, given the fact of the beneficent influence of Russian on the Kazakh language.

Sharipov then quotes the text of the resolutions as already issued with the exception that DOT and DZOT are given their capital letters. He comments on the last sentence: what are these "other problems" still to be discussed? Some members of the Terminological Commission, who opposed the "correct" solution of the questions already decided, are now objecting to the use of five words: SSSR, KPSS, VKP(b) VLKSM, VTsSPS. The 1940 law of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet, inaugurating the new Cyrillic alphabet, used the word SSSR as it is written in Russian. The all-Union XIXth Party Congress resolved that the Party should now be known as KPSS, and the first translation of this resolution, in Sotsialistik Kazakhstan, used the word in its Russian spelling. It is only the "nationalistic waverings" of the leaders of the Commission that have displaced such international terms from the press. The Kazakh people does not use the

CURRENT EVENTS

Kazakh contractions; if DOT and DZOT can be spelled in Russian, why not these most important five words? [K.P. 13th July & 12th August]

First Russian-Uigur Dictionary

The Uigur-Dungan Culture Section of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences has published the first Russian-Uigur dictionary. The dictionary contains 21,000 words and a short outline of the grammar. The Section is now preparing an Uigur-Russian dictionary for the press.

[K.P. 2nd August]

Publication of Work on History of Kazakh Communist Party and Creation of Local Press

The third volume of Work of the Kazakh branch of the Central Committee of the Soviet Union Communist Party Institute of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin published in July, contains articles dealing with the history of the Kazakh Communist Party 1938-1941, the creation of a local press in Kazakhstan 1917-1925, documents relating to the first Social-Democratic groups in Kazakhstan during the 1905-1907 revolution, and an article by the director of the Kazakh Party Central Committee Institute of the History of the Party on the approach to the study of Kazakh Party history. An introduction to the volume says that 1,064,000 copies have been printed of the Institute's recently completed translation into Kazakh of the 35 volumes of Lenin's complete works from the fourth Russian edition. [K.P. 13th July]

New giant metal-working kombinat for Temir-Tau

A new metal-working kombinat is being built to the south-east of Temir-Tau to exploit the iron ore of Atasu, the coal of Karaganda, the limestone of Topar and the fire-proof dolomites of Baikonur. The existing Kazakh Metal Works and town of Temir-Tau will form no more than a fifth of the new kombinat and settlement, which will be larger than that at Kuznetsk and second only to Magnitogorsk. Its blast-furnaces will have a capacity of 1,513 cubic metres (the largest in the Soviet Union at present is 1,300) and the open-hearth furnaces will have a slip ten times that of Temir-Tau. The works will possess the first blooming-mill in Kazakhstan and the largest in the USSR. There will be 150 km. of railway line and 130,000 square metres of surfaced road in the area of the kombinat. Twenty planning organizations are concerned in its building.

But the work of building is not progressing satisfactorily. At the July Plenum of the Central Committee of the Party, Bulganin said that only 88m. rubles had been used of the 200m. assigned to the project for 1951-1954. The Kazmetallurgstroi (Kazakh metal works building authority) has been held

responsible for the hold-up. It brought in 2,000 labourers from Moldavia and Uzbekistan in the first quarter of 1955; by June 1, 100 of them had left, despite excellent living conditions in centrally-heated hostels. This authority is supposed to coordinate the work of the other organizations on the site, which include Uralsibekskavatsiya (Ural-Siberian Excavations) and Vzryvprom (Industrial Blasting) but these in fact act quite independently. The article cited below suggests that Sibdalstroj (Siberian and Far East Building authority) and the Ministry of Construction for the Metallurgical and Chemical Industries, the administration of which is in both cases in Moscow, are to blame. [K.P. 28th July]

