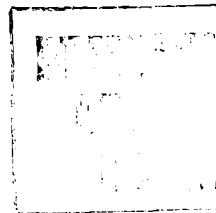


CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

VOLUME IV

1956

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



Central Asian Research Centre

66 King's Road,
London, S.W.3.

T I T L E P A G E S

and

I N D E X

to

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

Vol. IV 1956

Central Asian Research Centre

66 King's Road,
London, S.W.3.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3, and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as these are reflected in Soviet publications, together with the historical background necessary in order to make such a picture intelligible. In addition, the REVIEW analyses past and current Soviet publications on the countries bordering on or adjacent to Soviet Central Asia. The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post free. The price of single copies is Seven Shillings and Sixpence.

Distribution Agents:

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

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The Index consists of three parts:

- I An index to articles arranged under subject headings, namely, Agriculture, Borderlands of Soviet Central Asia, Communications, Cultural and Political subjects, Finance, Industry, Natural Conditions, Public Works and Social Conditions.
- II A general index of personal and geographical names, and subjects. In this index subjects are given under the republic or country to which they refer.
- III A glossary of foreign words and abbreviations.

. . .

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.

In the case of small places, or new settlements, the oblast and/or republic in which each place-name occurs is as far as possible stated in the general index; in the case of the borderland countries, the name of the country is given beside the place-name.

The following abbreviations are used throughout:

Afgh.	for	Afghanistan
Kaz.	for	Kazakhstan
Kirg.	for	Kirgizia
Sink.	for	Sinkiang
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 IV of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW,

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No.2	runs from pages	99 to 212
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GLOSSARY OF FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES

Afshin	Title of the nomad rulers in the conquered Kushan kingdom in fifth and sixth centuries
Allamanit'	To raid
Anjoman	Council
Arat	Nomadic herdsman in Mongolia
Avliy	Saint
Ayvan	Veranda
Barymta	Reprisal raid
Bast	Asylum
Batrak	Labourer
Cadi	Muslim judge
Chiltan	Saint
Chou	District (administrative division in Sink.)
Ch'ü	Area (administrative division in Sink.)
Dalon	Cul-de-sac
Dzhu-i-arzis	Large lead pipe supplying water
Dzhut (Kazakh: zhut)	Death of flocks from lack of forage
Fatheh	Short 'a' sound in Persian
Feda'i	A devotee to a religious or patriotic cause
Garmsil'	Hot dry wind
Glinozem	Clayey soil
Guza	Cotton pod
Guzar	Town wards in Bukhara
Hauz	Water cistern
Hsiang	(National) rural area (administrative division in Sink.)
Hsien	County (administrative division in Sink.)
Hujra	Room

Ig	Free-born Turkmen
Illik-bashi	"Commander of Fifty", administrator of a guzar or mahalle
Kasreh	Short 'i' sound in Persian
Kerege	Supports for yurts
Kesh	Fortified castle
Ked	Separate and isolated rural settlement
Kesh donzhon	Living quarters within the ked
Khudat	Title of nomad rulers in the conquered Kushan kingdom in fifth and sixth centuries
Kiptar-Khana	Hall of audience
Kishlak	Village
Koshma	Segments of the walls of yurts
Kovboyka	Cowboy shirt
Kul (qul)	Slave
Kulan	Wild horse
Kurak	Cotton stalk
Kystau	Winter quarters of the nomad Kazakhs
Mahalle (or guzar)	Town ward
Maktab	Muslim school
Majles	Persian parliament
Mazar	Tomb
Mehman-khana	Guest-room
Mihrab	Prayer niche
Mirab	Water controller
Mojahed	A champion of liberty
Mu	Chinese measurement of land
Mulla	Muslim cleric
Nasta'liq	Type of Persian cursive script
Qul	See Kul
Pakhta-Bayrami	Harvest festival
Past-kucha	Side streets

Rabad	Suburb of mediaeval town
Ribat	Fortress
Rustai	Peasant
Rustak	Large agricultural oasis
Serozem	Grey earth soil
Shahristan	Settlement of tradesmen and craftsmen surrounded by walls, near the walled citadels lying on caravan routes
Solonets	Wet salt pan
Solonchak	Dry salt pan
Syrt	Watershed
Takyr	Layer of soil
Tanga (Kazakh: tanba)	Stamp, pattern
Tebenevat'	To forage under the snow
Tugay	River valley woods or jungle
Vesh	Periodical distribution of land among Afghan tribes
Zammeh	Short 'u' sound in Persian
Zhut	See dzhut



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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

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

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

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. IV. No. 1.

1956.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3, and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

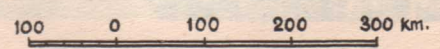
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The subscription rate is Thirty Shillings per year, post free. The price of single copies is Seven Shillings and Sixpence.

Distribution Agents :

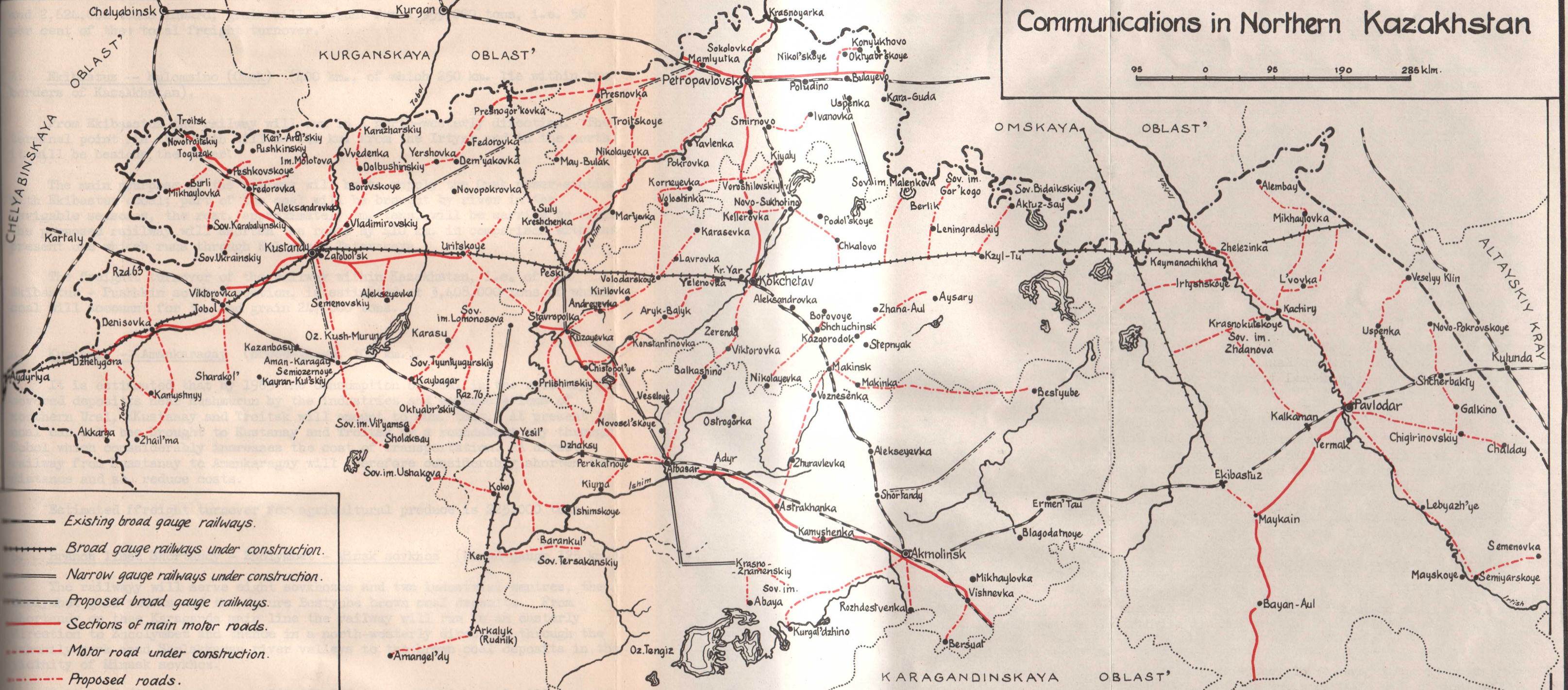
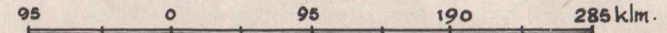
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THE SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS
OF
KAZAKHSTAN, KIRGIZIA, TADZHIKISTAN,
UZBEKISTAN, TURKMENISTAN AND AZERBAIDZHAN



- Borders of the U.S.S.R.
- Limits of Union Republics.
- Capitals of Union Republics.
- Railways.
- Canals.
- Canals under construction or projected.
- Sands.
- Main arterial road with pass.

Communications in Northern Kazakhstan



- Existing broad gauge railways.
- - - Broad gauge railways under construction.
- Narrow gauge railways under construction.
- - - Proposed broad gauge railways.
- Sections of main motor roads.
- - - Motor road under construction.
- Proposed roads.



Fergana Valley

Scale 1 : 1.000.000

- Canals.
- Main roads.
- Towns with population of under 10.000
- " " " " between 10.000 and 50.000
- " " " " 50.000 and 100.000
- " " " " over 500.000

J.P. 1956.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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Beginning with this issue (Vol. IV, No. 1) geographical and personal names appearing in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW will be spelt according to the system of transliteration adopted by the Permanent Committee on Geographical Names of Britain and the United States Board on Geographical Names. This will involve the following deviations from the system used hitherto :-

- (a) ' й ' will be transliterated as ' y ' instead of as ' i ' , e.g. Kustanay instead of Kustanai.
- (b) The soft sign hitherto omitted will be transliterated as ' , e.g. Gur'yev instead of Guryev. The hard sign where it occurs will be rendered " , e.g. Yaz " yavan.

Corrigendum

Vol. III, No. 4, p.338, para. 1 : for PRAVDA VOSTOKA read KAZAKHSTAN-
SKAYA PRAVDA of 21st November 1954.

I S L A M

R U S S I A A N D I S L A M : N E W T R E N D S I N
S O V I E T P O L I C Y

The increased interest now being overtly shown by the Soviet Government in the Middle East makes the study of the Soviet attitude towards Islam of particular importance. It seems possible that the Soviet authorities may experience some difficulty in reconciling the uncompromising hostility which they have so far shown towards the practice of Islam by the 20m. Muslims living in the USSR with their plans for extending Soviet cultural influence in independent Muslim countries.

Although Islam falls within the general category of "beliefs in the supernatural" to which Marxist philosophy takes such strong exception, it has always been regarded as potentially more obnoxious than any other creed practised in the USSR. This is partly because it has a universal character and influence not possessed by the predominant religion - the Orthodox Church of Russia, and partly because it has never, like Christianity, undergone a reformation or renaissance which could loosen the bonds of mediaevalism and bring both dogma and practice into line with modern life. The Soviet authorities have constantly been assailed by, or have simulated, a fear, which at times appears unreasonable and exaggerated, of the "cosmopolitan" influence of Islam among its adherents in the USSR. They are also convinced that the Muslim way of life is incompatible with modern materialism and "progress".