Formation of new town in South-Kazakhstan oblast

By decree of the Presidium of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet the workers' settlements of Mirgalimsai and Kantagi (Turkestan raion, South-Kazakhstan oblast) have been united to form a new town, to be called Kentau. The inhabitants work in the polimetal mines and concentration plants of the area. The town is a new creation and the first house was begun in 1949; there are now more than 500 blocks of flats and nearly 1,000 individual houses, a park and summer cinema, three clubs and libraries. When completed the town will be twice its present size. [K.P. 19th August]

Completion of survey for irrigation of 1m. hectares of arid land

The Kazakh Academy of Sciences' research station at Kzyl-Orda has completed a 200-page survey of the climate, vegetation, soil, geology, geomorphology, hydrogeology and irrigation potential of the old delta of the Syr-Darya and the northern Kzyl-Kum sands. The survey will be the basis of the irrigation plan to be adopted on the completion of the Kzyl-Orda dam and hydro-electric station. More than a million hectares will be brought under cultivation; 40,000 will be sown with rice.

[K.P. 20th August]

Ministerial changes

On the 28th June it was announced that M.D. Vlasenko had been dismissed from the post of Minister of Sovkhozes in Kazakhstan and that M.G. Roginets had replaced him.

Tulegen Tazhibayevich Tazhibayev, Deputy President of the Council of Ministers in Kazakhstan and formerly Minister of Culture, has been appointed Foreign Minister.

[K.P. 28th June]
[K.P. 14th September]

Uzbekistan

Muslims send aid for Pakistan flood relief

On the 28th August Pravda announced that the Spiritual Directorate of the Muslims of Central Asia and Kazakhstan had sent 10,000 Pakistani rupees to the Pakistan Red Cross Society to assist relief work after the recent severe floods. The President of the Directorate, the Mufti Ishan Babakhan ibn Abdulmadzhitkhan, sent a telegram of sympathy. Pravda Vostoka had announced on the 18th August that the Mufti had been awarded the Order of the Red Banner "for many years of patriotic service and active participation in the defence of peace." The Mufti was decorated by the President of the Uzbek Supreme Soviet in the presence of the Presidium and of Muslim leaders.

P.V. 18th August
P. 28th August

Synthetic production of new antibiotics

M.A. Azizov, a reader at the Tashkent Pharmaceutical Institute, has obtained koamid, a new antibiotic, synthetically by combining cobalt and organic substances. The method is at once cheap and simple. The product is now being tested clinically.

S.K. 18th August

Tashkent citizens adopt fourteen war orphans

Union-wide publicity has recently been given to the story of Shaakhmed Shamakhmudov and Bakhri Akramova, two citizens of Tashkent, who have adopted fourteen war orphans and brought them up by their own efforts. It was announced on the 28th August that the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet had awarded them the Badge of Honour, and on the 11th September that the Uzbek Council of Ministers had given them personal pensions of 600 rubles a month each for life. The children are of different nationalities; there is a Moldavian, a Tatar, a Jew, a Kazakh, a Ukrainian, Uzbeks and Russians. Press publicity has included a four-column article in Pravda. This was reproduced in Pravda Vostoka, which on the 11th September devoted a full page to the letters of congratulation which the family has received from all parts of the Union.

P.V. 26th, 28th August & 11th September
P. 24th August

Tadzhikistan

Changes in oblast administration

The Presidium of the Tadzhik Supreme Soviet has proposed and the USSR Presidium has confirmed, that the Garm and Kulyab oblasts of Tadzhikistan

together with the town of Kulyab, should be abolished as administrative units and placed under direct republican control. This decree was followed in September by one reducing the number of raions in the area under republican control by four. There are now only two oblast governments in Tadzhikistan; the Leninabad oblast and the Gorno-Badakhshan autonomous oblast. The rest of the republic is governed by the republican authorities in Stalinabad. [K.T. 26th August & 15th September]

Scientific expeditions visit Pamirs

There have been several scientific expeditions in the Pamirs this year. Representatives of the USSR Ministry of Agriculture, of the USSR Academy of Sciences and of the Tadzhik Academy Pamir Biological Station have been studying the problem of increasing the area of land under cultivation in mountain regions, and the Moscow State University has sent an expedition to study methods of avalanche prevention, and a party of linguists to study Vakhani dialects in the Ishkashim area. The Tadzhik Academy Pamir Botanical Gardens are to send an expedition to survey the almost inaccessible Bartang valley [K.T. 25th August]

1100th anniversary celebrations of birth of Rudaki

1957 will be celebrated as the 1,100th anniversary of the birth of Rudaki. An article in Kommunist Tadzhikistana announcing this stresses the poet's praise of reason and knowledge, his atheism and his hatred of the rich and powerful. [K.T. 25th August]

Death of Nigmat Sabitov

The orientalist Nigmat Sabitov died on the 12th August. He was born in 1895 in the Krasnoyar uyezd of the Astrakhan guberniya of peasant parents. He became a Communist in 1920, entered the Saratov Party school in 1930 and then the Moscow Institute of Oriental Studies, which he left in 1935 to become the deputy head of the Chief Administration of Literary Matters in Tadzhikistan. He sat on the Kazakh republican committee for composing a new alphabet, and worked in the Pushkin Kazakh State Public Library on research. From May 1942 until his death he worked in the Kazakh Academy of Sciences Institute of History, Archaeology and Ethnography, of which he became the head. His many works received wide recognition. [K.P. 17th August]

CURRENT EVENTS

Turkmenistan

New deputy Minister of Waterways

S.K. Kalizhnyuk is now deputy Minister of Waterways in Turkmenistan and director of the construction of the Kara-Kum Canal. He was formerly the director of the Main Turkmen Canal construction, and as such was strongly criticized for the poor standard of discipline that he maintained among the workers under him. (See CAR Vol.I, No.1, p.17.)

[/T.I. 8th March/]
[/P.V. 9th July/]

Opening of first part of Chardzhou-Kungrad railway

The railway line has been laid over the whole distance from Chardzhou to Kungrad, and 627 km. have been opened for traffic. [/P. 18th August/]

Kirgizia

Improved communications in Kirgizia

To reach the southern oblasts of Kirgizia from the northern it has hitherto been necessary to travel through Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan. The building of a new road now in progress, will make it possible to travel from Frunze to Osh in twelve hours instead of the forty-eight hours occupied by the train journey. The building of the road, which will pass through Susamyr, is proceeding simultaneously in several places; the many gorges on its route will be crossed by metal welded suspension bridges. The road will be called the "Great Kirgiz Highway".

[/S.K. 15th June/]

Ministerial changes

On the 22nd July it was announced that Fatima Nurgaziyeva had been replaced as Kirgiz Minister of Health by Yurii Yefimovich Danilov.

[/S.K. 22nd July/]

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"The Ancestral Way"

The following story is taken from Komsomol Pravda of 12th June 1955, whose correspondent writes that the events took place in the village of Changyr-Tash in the Suzakysy raion (Dzhalal-Abad oblast).

The five daughters of Saidat Adkhalimova grew up healthy and happy. The inhabitants of the village envied her:

"You are a happy woman, Saidat. You have lovely children, they will bring much gladness."

The mother smiled. Indeed, why should she not be glad? The little girls were pretty, the state bestowed on her the "Medal of Motherhood", and generously assisted her to bring up the children.

When the eldest daughter Kometa was 17, the mother said:

"It is time for you to be married."

The dark-eyed beauty Kometa pleased many youths in the village. But among them there was the old friend of her childhood, the young man Zhalaldin Raduev, whose love the girl returned.

"Mother, give me in marriage to him, we shall be happy," said Kometa.

Her daughter's words enraged Saidat.

"How dare you talk to me about him! He hasn't a kopeck to his name."

"Well, and what of it? We do not need money."

"How can there be happiness without money! My children will live in wealth and plenty," declared the mother.