During the past three years some important work on the position of the Muslims of the USSR has appeared in French and English. This includes *ESSAI SUR L'ISLAM EN URSS* by V. Monteil, *LES PEUPLES MUSULMANS DE L'URSS ET LES SOVIETS*, an article in four parts by A. Bennigsen published in *AFRIQUE ET L'ASIE* in 1953, and finally two articles by Dr. Richard Pipes on the Muslims of Soviet Central Asia published in *MIDDLE EAST JOURNAL* in 1955. Between them these writers have collected most of the available data, the first two largely from Soviet publications, and the last from interrogations of refugees, and they are all agreed that the Soviet Government has made and was, at any rate until 1954, still making intensive efforts to extirpate Islamic culture from the life of the indigenous Muslim population. On the degree of success so far achieved they are less unanimous, Dr. Pipes being less pessimistic about the sur-

ISLAM

vival of Islam than the two French writers.

The work just referred to was concerned almost exclusively with Muslim affairs inside the USSR and had in fact been completed before the appearance of certain unmistakable signs that the Soviet Government was preparing to take a much more active part in the affairs of eastern countries outside the USSR. The first of these signs was the publication in 1954 of N.A. Smirnov's book AN OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF ISLAMIC STUDIES IN THE USSR analysed in this Review in 1954 and 1955. The significance in respect of Islam of the second sign, the decree of November 1954 on "certain mistakes in the conduct of scientific and atheistic propaganda" was not immediately discernible; but the appearance in May 1955 of the first issue of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE and of an article in KOMMUNIST about the future of Soviet oriental studies established beyond any doubt the imminence of a new eastern drive.

Although the Muslim world is not the only target of the new Soviet campaign it forms a considerable part of it. The Soviet Government have always attached a high degree of importance to the influence of Islam and although the decree of November 1954 made no specific mention of Islam, it is probable that one of its objects was to prepare for the "playing-down" of the more blatant type of anti-Islamic propaganda in anticipation of a new attempt to woo the Muslim countries of the Middle East and South Asia. In any event, whereas the incidence in the Central Asian press of violent criticism of Islamic doctrine and practice was quite frequent before the decree, none has appeared since. The change is too marked to be fortuitous: up to October 1954 there had been a considerable amount of anti-Muslim propaganda in the Central Asian press, particularly in Turkmenistan, and this included a long article by Klimovich on "The Essence of Islam" in which the theme of Islam as a weapon of imperialist Britain and America was enlarged upon.

It is of course most unlikely that the Communist Party has changed its views on Islam as a reactionary force or even that they will continue to soft-pedal for very long a theme which they regard as highly important in the Muslim republics. Admonitions similar to those of November 1954 were issued by the XIIth Party Congress in 1922; but it was not long before Islam again became a target for the most violent propaganda attacks. The reason for the present lull is probably that the Party realizes, perhaps even over-estimates, the extent of popular religious sentiment in the Middle East and for the present does not wish to risk offending it.

The development of Soviet policy towards independent Muslim countries is a matter of great interest and importance and it is pregnant with

possibilities. In their approach to these countries the Soviet Government will no doubt draw to some extent on their experience with the Muslim "nationalities" of Russia in the early days of the Revolution. The first tendencies were towards a kind of Muslim federation associated with Russia but enjoying an independent cultural existence. For various reasons this plan proved impracticable and the existing system of precisely named national units was devised. This has proved to be relatively easy to manage - probably more so than a Muslim federation in which Islamic rather than "national" practice and culture would have been the bond of union. From such a federation it might have been difficult to detach offending members such as the Crimean Tatars and Chechens. It is interesting to speculate whether in the light of this experience the Soviet Government will favour Arab or other Muslim federations in the Middle East, or whether it will prefer to emphasize and play upon cultural differences - somewhat tenuous among the Arabs - and upon the much more marked differences in national aspirations. Again, will the Communist or the Greater Russian theme be given prominence? Even the possibility of a Soviet sponsored Muslim renaissance cannot be entirely excluded. Whatever line is followed, it will probably entail some modification in the present attitude toward Islam in Central Asia, which contains three fifths of the total Muslim population of the USSR and borders on Persia and Afghanistan.

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

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

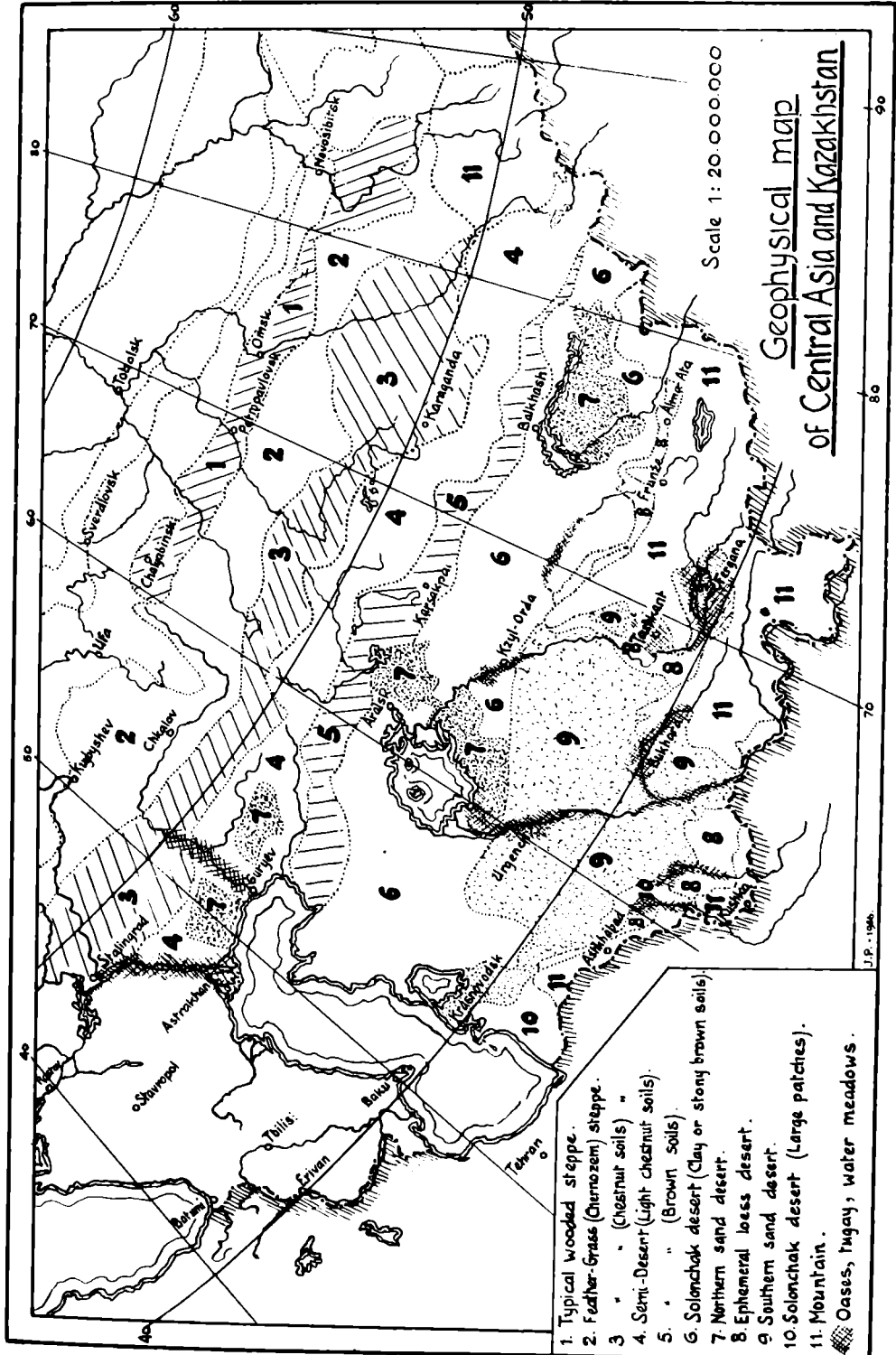
This short description of the climatic, soil and vegetation conditions of Central Asia and Kazakhstan has been compiled with the assistance of S.P. Suslov's authoritative work A PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE USSR (2nd edition, Moscow, 1954). All measurements are given in the metric system.

. . .

Soviet geographers divide Central Asia into three regions; the semi-deserts, the deserts and the mountains. Of these the first includes the Mugodzhari hills, the Turgay plateau and the Kazakh upland, the second all the land south of the Ustyurt plateau and the Aral Sea in the west and the Tarbagatai range in the east, and the third the Tien Shan and the Pamirs. That part of Kazakhstan which lies north of the semi-desert region is classed with the West Siberian steppes, whose flora it shares.

The climate of the first area - the semi-deserts - is markedly continental. There are regular gradations of mean temperature from north to south and east to west; the January isotherms are from -16° in the north to -11° in the south, and the July 22° to 26° , although in the region of the Kazakh upland the July mean temperatures are somewhat lower. The average annual precipitation in the whole area is a little less than 300 mm., twenty per cent being hail or snow. Most of the rain falls in summer; a typical observation gives 31 mm. in winter, 59 in spring, 132 in summer and 75 in autumn. The area is one of strong winds; in the Turgay plateau their force varies from 4.6 m/sec. in August to 6.2 in February. The humidity is greatest in winter (January 83 per cent) and least in summer (July 35 per cent). Evaporation from unrestricted water surfaces reaches 2,000 mm. a year.

The semi-desert winter is very severe for the latitudes; there can be -42.1° of frost in the west and -49.6 in the east. There is only a light covering of snow - 60 cm. in the north and 20 in the south - and it lasts up to 120 days. Spring is very short, and is sometimes only ten to thirteen days. The earth, which freezes deeply since the snow is not deep, cannot



1. Typical wooded steppe.
 2. Feather-Grass (Chernozem) steppe.
 3. " (Chestnut soils) "
 4. Semi-Desert (light chestnut soils).
 5. " (Brown soils)
 6. Solonchok desert (Clay or stony brown soils).
 7. Northern sand desert.
 8. Ephemeral loess desert.
 9. Southern sand desert.
 10. Solonchok desert (Large patches).
 11. Mountain.
- Oases, Tugay, water meadows.

absorb the volume of the spring floods, and so the unmelted snow and the spring rains are very important for the life of vegetation. The summer temperature may reach 40° though frosts are possible in June. The summer winds - N and NNW - are dry and the falls of rain torrential; the water flows away in gullies, and is not absorbed by the soil.

The semi-desert soil formation is complex. Broadly speaking, the soil in the northern half of the area is light chestnut and in the southern brown. The light chestnut soil has a 30 - 40 cm. humus horizon, beneath which is a horizon with a rich accumulation of lime washed from the upper layer. Moisture is contained by this lower horizon; beneath it there is, in turn, a horizon with accumulations of soluble salts, and, in particular, of gypsum. The close-packed, moist lower layer turned up in ploughing dries up in summer and forms a heavy clod, and in rain forms a compact surface which does not let the water through. In years of drought the increase of soil solvents and their alkalescent action destroys the crops. The brown soils are very similar to the desert serozems. Both types of soil are so stony in the higher parts of the area that they are only good as grazing grounds. In the valleys, because of the greater moisture and richer vegetation, the soil is dark in colour and there are solonets (wet salt pan), solonchak (dry salt pan) and alluvial areas.

The semi-desert region is divided in a longitudinal direction into three different geomorphological areas. In the higher parts of the Kazakh upland the vegetation of the more northerly zone is found - stony feather-grass steppe with clumps of pine trees where there are granites. In the lower parts, where there is greater moisture, steppe grasses and bushes of the northerly type are found even in the semi-deserts. On the Turgay slopes with their salt and gypsum-bearing clays salt marsh bushes of the southern type are found quite far north.

It is convenient to discuss the parts of the West Siberian steppes lying in Kazakhstan here, as they immediately adjoin the semi-desert region on the north and are in some respects akin to it; these are the areas that have been the object of the new lands campaign. They are: the Ural plain, the Kustanay inclined plain and the Irtysh plain. They are non-glacial, undulating and erosion-accumulative, and cut by gullies; the area is one of wooded steppe and steppe. The average yearly temperature is 2.8° ; the vegetation period 160-175 days (from the end of April to the middle of October) and there are 143 days free from frost (from the beginning of May to the end of September). There are more than 2,000 hours of sunshine a year; the annual precipitation is less than 300 mm., the number of days with precipitation is 111 and the maximum daily precipitation 38 mm. The average temperature in July is 21.8° and the temperature sometimes even reaches 40° . Most of the precipitation is in

NATURAL CONDITIONS

summer, 40-60 mm. in June or July, but the evaporation is very great - more than 1,000 mm. a year. Winter is long and cold; the average January temperature is -17° and some frosts reach -51° . The covering of snow is very light.

The soil is chestnut and dark. The humus horizon can reach 50 cm. in depth with a humus content of 3-4 per cent. Towards the north there are areas of chernozem (black earth) steppe; these are found in patches in the south chestnut steppe on higher ground.

The desert region of Central Asia may be divided into two zones according to climate, the southern with a sub-tropical climate and the northern with a climate transitional between sub-tropical and temperate. The line of division is a little to the north of the fortieth parallel. The prevailing winds are in winter north-east and in summer north-west, with local variations. The mean temperatures vary gradually from north to south; the average yearly temperature increases by $.9^{\circ}$ per 100 km. to the south, the average July temperature by $0.3-0.4^{\circ}$ and the average January temperature $1.3^{\circ} - 1.5^{\circ}$. In July the influence of latitude on temperature is three or four times less than in winter; this is connected with the long duration of the covering of snow in the north of the region. In the north the July temperature reaches 26° , in the middle 28° , and in the south 29.8° . In the south more than half of the days in July have an average daily temperature of $30^{\circ} - 35^{\circ}$, and on some days the temperature can reach 50° in the shade. In January it is only a little warmer in the north than it is in Arkhangel'sk -11.8° - and only in the extreme south is the temperature higher than freezing point (1.7°). The absolute maximum temperature in the year is very high (in the north, 43° , in the south, over 45°) and the minimum equally low (north -32.9° , south -25.6°). The frost-free period is 172 days in the north, 215 days in the south, and the vegetation period 204 days in the north and 288 days in the south. The surface temperature of the earth is sometimes greater than that of the air; to avoid a fatal heat, animals dig below the surface until they find cooler ground. The air is very dry. The relative humidity is greatest in winter; in January it is 84 per cent in the north and 74 in the south. Evaporation is many times greater than precipitation; 3 times in Tashkent, 7 in Fergana, 27 in Nukus and 36 in Turtkul'. In some years the evaporation has been 85 times the precipitation in Nukus, and 270 times in Turtkul'.

The precipitation throughout the Central Asian plains is less than 250 mm. a year; the number of days on which it occurs is often less than 40 in the year. The lower reaches of the Amu-Dar'ya have only 80-100 mm. a year, but in the south, nearer the hills, there are 160-230 mm. There is a marked difference between the summer and winter rainfall. Most of the rain falls in winter and spring, while there is little rain in autumn and usually none in summer. In the north of the area the rainfall is more evenly distributed over the

winter months; 14 mm. in December and 15 mm. in May - while in the south most of the rain falls in March. There have been years in Tashkent when no rain has fallen from the beginning of July until the end of September, although the normal rainfall is a fall of 2-3 mm. once a month during this period. The annual variations are very great; in the Mary oasis the rainfall in a year has varied from 146 mm. to 46 mm. There are exceptional cases of very high rainfall in very short periods; in 1902 in the Hungry Steppe 101 mm. of an annual precipitation of 278 mm. fell in one day.

Winter in the northern deserts is very harsh with minus temperatures from November to March. The first frosts come towards the end of October and winter has begun by the end of November. The Aral Sea freezes in the north for 4-5 months of the year, and so do the lower reaches of the Syr-Dar'ya. In some years the whole of Balkhash also freezes. On days free from snow-storms the sun is quite hot - up to 5.2° in January - but the winter does not break. The southern winter is shorter and milder. The peach and almond are flowering in Tashkent when there is still snow around the lower Syr-Dar'ya. Further south only January and February can be called winter months, and no minus temperatures are recorded. The mean January temperature varies between -6° and $+7^{\circ}$. The covering of snow is light and melts quickly.

Evaporation increases from north to south as the mean temperatures rise, and the proportion of summer rain to spring rain decreases. Thus in the southern deserts the process of soil formation is more seasonal, and the soil less complex; the structural serozem (grey earth) of the north is in the south replaced by typical serozem. The flora and fauna in the northern deserts are Central Asian, and in the south Mediterranean or Iranian.

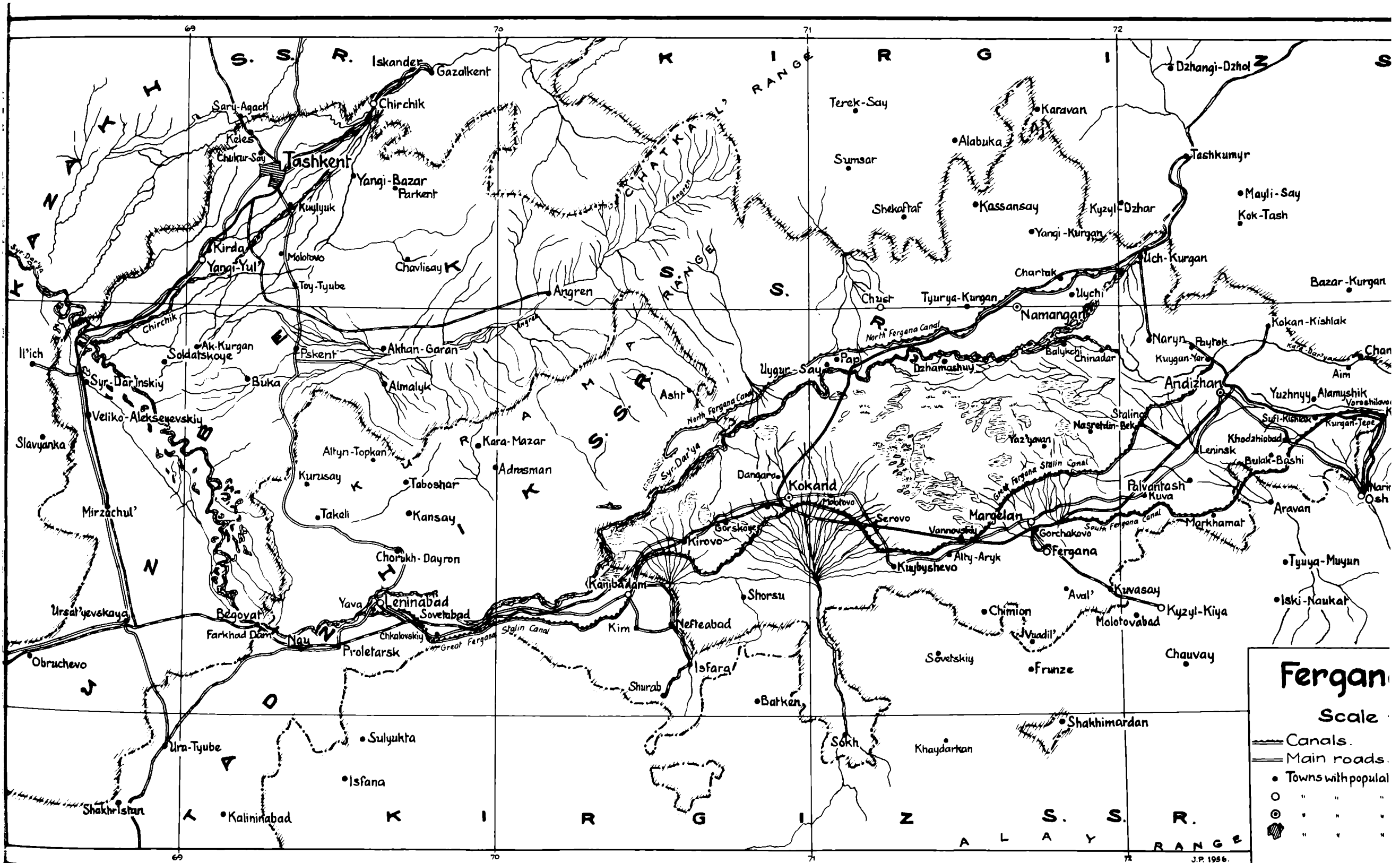
The southern deserts are usually classified according to their soil substratum, that is, loess or sand. The loess or ephemeral deserts - the plain at the foot of the Kopet-Dag range, the Hungry Steppe and the fringe of the Muyunkum - have an almost continuous substratum of loess covered by typical serozem. The humus content is less than .8-.9 per cent. The amount of carbonates in the upper stratum is from ten to fifteen per cent, but in the lower up to 25 per cent. There is very little salt. For these reasons the soil is peculiarly fertile under irrigation, although faulty methods of irrigation can turn the soil into solonchak. When there is heavy rain in spring the vegetation - ephemeral annuals - is amazingly rich, though it dries away almost entirely in summer. These deserts serve as spring grazing grounds, and are sufficient for two or three months grazing. The smallest measure of treatment sharply raises the fertility of the soil; the area is a potential region of cotton cultivation.

NATURAL CONDITIONS

The sand deserts - the Kara-Kum, the Kyzyl-Kum and the central part of the Fergana depression - have a vegetation that is surprising in view of the small amount of precipitation. The reason is that the substratum gives easy passage to water; sand formed by erosion is rare in Central Asia; moreover there is very little surface evaporation, the moisture content of the air is absorbed almost entirely by the sand itself. Thus there is formed what is called a suspended moisture horizon at a depth of 20 to 120 cm. depending on the season of the year which feeds the roots of the vegetation. When the vegetation is strongly enough entrenched and the sand is firmly fixed, a layer of sandy serozem is formed with a small clay and humus content. In many areas such sands are quite suitable for cultivation.