But Saidat Adkhalimova was concerned not for her daughter's welfare, but her own personal interests. Saidat hurriedly began to look for a "suitable bridegroom". Her search was not long. Zaindy Viskhanov was soon presented to Kometa. He was twenty years older than her, but then he was prepared to pay her mother 20,000 rubles as bride-money. Having received the money, Saidat gave Kometa in marriage to Viskhanov.

The young couple departed to Djambul oblast. However their life together did not last long. The greedy Saidat was pleased by her first business deal, and her appetite was whetted.

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Having received an invitation to visit her "lonely" mother, Kometa came to Changyr-Tash. Viskhanov waited in vain for his wife. She did not return to him. The cunning Saidat had discovered that Raduev, once loved by Kometa, was now ready to pay bride-money for her.

"Forgive me, daughter, that I married you to a man you did not love," the mother said with crocodile tears. "I do not wish any longer to force your heart."

Saidat celebrated the second wedding of her eldest daughter and received 5,000 rubles from the second son-in-law.

But this was not Kometa's last wedding. The enterprising mother sold her daughter in marriage another four times. She was sold as long as there were suitors ready to pay bride-money. Kometa's life is now ruined. She has neither family, nor happiness. But the mother has already forgotten Kometa. Another daughter, Nasart, has been growing up, and the mother is interested in only one thing: how much money can she get for her?

Having heard that the workers had good earnings in the settlement of Khaidavkan, Saidat decided to do business there. She took Nasart 300 kilometres to be inspected. The charming Nasart pleased many in Khaidavkan, but Salama Khalimov was prepared to give most for her. So he soon became Nasart's husband.

A short time passed and the mother sold Nasart for the second time, then for the third. Saidat's bottomless pocket was bulging. Money, gold bracelets, brooches, poured into it in a stream.

The third daughter, Asma, a quiet, modest girl, proved to be different from her sisters. When it was her turn to be married, she said firmly to her mother: "I am not in need of your help, I have a fiancee."

"What, against your mother's will? Do you mean to violate the sacred law of our ancestors?" screamed the mother.

But Asma was not of a timid nature.

"If you interfere with my plans for my life, I shall disclose your dark dealings," she replied to her mother.

Her daughter's words were like a douche of icy water to Saidat. She realized that it was dangerous to quarrel with her. And Asma, the only one of the sisters, arranged her family life satisfactorily. But Saidat,

grieving for her losses, hastened to marry off her fourth daughter, Tovman. Nor did she escape the fate of her sisters. The same befell the youngest daughter, Kaipu.

Fourteen times Saidat Adkhalimova sold her own children. She received 70,000 rubles and many valuables and gifts of food. But this is the strange thing - no-one hinders Saidat Adkhalimova and the numerous husbands of her daughters in following the ways of her ancestors. Yet Suzaksky raion is not very far from the oblast centre - Dzhahalal-Abad. The secretaries and officials of the Komsomol oblast committee are frequent visitors here. However, they have not once tried to shield the girls from such miscreants as Saidat Adkhalimova, to take stern proceedings against her, and to bar once and for all the barbaric ancestral way, which in some mysterious fashion is still preserved in the Soviet Village of Changyr-Tash.

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Abbreviations

- P for Pravda
 KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda
 PV for Pravda Vostoka
 KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana
 TI for Turkmenskaya Iskra
 SK for Sovetskaya Kirgiziya

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

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

A S E L E C T E D L I S T

The following is a selected bibliography of source material on Central Asia which appeared in recent Soviet publications. The list does not claim to be comprehensive and includes only material not used in the body of the Review. The bibliography is divided into sections on agriculture, archaeology, biology, geography and geology, history, linguistics and public works.

Agriculture

Bezdetnyi, I., Lapkin, K. & Bazanov, M.