The solonchak deserts (the area bordering on the Caspian south of Krasnovodsk and the southern Kara-Kum near Tedzhen) are distinguished by the growth of the black saksaul (see "Science versus Sand", CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.III, No.3) which is sold by weight for fuel on Central Asian markets; 150,000 tons are used annually.

The main regions of cultivation in Central Asia are the modern and ancient alluvial plains and valleys, of which there are three types. The valley meadows are best represented by the lower reaches of the Syr-Dar'ya, the Ili, the Chu, and the delta of the Amu-Dar'ya. The alluvial deposits are young and of complicated structure, more or less sandy and with little organic matter. On higher ground the dryness of the wind leads to the formation of solonchaks. Such land, even when covered with water, is used for grazing-grounds. The tugay or river valley woods are found in the deltas of the Amu-Dar'ya and Ili and on the Chu and Syr-Dar'ya. They grow along and in the rivers themselves, and are not noticeably affected by droughts. They form a dense jungle, with the rays of the sun almost entirely excluded, and have to be rooted out before the land can be used for cultivation. The third category are the man-made oases in the desert. There are about 3,500,000 hectares of irrigated land in Central Asia, on which 32,000,000,000 cubic metres of water are spent in a year. Typical of such areas is the Fergana valley, where such rivers as the Sokh, Isfayrama and Isfara are entirely used for irrigation as soon as they leave their mountain sources. Some of the man-made waterways have taken on a natural character, meander, and form alluvial terraces. The temperatures in the oases are anything up to three degrees cooler than in the surrounding desert, while the surface temperature of the soil can be 30° lower than the soil temperature in the desert. Owing to the methods of cultivation in use the level of the soil rises by a mm. a year; in the oldest oases the depth of the irrigation horizon can reach 2-4 metres. There is little humus (1-1.5 per cent) but a high content of carbonates (20-25 per cent). There is a high content of calcium, but the



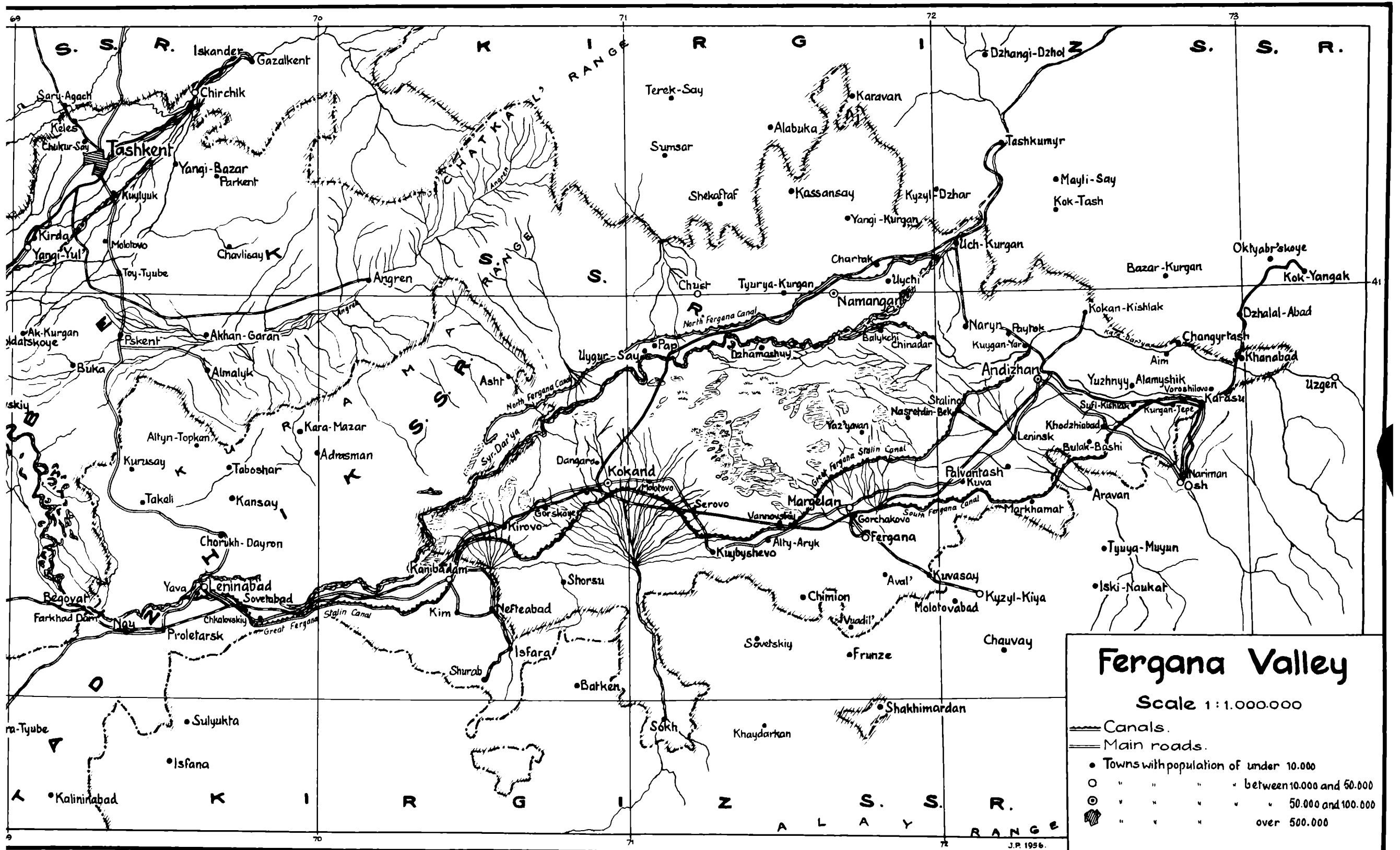
Fergana

Scale

- Canals.
- Main roads.
- Towns with populat
- " " "
- " " "
- " " "

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Specialy drawn for the Central Asian Research



Specialy drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre. - 1956. - J.P.

constant movement in the irrigated soil prevents this being harmful. The defects in the soil that follow on wrong methods of irrigation are heavy clayiness, a lack of organic matter and a surplus of salt.

The northern deserts are different from the southern in origin and oecological structure. They are of two types. The first, the stony or clay and stone deserts, is found in the Mangyshlak peninsula, the Ustyurt plateau, the Bet-Pak-Dala, and to the east of Lake Balkhash around Lake Ala-Kul'. This soil is the product of erosion and has a high lime and gypsum content. It is friable and absorbs precipitation easily; the seasonal variations in temperature are very great. In most areas it is a structural serozem with little humus; to the south the content of carbonates is higher, solonets is rarely to be seen but solonchaks are frequent. This difference - the replacement of solonets by solonchak - is the main distinguishing feature between the northern and southern types of desert. Conditions in these regions are unfavourable for the growth of vegetation ephemeral plants do not grow without drainage and irrigation, and so there is little or no spring grazing. These deserts are, indeed, unfit for any kind of habitation by man or beast.

The northern sandy deserts - the Great and Little Barsuks, the Aral Kara-Kum, the Muyunkum and the Balkhash region - are quite different from the adjoining stony desert. They differ from the southern deserts in that the soil waters are everywhere nearer the surface. The Muyunkum in particular has great possibilities for growing wheat and cotton if irrigation is carried out. The soil there has a rich humus horizon and is more brown than serozem, although there are patches of very salt soil. The Balkhash sands (Taukum, Sary-Ishik-Otrau and Lyukkum) have many different types of vegetation according to the relief; the white saksaul predominates on the higher ground, while in the lower grounds grasses grow of the highest importance as cattle fodder. The Ili delta, at present overgrown in tugay, is a possible field for growing rice, alfalfa and quick-ripening cotton.

There remains the mountain area - the Tien Shan and the Pamirs. This region, slightly to the west of the centre of the Eurasian land mass and thousands of miles from the sea, has a sharply continental climate. In the west of the Fergana valley, on the same latitude as Lisbon, the mean January temperature is -0.7° and the mean July temperature 28.6° , with an absolute minimum of -18° . In Lisbon the corresponding temperatures are 10.3 ; 21.7 ; -1.5 . The climate varies according to the relief; it is always warmer in winter in the higher regions. Thus Tashkent is much warmer in winter than Turtkul', although it lies on the same latitude. The variations in climate from one valley or hill to another make it impossible to give a summary of the climate of the region as a whole;

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different places may have an annual precipitation of anything from 100 to 1,000 mm., while in the neighbouring plains the annual rainfall is everywhere about 100 mm. The greatest rainfall is found at heights of from 1,500 to 3,000 metres. At the first height most of the rain falls in winter, at the second in summer. The winds have a great effect on the agriculture of the region; in winter there are the fens - hot, dry winds blow from the hills into the valleys especially in the Fergana basin and in the Tashkent area and cause premature growth of the crops, while in summer the garmsil' - a burning, dry wind - blows from the desert which reduces the relative moisture content of the air to four or five per cent and raises the temperature to 40°. To guard the crops from this wind the irrigation flow is increased, and protective rows of mulberry trees and willows are planted. In southern Tadzhikistan a dry wind blows from Afghanistan, called "The Afghan"; in winter this brings with it heavy falls of snow.

An example of the crops grown may be seen from this record, made in the Zeravshan valley; there rice is grown to 1,160 metres, maize to 1,280 metres, peaches to 1,370 metres, vines to 1,830 metres, oats to 1,950 metres, apricots to 2,135 metres and barley to 2,500 metres. The farther to the east, the higher is it possible to grow a crop. The vegetation belts are as follows: mountain desert, semi-desert, mountain dry steppe, wood-meadow-steppe, sub-Alpine and Alpine vegetation, at levels respectively 350-500 metres, 500-1,500 metres, 1,700-1,800 metres, 1,200-3,000 metres, 1,500-3,200 metres, and over 3,500 metres. The height of the sub-Alpine and Alpine vegetation varies according to the precipitation.

The East Pamirs have a harsh winter and a mild summer; although in summer the temperature of the air may rise very high, the earth freezes in winter and only the surface temperatures are high in summer. The West Pamirs are sheltered by the Academy of Sciences Range and have higher mean temperatures. The soil here has a high humus content; there are stony light chestnut and brown soils and mountain serozems, but the land is so stony that cultivation is difficult. In the valleys irrigation has created oasis conditions. In the Tien Shan the rainfall is greater than in the Pamirs, but the soil is salt and the vegetation sparse. The Kopet-Dag Range is very dry and belongs geographically to the Persian uplands; the Dzhungarian Alatau is rich from the point of view of vegetation, but belongs to a category found in the USSR only in the Altay.

I N D U S T R Y

NEW METHODS AND MACHINES IN
I N D U S T R Y

Introduction - Coal mines - Oil wells and refineries - Cotton processing - Other industries - "Rationalization" and proposed improvements - Conclusion.

The industry of the Soviet Union has in the course of the summer of 1955 been made the target of a new campaign, the "struggle for technical progress". This campaign was initiated by the all-Union conference of industrial workers held in Moscow in May, and given full reign by the decrees of the July plenum of the Central Party Committee. It has two aspects; an increase in productivity by a more rational use of the existing machinery, and an increase in production by the introduction of new machines and the adaptation of the old. According to the July plenum decisions the second aspect was to be the more important; Bulganin said that 70 per cent of all industrial output was to be "the production of the means of production".

It has been disclosed that 87 per cent of the Soviet Union's machine tools are produced in European Russia. Though there are factories producing machine tools in Uzbekistan, Central Asia cannot manufacture enough for its own needs and its consequent dependence on imports from European Russia thus emerges as the main reason why the modernization of Central Asian industry has so far been carried out on only a small scale. Until new machinery in sufficient quantity can be sent from European Russia, a large saving in man-power cannot be expected. The proposals recently published by SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA for the Frunze Metal Works are typical of the developments to be brought about by the new campaign. The works already has an assembly-line for producing rake teeth, which employs four men instead of the former sixty. At present the tines are brought from another shop on a horse-drawn cart and placed on the belt by hand without proper sorting. When warped pieces of metal find their way into the machine, the whole line is stopped. The teeth are taken off the line and sorted there by hand. All this could be easily corrected by moving the machine that prepares the rods into the assembly-line shop and installing an automatic sorting machine there and

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at the end of the line; this would free four workmen. In the stamping out shop the metal parts are at present taken out of each machine and transferred to the next by hand. A conveyor belt and a simple ejector would obviate the need of stopping the machine while this is done; this would free three workmen. Many other processes in all the shops are done by hand when a simple device would permit mechanical operation. The designers' office and the chief metallurgist's department are mainly concerned in the modernization of the works. They, however, are naturally occupied to the full with ensuring the quality of the parts made in the works; there should be a special "laboratory" to work out new production techniques for new machines and to test "rationalizing" proposals, as there usually is in works in the United States of America.

A recently planned development in Central Asian coal-mining is the introduction of the so-called Hydraulic Method. Water is pumped into the seam at a pressure of sixty atmospheres, and the resulting mixture of water and coal-dust piped directly to the concentration plant. This method has disadvantages in areas with little water, but they are partially compensated for by the fact that since the coal-dust is already in suspension in water, little more water is required in the process of concentration. The method was to be adopted in Karaganda (at LENINUGOL' No.106 pit) where 300,000 tons of coal a year were to be produced in this way, but it had still not been introduced in August 1955, partly because the Churubay-Nura reservoir had not been completed to supply the water.

A pneumatic separator (SPB 100) for use in brown coal concentration plants has been developed by the Leningrad branch of the USSR Coal Ministry's Institute of Coal Concentration, and is being manufactured at the PARKHOMENKO Works in Karaganda. Four machines were made in 1955; twelve are to be made in 1956. They will be used in the plants at Karaganda, Sverdlovsk, Chelyabinsk and in Eastern Siberia. Under test at Sverdlovsk the machine has treated 140 - 150 tons an hour, or 2,400 - 2,500 tons in a two-shift day; the planned capacity was 100 tons an hour. It is operated by two men only.

Several pits in Karaganda have already been equipped with complete conveyor systems, replacing all other methods of underground haulage. The first such system in the rest of Central Asia was recently installed at Angren No.9; many of the belts are operated by remote control. "Blast loading" is carried out by means of a STR 30 scraper-conveyor. Of the clean coal 30 per cent is power loaded; there is no power loading on heading works at Angren or in any other Uzbek mine.

The longest overhead surface cable conveyor in Uzbekistan has been installed at Shargun. Tadzhik mines seem to be behind the rest of Central

Asia; their "new" machinery is confined to lifting gear. This is the case at Shurab No.8; at Shurab No.1/5 a skip has replaced a tub railway in the sloping shaft.

There are no "Donbass" combines (power loaders) in any Uzbek pit so far; Shurab is expecting the delivery of two shortly. In the mines of Karaganda there were nine Donbass 6 combines in September 1955 and twenty more are expected at the end of the year. Kuz'min and Gurevich, designers at the Karaganda Institute of Mine Planning, have invented a new coal-cutting and loading combine. This combine, unlike the familiar Donbass combine, works on a cleaving principle. It has a large metal cylinder with disc saws set on it, and between the saws, teeth with a welded tip of hard alloy in a chess-board pattern. The circular saws cut into the face to a depth of 10 - 15 cm., and the teeth break up the lumps of coal and direct them into the inside of the cylinder, from which a worm screw lifts the coal on to a conveyor. The great advantage of this machine is that it needs no special form of transportation; it can move in both directions along the wall. Its capacity is planned as twice that of the Donbass; one machine can load 190 tons an hour. There is less dust, and the consumption of electricity is one and a half times less. The combine is intended for seams of .6 - 2 metres; with an extra cylinder it could work seams of three metres. Tests under working conditions had already started at the beginning of December 1955.

A Donbass 6 combine in Kalinin pit (LENINUGOL', Karaganda) has produced 15,500 tons of coal in a month, with a twenty-four hour average of 560 tons. At the same pit seams are now being worked towards, instead of away from the shaft, and this is releasing many timberers for other work. Steps are being taken towards the full interchange of functions; loaders are to drive trains and heading workers to operate temporary ventilation equipment. There is evidently a shortage of skilled manpower, although it has been said that in Uzbekistan under 40 per cent of the miners have been working in the pits for more than five years, which would seem to point to a more fluid situation. Where so few experienced miners are available, it is hard to introduce duplication of functions.

The Molchanov apparatus is being successfully introduced in Turkmen oil drilling. An instruction team from Baku visited Nebit-Dag this summer, and a party of Turkmen technicians visited Azerbaydhan. A feature of the new method of underground well repair is that the deep-pump rods are hung from a "chandelier" when not in use and are thus kept free from dirt or damage. Some wells have special devices for quick lifting and sinking of the rods.

At Kum-Dag electromechanical scrapers have been installed in many

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gushing wells to clean the lift pipes from paraffin; when this operation was done by hand it took 1 hour 15 minutes. A new type of instrument is in universal use in research testing of the rock pressure and the differential between the rock and well pressures which considerably reduces the time during which the well is out of operation. A visit paid by Kum-Dag technicians to the Krasnodar field has resulted in the experimental use of lamellar scrapers for cleaning the pump pipes.

More striking savings of time and man-power are to be found in the Stalin Oil Refinery at Nebit-Dag. "Automation" applied after a visit to the Azerbaydzhan wells recently released 35 of the small staff employed, ten of them from the diesel power-station. One of the technical improvements made relates to the kerosene and gasoline waste, which previously had to be cooled down from a temperature of 230-250° centigrade before reaching the storage reservoirs. It is now used to heat the oil.

The introduction of turbine in place of rotary boring in 1953 brought in this year the actual working time to 95.2 per cent of the time on the job, instead of the planned percentage of 80.

In the Emba oil-fields much working time has been saved by the introduction of ten oscillating pumps of the SKN-2, -3, and -5 marks.

There have been many recent innovations in cotton-processing. Most of the machinery for these is made and tested in Uzbekistan, and sent out to the other cotton growing republics. Thus, in June the Bukhara works tested a new linter devised by the all-Union Central Research Institute. The seeds are passed three times through the linter instead of twice, seven per cent of the lint being removed instead of three. This also means an improvement in the suitability of the seed for square-cluster planting. Experts from the Institute have also been observing the use of a new cotton-cleaner made by the Tashkent Cotton Machinery Works. It was invented by the chief engineer of the Mary cotton-cleaning factory and has been installed there. In this machine the cutting knife is replaced by a roller with cutting discs which reduces vibration and the number of breaks in the fibre. An improvement suggested by the Mary workmen was that the fibre from all four batteries of the separator should be directed into one box instead of into two. The condensers have therefore been set in pairs one above the other. A member of the Institute suggested that the two five-drummed cleaners should be set in parallel and not in series. The perfected press has brought the mill's output per shift from 15 - 17 to 24 - 25 tons of fibre.

Last year the Tashkent cotton-cleaning mill was supplied with a new 480 ton press (B-374) from a works at Novosibirsk (TYAZHSTANKOGIDROPRESS

- heavy hydraulic press equipment). The press has an hourly output of 23 bales instead of the previous 17. Workers at the mill decided to install a large-diameter overflow pipe, thus reducing the loss of time in sinking the press plunger from 35-40 seconds to 13-15.

At the Fergana No.1 Mill the chief electrician has devised a method of avoiding a complete stoppage of work in the linting shop when the screw conveyors and elevator are clogged with seeds. A conveyor belt is automatically switched on which carries the seeds in another direction. At the Alimkent mill meshed traps have been made in the bottom of the pipe of the screw conveyor taking the raw cotton to the fibre separators. The waste falls through into special bunkers.

All these Uzbek factories record their improvements in a periodical entitled EXCHANGING TECHNICAL EXPERIENCE. The improvements are thus communicated to other mills. But there are mills where new techniques cannot be applied. Mill No.3 at Fergana was built over a hundred years ago by the Great Yaroslavl' Manufacturing Company. The last reconstruction of the mill was in 1881. It has pneumatic apparatus, but no electricity. To tamp the fibre, two workmen throw it into a pressing box and trample it with their feet. There is no weighing-plate for lorries; each sack has to be weighed separately with centesimal scales. The installation of a weighing-plate would release two workmen and save 10,000 rubles a year; the mill-workers have suggested this, but the Ministry has made no move.

A considerable economy in labour will be made by the installation of drying and cleaning shops at the cotton collection points. The first of these was opened at Karasu in June and has been visited by technicians from the Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia and the Caucasus. The store will hold two days' intake of raw cotton. Four suction pipes draw the cotton to the drying drums. These pipes have no diffusers since they can be fitted with extensions to reach the far corners of the store. The drying is done by air at a temperature of 180-200° centigrade, and not as elsewhere by gas. The four drums together have a daily output of 120 tons. The collection point now employs less than half of the former 90 workers. Similar establishments are to be opened soon in Kibray, Toy-Tyube and Osh (Kirgizia).

Uzbekistan is the source of most of the new machinery used in the Central Asian cotton industry, but the machine-tools used in the Tashkent Cotton Machine Works come from European Russia. Thus, while the Stalinabad Works recently sent one of their men to Tashkent to learn the new machines, the machines themselves came from Leningrad, Kiev and Ryazan'. The re-equipment of the Stalinabad clothing factory in 1954 and 1955 was also carried out with machines from Leningrad and Rostov-on-Don. Similar-

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ly in May last year the Alma-Ata clothing factory received new machinery from the FORWARD! Works in Leningrad, including a four-loom machine for making silk stockings with operation entirely automatized and an output 25 per cent greater than that of the existing looms. The same machinery at Voroshilovskoye (Kirgizia) brought the output per worker per shift from 3,000 - 3,500 pairs to 5,000 - 6,000. The Uzbek garment factories are increasing output by specialization: the Tashkent factory produces men's suits while that at Armavir produces men's overcoats.