Plan kompleksnogo razvitiya kolkhoza imeni XVIII Partokonferentsii. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.8, p.15-25. 3,000 words. (A technical article describing in detail the all-round development of the kolkhoz XVIII Partokonferentsiya, Syr-Darya raion, Tashkent oblast. The article comprises the following sections:

1. Basic indices of the production of agricultural produce.
2. Cultivation of soils and land improvement (melioratsiya).
3. Methods of improving the substance of cultivated soils.
4. Increased harvests of field crops.
5. Labour organization and the reduction of costs per unit of production.
6. Methods of increasing the output of dairy produce.
7. Area under fodder crops
8. The growth of the cattle population.
9. Qualitative improvement of live-stock.
10. The annual fodder requirements per head of cattle.
11. Total annual fodder requirements and fodder balance.
12. Organization of labour output on the farms.
13. Plan for the development of sericulture, gardening and viticulture.
14. The kolkhoz annual income and its apportionment.
15. Plan of capital expenditure.

Bibarov, V.

Vysokoproizvoditelno ispolzuyem khlopkouborochnye

- mashiny Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.50-53. 1,400 words.
(Describes the organization of work in the Chinaz MTS, Uzbekistan. Technical details on cotton-picking machines and tools are given.)
- Drozдов, G. O nekotorykh voprosakh zemledeliya v severnom Kazakhstane. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.6, p.31-36. 2,000 words.
(An account of land cultivation in Kokchetav and Karaganda oblasts.)
- Fershtat, N. K itogam kvadratno-gnezhdovogo seva khlopchatnika v kolkhozakh Uzbekistana. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.53-58. 1,500 words.
(General results of the square-cluster method of cotton planting in the kolkhozes of Uzbekistan. Several diagrams are included.)
- Khakimov, K. & Aliyeva, Z. Opyt vyrashchivaniya vysokikh urozhayev semyan lyutserny v kolkhoze imeni Karla Marksa. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.33-36. 1,500 words.
(The authors describe a method of lucerne cultivation in the Karl Marx kolkhoz, Lenin raion, Andizhan oblast, whereby large quantities of seed can be obtained.)
- Kuznetsov, N.T. Puti ispolzovaniya mestnykh vod na tselinnykh zemlyakh Kazakhstana. Priroda, 1955. No.8, p.91-93. 1,300 words.
(A fairly informative article on the possibilities of utilizing the rivers Irtysh, Tobol and Imish as well as the various lakes and ponds in the oblasts of northern Kazakhstan for irrigational purposes.)
- Lastovskii, E.Ya. Perspektivy razvitiya kolkhozov Taldy-Kurganskoi oblasti. Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR, 1955. No.3, p.49-58. 4,500 words.
(An extensive survey of the present state and further development of the kolkhozes of Taldy-Kurgan oblast, with special reference to livestock raising and land cultivation. Targets for 1960 are included.)
- Malyugin, E.A. Selskokhozyaistvennoye osvoyeniye priaralskoi polupustyni. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.8, p.45-53. 3,800 words.
(The author describes the cultivation of various strains of sorghum and lucerne in the sandy soils of the semi-desert lands along the Aral Sea. The article is illustrated.)
- Nazarov, Kh. & Cherkasskii, M. Perspektivnyi plan razvitiya kolkhoza i rezervy rosta proizvodstva. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.12-20. 2,300 words.
(The authors discuss the prospects of the further development of the Lenin kolkhoz, Stalinabad oblast, one of the leading cotton growing

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kolkhozes in Tadzhikistan. The kolkhoz income for 1954 is given and the targets for 1960 set out.)

Rakhmanov, M. Chemu uchit opyt raboty nashei MTS. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.44-49. 2,000 words.
(The author, director of the Balykchin MTS in Andizhan oblast, describes the work of the MTS in the Pakhtakor and Akhunbabayev kolkhozes of the oblast.)

Sokolov, N.L. & Gorbunova, S.
Borba s sornyakami na tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemlyakh severnogo Kazakhstana. Zemledeliye, 1955. No.6, p.47-52. 2,000 words.
(An account of the methods used in combating weeds in the new lands of Kustanai and Kokchetav oblasts.)