Another proposal - also from Leningrad - is the installation of the production line system in butter factories (see article on FOOD INDUSTRY in this issue for details). This system, first applied in Predgornenskiy (North-Kazakhstan oblast), is to be extended to twelve other Kazakh factories in 1955. New equipment, but of types already standard, is being installed in oil factories in Leninabad, Regar, Pakhkhari and Stalinabad.

One of the few examples of new machinery arriving at heavy metal-working plants is found at the Tashkent AVTOTRAKTORDETAL' (Tractor Component Parts) Works. Here a new TVCh (High Frequency Current) machine for the heat treatment of fitting tools began operation in August; a fraction press with new dies for two parts instead of one, an automatic lathe and a machine to make patterns were then soon to be in use. Less surplus is to be allowed in casting certain parts; this will increase the productivity of the labour used to machine the mould by 10 per cent. The Khilkov asbestos and cement pipe works has received its first conveyor. The pipes are revolved by the conveyor's rollers for eight hours before being placed in water to set; formerly men had to roll the pipes about to prevent warping. The process is now six to eight hours shorter, there is no need to allow 2 - 2.5 mm. surplus in making the pipes and output has risen by 10 - 15 per cent.

Other developments in heavy industry are the result of "rationalizing" proposals rather than of the introduction of new machinery. In the summer of 1955 TASHSEL'MASH, the Tashkent agricultural machinery factory and the largest in Central Asia, introduced various new processes: casting in cork moulds, knurling, and "bimetalization". The most recent innovation has been automatic welding under a layer of a fusing agent. The necessary apparatus has been obtained by fixing a welding head and attachment for supplying the fusing agent on to an ordinary turning lathe which had been written off as unserviceable. The new machine uses half the electricity and 85 per cent of the wire ordinarily necessary. A similar development has been the use of high-speed power cutting at the BOL'SHEVIK Works, Kokand, a subsidiary of SREDAZNEFT'. A cutting machine assembled by two of the workmen there can cut 518 metres a minute with a gear

delivery of 760 mm. a minute at a depth of cut of 3 mm. It works for 100 hours without overhaul instead of 8-10 hours, and in that time treats 87 pieces instead of 12.

A typical example of the work of "rationalizers" was given in PRAVDA VOSTOKA on the 23rd September, which devoted a whole page to the "struggle for technical progress" at the TASHKENTKABEL' Works. Among the many proposals described was one from a group composed from members of the managing staff. They proposed the establishment in the works of a new vulcanizer, which, they said, would free 25 men and save the factory 800,000 rubles a year. The other proposals were less ambitious and all connected with the main theme of the articles - more production from the existing equipment.

At the same time there have been articles in the press throughout the summer complaining of the neglect of the new equipment provided. At the lowest level, a letter complains that farm equipment has been lying unclaimed at Rybach'ye station (Kirgizia) for two years. At a higher level, requests for more machinery and for greater capital expenditure, such as that made by the TASHKENTKABEL' management, are often answered by instructions to use the machinery already sent. At the beginning of September KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA made a series of "raids" on various factories and other undertakings to see how they were making use of their new equipment. The results of these "raids" were given great prominence in the newspaper by means of special headings; cartoons and even composite photographs of the smiling factory manager and his neglected machinery were added. At a Karaganda mine were found lying in an old shed three electric trains delivered in 1953 and a conveyor belt delivered a year ago, the total value being 400,000 rubles. In the pit-yard were three steam boilers supposed to have started work in 1954, and two "Donbass" combines in a state of disrepair. At the Alma-Ata Heavy Machine Works the correspondents found a 65 ton boring machine, delivered from Moscow in January 1954, but lying unused because of defects discovered on assembly, to remedy which replacing parts had not yet arrived. A grinding machine was assembled in October 1953, but had not been used because some pinions needed were not ordered. In the casting shop the manager had constantly been asking for new equipment; but he had two casting machines in his shop which arrived in 1953 and had never been used.

At the Chimkent lead works an inspection team found in the store two crushing-machines worth 340,000 rubles, some gravel washing-machines and five conveyor belts, which had been there since 1951. In 1950 the works had addressed petition after petition to the Ministry of Non-Ferrous Metallurgy for an overhead crane for the electric power-station. In 1951 one was sent, worth 160,000 rubles, and shortly after another; they are

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to be installed in 1957. A complete automatic telephone exchange worth 320,000 rubles has been in the store since early in 1953; it is to be set up "during the next five-year plan".

At the Tekeli lead mine construction headquarters five pumps of the latest type have been lying in the station yard since 1952. Here one of the reasons for the neglect of the new equipment is that all loading and unloading has to be done by hand. Similar "raids" at Leninogorsk and Makat produced the same results; valuable equipment lies under the open sky and is not installed for trivial reasons. Remarks attributed to works foremen and managers show that for them at least this campaign is nothing new. The call to adopt American techniques represents an old ambition. The immediate result of such a campaign is bound to be large orders for new equipment, which must be made in the already over-burdened factories of European Russia. It seems that this was the case in 1955. It is easier to order new machines to introduce the "simple devices" recommended to mechanize processes and to improve existing techniques in such ways as high-speed cutting and welding, than to adapt the existing equipment some of which - as the extraordinary case of No.3 cotton mill at Fergana shows - must be very old. It was apparent in September that organized measures were being taken to stop the flow of orders for new machines. One such proposal - from the management - appeared in the summary of the work at TASHKENTKABEL', but all the others were for the improvement of the existing machinery. The two Kokand workers who adapted a lathe for power cutting "shared their experience" at an oblast Party meeting. Finally, the series in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA was very successfully designed to show that it was not necessary to acquire new machines, but only to utilize the old.

The reason for the campaign would seem to be not so much an increase in output as an increase in productivity. There are constant references to the number of men who will be released if this or that method is applied. The achievements of the past are, it is true, attributed to the influence of "socialist competition", but the impression is gained that this is formal deference rather than genuine belief. It may be that increased productivity in the future is to depend on improved techniques rather than on the disposition of the workers. Certainly, "socialist competition" may well have reached its limits. But equally, there is a widespread feeling that only more new equipment will meet the need, and it may be doubted whether productivity can be raised without it. The later phase of the campaign reflects the meeting of two points of view; their resolution depends on elements outside the Central Asian sphere.

Source

Central Asian Press.

I N D U S T R Y

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

Introduction - Meat kombinats - Dairy produce - Vegetable oils - Fruit and vegetable preserves - Flour mills and bakeries - Sugar refineries - Wine and beer - Fish canneries.

The food industry of Central Asia and Kazakhstan has grown considerably during the past few years and now includes most branches of food manufacture. New and up-to-date factories are being built, mainly in or near the larger towns but also in rural areas and in the newly developed lands as part of the long-term plan for a balanced economy in these republics. During the first six months of 1955, production quotas in the food industry were exceeded in Kazakhstan by 10 per cent, in Turkmenistan by 37 per cent, and in Kirgizia the latest available figures show that production in 1954 was 14.3 per cent above that of 1953. In Tadzhikistan the planned quotas for the first half of 1955 were fulfilled in all branches of the industry.

Since 1954, as a result of the greater emphasis on livestock breeding in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, great efforts have been made to modernize and expand the meat and dairy industries. This is especially so in Kazakhstan, where the reclamation of virgin and derelict land and consequent increase in fodder crops, should result in a fairly rapid increase in livestock. The meat industry in Kazakhstan is concentrated in the large towns such as Semipalatinsk, Alma-Ata and Karaganda. The industry is organized in 18 different kombinats the largest of which, at Semipalatinsk, handles up to 18,000 sheep, 2,000 head of cattle and 2,000 pigs a day. The old slaughter houses have been re-equipped with up-to-date machinery and now form part of the kombinats. In spite of modernization, however, labour productivity in August 1955 was below the established level in six of the eighteen kombinats, and according to KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 16th April there was considerable waste at the Alma-Ata Meat Kombinat: damage to hides amounted to 250,000 rubles in two months, meat was left on the hides, which were processed in the open air on the ground; and there was also waste in the canning of meat.

In Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan there is not a large meat industry; but there are meat kombinats in some of the bigger towns such as Bukhara, Samarkand, Tashkent and Ashkhabad. The meat kombinat at Ashkhabad complained in a letter to TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA that it was receiving underfed cattle, which had to be kept for some days at the slaughterhouse being fattened-up before they could be slaughtered.

Seventy million rubles have been invested in new slaughterhouses and cold storage plants in Kirgizia, but in spite of this, one half of the kombinats in the republic failed to fulfil their quotas for the first part of 1955. The irregular arrival of cattle led to the suspension of work for long periods of time and 16 per cent of the cattle received at the slaughterhouses in 1954 were below the standard weight. There are complaints that at many kombinats use is not made of waste such as horns and bristle, which should be collected for the manufacture of various by-products. At some kombinats the production of sausage and other products was actually less in 1955 than in 1954 and there are complaints in the Kirgiz press at the limited choice of tinned meats. However, the total production of meat and sausage in Kirgizia was higher for the early part of 1955 than in the same period of the previous year. The Minister of the Meat and Dairy Industry in Kirgizia, Chertakov, told a conference of officials at Frunze that the production of tinned meat, sausage, cheese and other produce was 22,357,000 rubles greater in 1954 than in 1953. Production was especially satisfactory at the Dzhalal-Abad Meat Kombinat, which during the first six months of 1955 exceeded its planned output to the value of 2m. rubles; labour productivity rose and the quality of goods manufactured improved considerably. At the Rybach'ye Meat Kombinat the installation of new mechanical equipment in 1955 should double the output of fats and raise total production 25 per cent above the level of 1954.

Uzbekistan dairies, which were out of date in organization and lacking in equipment, have been modernized and transformed into mechanized "milk and butter factories". In spite of the fact that the dairy industry in Kirgizia did not reach the planned output figure in respect of butter and cheese in 1954, production is increasing. Modern equipment is being installed, and new separators at the Kirovskiy dairy can process 2,000 litres of milk an hour as compared with the 600 litres processed in the old ones. The total capacity of the Kirgiz dairies is about 26,000 tons of milk per annum. Production lines installed at the Kalininskiy dairies have more than trebled the output of butter, and similar installations have resulted in a considerable increase in butter production at the Tokmak dairy. Nevertheless, SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of 9th March 1955 reported that the population complains, with reason, of the poor quality of dairy products.

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The dairy industry in Kazakhstan is being developed mainly in the north and north-eastern parts of the republic where 178 new dairies have been constructed since 1945. According to KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 8th August 1955 there were then 404 dairies in operation, in 298 of which labour output was below that of 1954. Dairies are now being equipped with modern machinery and production lines. Production lines, when used for the manufacture of butter, can yield between 300 and 400 kilogrammes an hour, the lines also contain pasteurizers, separators, intermediate reservoirs and butter coolers, all in a continuous chain. There is, however, a shortage of refrigerators at the distribution centres of the Alma-Ata dairies. "Milk kitchens" in Kazakhstan have been rather neglected during the past few years; these organizations produce such things as kefir, cream, white cheese and infant foods. During 1955 their number declined and many of those that continued production were working in inadequate premises with obsolete equipment. At Alma-Ata in 1949 there were three "milk kitchens" turning out six million infant rations a year; two of these have now closed and the output of the remaining kitchen is only a quarter of what it was in 1949.

There is a fairly large vegetable oil extraction industry in Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan, which is in the course of modernization. In Uzbekistan the cotton-seed oil mills of Samarkand, Bukhara, Nukus, Fergana, Andizhan and other towns produce 250,000 tons of cotton-seed oil a year. (1) Obsolete hydraulic presses are gradually being replaced by up-to-date screw presses (expellers) and extractors. The greater part of the oil mills of the Uzrasmaslo (Uzbek Vegetable Oil Organization) have already been reconstructed, as a result of which a number of workers have been freed for other jobs and the output capacity of the oil presses considerably increased. The old-type hydraulic presses left 7 per cent or more of the oil in the seeds after crushing, screw presses leave only $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and modern extractors only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The productivity of oil mills equipped with the new installations is 30-50 per cent above those with the old hydraulic presses. PRAVDA VOSTOKA reported on the 28th July 1955 that ten new presses had been received at the Kagan mill from the engineering works at Rostov, two screw presses were installed at the Yangi-Yul' oil mills in 1954 and three more in 1955, and the re-equipment of the Fergana mill will be completed in 1955. New oil mills have started production at Andizhan and Kokand, the latter being automatically operated, and automation has been introduced at the old mills in Andizhan and also at Uch-Kurgan. The soap manufacturing shops attached to these mills are also being reconstructed, which should result in more variety and better quality soap produced at lower cost.

As a result of new equipment and improved techniques many mills report improvements in output. At the Katta-Kurgan oil extraction mill

1,120 centners of vegetable oil and considerable quantities of soap and animal fodder were produced from waste during the first five months of 1955; at Uch-Kurgan the four months output quota was achieved ahead of schedule and 300 tons of oil was saved by reduction of waste in cotton-seed skin. At the Namangan vegetable-oil mill, where between 28-29 tons of cotton-seed is treated daily, labour productivity has risen by 37 per cent since its re-equipment. At the Bukhara and Izbakent mechanized mills, however, production is not so satisfactory and output compares unfavourably with that at the non-mechanized mills. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 2nd August wrote that at Bukhara not a single qualified engineer or skilled mechanic is available, new equipment is left lying for months in store-houses and there is nobody to assemble it. Training schools have now been organized to remedy this, but often the students lack the elementary knowledge necessary to profit from the technical education provided.

In Tadzhikistan new screw presses are being brought into production at the Leninabad oil mill and, following an improvement in working techniques, output yielded 756,000 rubles above the estimated quota during the first half of 1955. After the installation of new equipment, production at the Parkhar (Kulyab oblast) mill exceeded the planned quota by 41 per cent during the early part of 1955, at the Kurgan-Tyube mill mechanization of the oil press is almost complete, and cotton-seed arrives through a pipe-line from a neighbouring cotton-ginning mill. Other aspects of the vegetable oil industry in Tadzhikistan are less satisfactory. Cotton-ginning mills in north Tadzhikistan, such as those of Kaninabad and Proletarsk, send their cotton-seed to oil-presses in neighbouring Uzbekistan, while the eleven mills of south Tadzhikistan, including those of Stalinabad, send theirs either to Bairam Ali (Turkmenistan) or Katta-Kurgan (Uzbekistan). More than half the cotton-seed oil produced in Tadzhikistan is sent to the Novosibirsk Oil and Fats Kombinat, from which Tadzhikistan receives margarine, paint oil and other products in return. There are long periods of inactivity in the mills which result in losses of oil; in 1952 the Tadzhik vegetable oil mills made a profit of 2,149,700 rubles; in 1955 the deficit for the first quarter alone amounted to 2,720,000 rubles. Again, in 1952 the cost of refined oil was reduced by 15 per cent; in 1955 it rose by 8.9 per cent. Writing on this subject on 28th June, KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA suggested that new oil mills should be built in Tadzhikistan so that all available cotton-seed could be treated locally instead of being transported to other republics; existing mills should be reconstructed and re-equipped with up-to-date machinery. The article also suggested the construction of an oil and fats kombinat at Stalinabad which, in addition to vegetable oil, would manufacture margarine, soap, paint oil and other by-products. The paper added that in 1954 only 72.2 per cent of the available cotton-seed was processed, though this was an improvement over the previous year's 60.4

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per cent.

Although the vegetable oil industry in Central Asia is mainly in Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan, the other republics are also represented. An article in *TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA* of the 26th August 1955 stated that in Turkmenistan the Bairam-Ali Oil and Fats Kombinat was operating satisfactorily and producing high-quality products; but the oil press at Tashauz was lagging behind schedule. In Kirgizia there is a vegetable oil refinery at Karasu, in Kazakhstan cotton-seed oil refineries at Chimkent and Turkestan, and a sunflower-seed oil refinery at Ust-Kamenogorsk.

Uzbekistan is the biggest producer of tinned fruit and vegetables in Central Asia. The largest factories are those of Samarkand, Fergana, Andizhan, Tashkent and Yangi-Yul', whose total output rose from 40m. tins in 1940 to 104m. tins in 1950 and continues to increase yearly. The Samarkand preserves factory, which almost doubled its output in 1955 as compared with 1954, has recently increased the variety of its tinned goods and now produces pilaf, stuffed vegetables, rice and minced-meat, and apple sauce as well as the more conventional products such as fruit juices. The Namangan factory specializes in fruit and vegetable preserves and fruit juices. The Fergana factory has recently been equipped with up-to-date machinery and has consequently been able to extend the variety of its goods to about 100 different tinned products.

The preserves industry in Tadzhikistan also is being expanded. In addition to the Leninabad Preserve Kombinat, there are canneries at Kanibadam, Isfara and other towns. The Tadzhikokonserv trust (Tadzhik Preserves) is building a new preserves kombinat in the Vakhsh valley and another in the Kulyab oblast, and a greater variety of fruit should now be grown in Tadzhikistan where at present apricot trees predominate. Output of fruit and vegetable preserves almost trebled in Tadzhikistan between 1952 and 1955; half of the output consists of jam and jelly, fruit juice and sauces forming only an insignificant proportion of the total production. At the Kanibadam kombinat it is planned to increase production by 2,500,000 tins and 200 tons of dried fruit in 1955 as compared with the previous year. This kombinat has just been modernized and early in 1955 production had risen by 15 per cent over 1954, by the end of the year it was expected to be 30 per cent above the 1954 level. The Leninabad kombinat is also being mechanized and the confectionery output rose by 30 per cent in the first half of 1955. But the best use is not being made of all the plants in the Leninabad oblast, some are being used to full capacity for only 1-1½ months a year and many processes are still carried out manually.

New machinery in the Kirgiz preserves factory at Tokmak should result

in an increase of 1m. tins of fruit and vegetable preserves in 1955 compared with 1954; the value of the gross output had increased by 10m. rubles during the first part of 1955. At Dzhahal-Abad there is a preserves-vitamin kombinat which manufactures vitamins and vitaminized tinned fruit and vegetables; the raw materials are provided from wild walnut and fruit trees. The Alma-Ata Preserves Kombinats in Kazakhstan has recently been expanded; the produce of this kombinat is well-known in the shops of Moscow, Leningrad and other big cities of the Soviet Union and now includes tomato juice and tinned soups as well as preserved vegetables and fruit, jams and jellies. Output in 1955 should show an increase of 1,250,000 tins, including 100,000 pots of jam, over 1954.

The flour mills and bakeries of Central Asia and Kazakhstan are, like the other branches of the food industry, in the course of reorganization and mechanization. Large mechanized bakeries, or "bread factories" (khlebozavody) as they are called in the Soviet Union, have been built in many towns. Besides bread and other bakery produce, they also manufacture macaroni and cereals. A new macaroni shop at the Kokand (Uzbekistan) "bread factory" was equipped with up-to-date machinery in August 1955 and should soon be producing 4 tons of macaroni a day. Another macaroni shop is under construction at the Bukhara mechanized bakery. Conveyor belts have been installed at the No.6 Tashkent bakery and dough mixing is now automatic; similar machinery is being installed at the No.16 bakery in Tashkent.

At the No.1 Stalinabad bakery, labour productivity has risen by 30 per cent recently and the output of confectionery by 50 per cent. The conveyor belts newly installed at the No.1 Frunze mechanized bakery have resulted in an increase in value of 2,470,000 rubles in goods produced in 1955 compared with 1954. According to SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of the 23rd June 1955 costs at the bakery during this period were reduced by 4.3 per cent and 196,000 rubles were saved. New flour mills have been built at Osh, Talass and Przheval'sk in Kirgizia, and L. Tsuladze, Deputy Minister of the Food Industry of Kirgizia, recently stated that the output of bakery produce should rise by 14 per cent and macaroni by 18 per cent in 1955. In Turkmenistan there are complaints regarding the operation of some of these "bread factories". An article in TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of the 12th June 1955 said that these complaints are justified; at the No.4 Ashkhabad bakery, for instance, existing machinery is not fully utilized and the planned output quota is thus not being fulfilled. This situation is not exceptional, concludes the article, as it is little better at the No.2 bakery.

At present there are flour mills at Semipalatinsk, Petropavlovsk, Ural'sk, Alma-Ata, Karaganda and a number of the other larger towns in

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Kazakhstan; but with the reclamation of virgin and derelict land in the northern part of the republic, flour mills will undoubtedly be expanded to keep pace with the growing wheat production.

There are ten sugar refineries in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, five in the sugar-beet growing areas of Kirgizia (at Kant, Karabalty, Troitsk, Belovodsk and Tokmak) and five in Kazakhstan (at Karabulak, Kirovsk, Burunday, Merke and Dzhambul). In Kirgizia sugar production does not appear to be satisfactory. SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of the 26th August 1955 reported that labour productivity at all the factories was below the established norms. The factories themselves operate for only 80 to 100 days a year, and mechanics who are not fully employed for the whole year do not spend their slack periods on the repair and maintenance of machinery as they should; thus the machinery sometimes breaks down during the busy season and often remains under repair for long periods leading to loss of sugar-beet. Owing to defective storage 47,000 centners of sugar-beet was lost in 1954, which resulted in a loss of 6,500 centners of sugar. The cost of sugar was higher than planned; the final losses of the Sakhartrest (Sugar Trust) in 1954 were 2,500,000 rubles.

There are vineyards in all the Central Asian republics, and especially in south Kazakhstan; the wine is produced and bottled in a number of towns including Alma-Ata, Tashkent, Bukhara, Frunze and Dzhahal-Abad and there is a champagne "winery" at Tashkent. The brewery at Andizhan was recently reconstructed and output has since risen by 40 per cent: there are also breweries at Tashkent, Alma-Ata, Stalinabad, Leninabad and Frunze.