Suvorov, N.I. Agrobiologicheskii printsip v metodiku issledovaniia estestvennykh kormovykh ugodii Kazakhstana. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazahskoi SSR, 1955. No.5, p.3-9. 2,300 words.
(A geo-botanical inquiry into the fodder resources of Kazakhstan. A bibliography is appended at the end of the article.)

Tokhtabayev, A., Stetsenko, M., Abdullayev, N. & Shamsiyev, B.
Perspektivy razvitiya kolkhoza imeni Stalina. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.7, p.21-25. 1,800 words.
(An account of the work and achievements in the Stalin kolkhoz Tashlak raion, Fergana oblast. It includes the kolkhoz income for 1954 and the targets for 1960.)

Yarkov, S.P. Tselinnye i zaleznye zemli Kazakhstana i voprosy ikh osvoyeniya. Izvestiya Timiryazevskoi Selskokhozyaistvennoi Akademii, 1955. No.1, p.119-126. 2,800 words.
(A fairly extensive survey of the soils and other geo-physical features of the new lands of the Altai region in Kazakhstan and the methods of their cultivation.)

Archaeology

Akischev, K.A., Vladimirov, N.M. & Mukhamedzhanov, S.M.
Nakhodki orudii truda drevnego cheloveka v Severnom Kazakhstane. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazahskoi SSR, 1955. No.5, p.61-65. 800 words.
(A brief descriptive article of the archaeological finds - mostly ancient implements - in the Kokchetav oblast.)

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- Kryltsov, A.I. O podsnezhnom razmnzhenii myshevidnykh gryzunov v Severnom Kazakhstane. Byulleten Moskovskogo Obshchestva Ispytatelei, 1955. No.2, p.1-8. 2,700 words.
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- Barbot di Marni, A.V. Osnovnye nerudnye poleznye iskopayemye tsentralnogo Kazakhstana i raionov osvoyeniya tselinnykh zemel. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR, 1955. No.3, p.59-68. 4,500 words.
(A detailed account of the distribution, quality and methods of procurement of rock products - i.e. non-metallic minerals - in Central Kazakhstan. The article includes sections on limestone; refractory clays; dolomite; quartz; gypsum; gravel; sandstone; slag and infusorial earth - tripolite.)
- Kiselev, N.M. K voprosu o razmeshchenii rossypei poleznykh iskopayemykh v tsentralnom Kazakhstane. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoi SSR, 1955. No.5, p.54-61. 3,300 words.
(The author deals with the formation and distribution of placer deposits in Central Kazakhstan. A bibliography of works on the subject is given at the end of the article.)
- Petrushevskii, B.A. O mezozoisko-kainozoiskoi istorii razvitiya i strukture Uralo-Sibirskoi epigertsinskoi platformy i Tyan-Shana. Byulleten Moskovskogo Obshchestva Ispytatelei Prirody: Otdel Geologicheskii, 1955. No.3, p.17-37. 9,800 words.
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- Samodurov, V.I. Stratigrafiya mezozoiskikh otlozhenii raiona nizov'ev Syr-Daryi. Byulleten Moskovskogo Obshchestva Ispytatelei Prirody: Otdel Geologicheskii, 1955. No.3, p.39-56. 8,000 words.
(An illustrated description of a complete section of mesozoic deposits in the lower reaches of Syr-Darya. The author also gives the first

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account of the chalk and Jurassic deposits in the area. The article includes 3 diagrams and a bibliography.)

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(A highly specialized article. Includes sections on the Karaganda, Ashlyarik, Akkuduk, Terekty and Maikuduk coal bearing seams. A bibliography is appended.)

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(A brief account of the research work now being done in the Institute of Oriental Studies of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences.)

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(A scholarly article; the author discusses the nature and place of

the adjective in Turkic languages with special reference to contemporary Turkish. Such an analysis represents a relatively new venture on the part of Soviet Turcologists. The article is annotated.)

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p.15-24. 4,500 words.

(A technical description of the scheme for irrigating Central Kazakhstan.)