The fish-canning industry in Central Asia and Kazakhstan is well-established; the fisheries of the Caspian and Aral seas, and the Balkhash, Zaisan and Issyk-Kul lakes yield 9 per cent of the fish produced in the Soviet Union. Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan are the main fish producers of this area. The Rybkombinat (Fish Combine) of Turkmenistan completed its 1955 spring quota well ahead of time, and several other undertakings produced a surplus which totalled 2m. rubles in excess of the planned quota, during the same period. There are also large canneries manufacturing a variety of tinned fish at Krasnovodsk on the Caspian Sea. In Kazakhstan the Caspian-Ural basin accounts for 42 per cent of the fisheries and the Aral Sea 36 per cent. A large fish-canning kombinat has been built at Gur'yev on the Caspian Sea and many varieties of tinned fish as well as caviar, smoked, dried, salted and frozen fish is processed here. The Kazalinsk fish canning factory on the Aral Sea produced forty wagons of tinned fish in excess of the planned quota in 1954, but costs rose by 18 rubles 80 kopeks per centner as compared with 1953. This cannery has eight collection centres where the fish is salted and transported to the factory for processing; there is often a shortage of salt at the centres, and fre-

quently in spring and summer the roads are in a poor state following the flooding of the Syr-Dar'ya river. For these reasons fish is sometimes held up at the collection centres and a considerable wastage results. According to KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 9th August 1955, the Ministry of Fish Industry in Kazakhstan was not achieving the 1955 output quota; the Minister, Dzhumaliyev, and his deputies Slubakov and Semykin, instead of inspecting the fisheries and canneries personally, sent 2,000 letters and 5,475 telegrams to them during the first 6 months of 1955.

It will be seen from the foregoing that though most branches of the food industry are represented in Central Asia and Kazakhstan as a whole, the different republics have their own specialities: meat kombinats, flour mills, dairies and sugar refineries in Kazakhstan; vegetable oil mills, fruit and vegetable preserves in Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan; sugar refining in Kirgizia, and fish canning and cotton-seed oil mills in Turkmenistan. The biggest expansion is taking place in Kazakhstan where it is planned to double meat and milk production by 1960, and substantial increases are planned for the manufacture of by-products of livestock breeding, butter, cheese and sausage production in 1955. But expansion and modernization of the food industry is going forward throughout the whole of Central Asia. The difficulties being encountered are similar to those met in other industries - shortage of skilled workers and obsolete equipment, while the new machinery that is installed is often left to the care of unqualified persons with consequent breakdowns and long periods of idleness before the necessary mechanics are available for repair work. Labour productivity is frequently low, techniques out-of-date, and there are the usual complaints in the press regarding the poor quality of goods produced. In spite of this, however, production as a whole is rising and in Kazakhstan for example, 30m. rubles worth of foodstuffs were produced in excess of the planned quota during the first six months of 1955, and total output was 10 per cent higher than in the comparable period of 1954. Summing up, it may be assumed that Central Asia and Kazakhstan are being developed into one of the main economic units of the USSR in which various branches of the food industry will play an important role.

Note:

- (1) Ekonomicheskaya Geografiya SSR. Prof. G.N. Cherdantsev. Moscow, 1954.

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Sources

1. Ekonomicheskaya Geografiya SSR. Prof. G.N. Cherdantsev. Moscow, 1954.
2. Kirgiziya. S.N. Ryazantsev. Moscow, 1953.
3. Turkmenskaya SSR. Z.G. Freykin. Moscow, 1954.
4. Tadzhikskaya SSR. D.A. Chumichev. Moscow, 1954.
5. Central Asian Press.

I N D U S T R Y

I R O N O R E : A N E W D I S C O V E R Y I N
K A Z A K H S T A N

As reported in the News Items of the CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW (Vol.III, No.3) large iron ore deposits have recently been discovered in the Kustanay oblast of Kazakhstan and excavation on a large open-cast working began in February 1955. These new Sokolovsko-Sarbay deposits, together with those at Atasuskiy and Karsakpay, put Kazakhstan in the first place in the Soviet Union as a source of iron ore. The new deposits are estimated to be superior to those of the Urals and the Ukraine.

The initial discovery of the Sokolovsko-Sarbay deposits was made by a certain Surgutanov who, when flying over the area, noticed a considerable deviation in his compass. This discovery was followed by prospecting and exploratory drilling, and within five years the magnetic iron ore deposits were located. Today, a "new giant of ferrous metallurgy", the Sokolovsko-Sarbay Mining Kombinat is under construction and is planned to be in full operation in two or three years time.

The Sokolovsko-Sarbay deposits were struck at a relatively shallow depth. Excavation on the first open-cast working was started in February 1955; by the time the kombinat is completed, a 350-400 metre deep strip-mine will be ready for working and another still larger will be opened a few kilometres away. An electric railway is to be built around the workings, and a narrow-gauge railway is already in operation.

It is claimed that the most up-to-date machinery is being used. The first open-cast working is being tackled simultaneously from the north and the south at points two kilometres apart. Work goes on day and night in three shifts. Last winter electric engines and dump cars, excavators and tip-lorries were delivered to the site along the fifty-kilometre snow-covered road from Kustanay. Communications with the site are still rudimentary and a frequent shortage of spare parts and equipment holds up the work. According to one newspaper report, of the seventeen 25-ton MAZ tip-lorries only seven or eight were in working order, and sometimes a large excavator remains idle for want of one small spare bolt. Indeed, the criticism was made that the Ministry of Ferrous Metallurgy ordered the construction of the kombinat to begin without having made any preparations

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for communications. There are, however, plans to build local lines to link the site with Sokolovskaya, Predotvalnaya and Fabrichnaya stations, and with the Kustanay - Tobol line which is now under construction. These railways will have an important part to play as, after initial processing, the iron ore is to be sent to metallurgical works in Kazakhstan and the Urals, particularly Magnitogorsk and Chelyabinsk.

At the kombinat itself the iron ore will be screened, and, after being crushed in the breaking shops, the rock will be extracted by means of powerful magnets. Then the small-grained ore will be baked into large porous cakes in agglomeration machines, and finally sulphur and other impurities will be extracted. The ore will then be sent to the metallurgical works. Some of the Sokolovsko-Sarbay ore, it is claimed, is so rich that it can be smelted directly in open-hearth furnaces.

One of the biggest problems in the building of the new undertaking, apart from that of transport, has been that of providing housing and amenities for the workers. At present the workers live at Komsomol'sk, a small settlement in the steppe which was first constructed to house the geologists working on the preliminary survey of the area. At Komsomol'sk housing is said to be short and there are few amenities; the single small clubhouse is in a much neglected state; few films are shown and dances are only occasionally held. A bus service runs once a day to Kustanay.

A new settlement is, however, already under construction at a point five kilometres from Komsomol'sk on the Tobol river. Here the first blocks are already rising. Houses and flats with all modern conveniences; clubhouse and two cinemas; eight schools, kindergartens and day nurseries; markets, shops and hospitals are all to be erected. This work has been given first priority. Once this new settlement has been finished, the old settlement of Komsomol'sk is to become an industrial centre, with a railway station and factories.

A special building "trust", the Sokolovrudstroy, has been created. This has before it the task of excavating more than 100m. cubic metres and using over 800,000 cubic metres of concrete in the building of the kombinat. Houses and flats are now mostly built of prefabricated breeze cement sections and steel frames. Soon these will be manufactured in the neighbourhood and a concrete-mixing plant is to turn out over 200,000 cubic metres of concrete per annum. A wood mill is also to be built here and will produce wooden frames, boards and furniture. Finally an asphalt-concrete plant is to supply materials for extensive road building. Thus it seems that a new and largely self-supporting industrial centre is to be created in what has hitherto been a remote and undeveloped agricultural region.

Source

Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 20th May, 1955.

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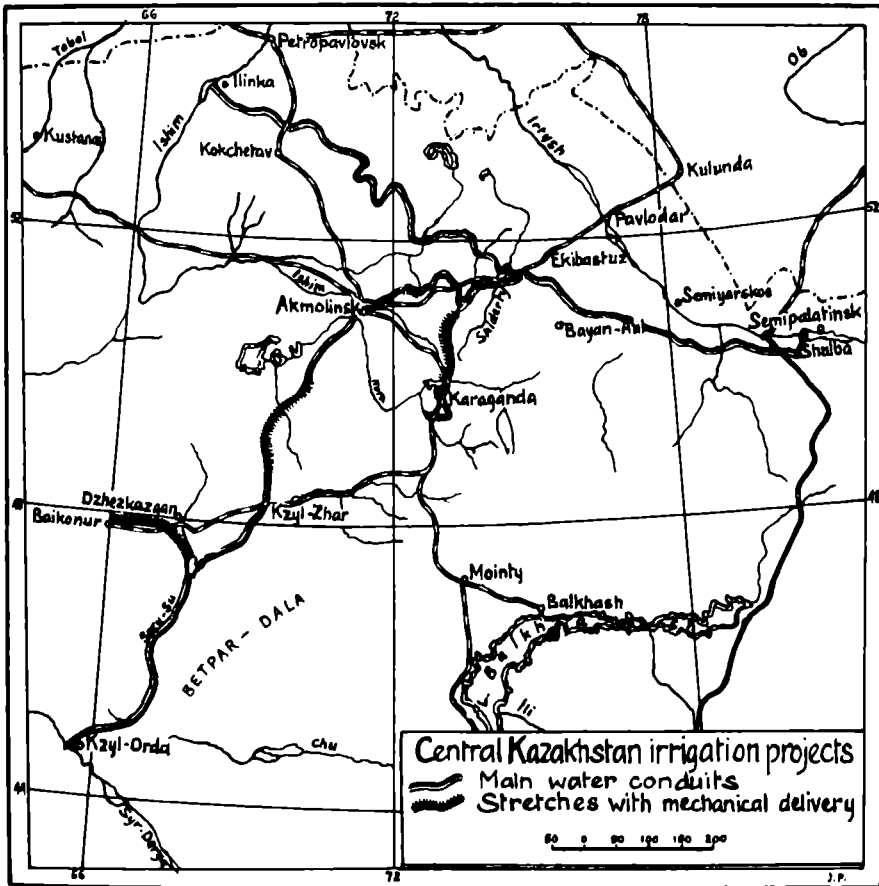
IRRIGATION SCHEME FOR
CENTRAL KAZAKHSTAN

With its enormous deposits of copper ore (Dzhezkazgan), coal (Karaganda), iron ore (Karkaralinsk and Atauskiy) and various other minerals, central Kazakhstan is of great industrial importance to the USSR. In addition to its mineral wealth, central Kazakhstan is one of the areas where considerable agricultural expansion is planned. But the development of this vast territory is greatly hampered by the acute shortage of water which is insufficient even for present needs. If, as it is hoped, central Kazakhstan is to become a large producer of grain, meat, milk and other food-stuffs, and if its mineral wealth is to be properly developed, a way must be found to irrigate this arid region.

At present the small rivers such as the Nura and Ters-Akkan, supply the main industrial areas of Dzhezkazgan and Karaganda, but even here the problem of adequate water supplies becomes more acute every year.

Research by the Institute of Fuel and Power (Institut Energetiki) of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences and other scientific organizations, has shown that the best solution to the water problem would be to use the waters of the Irtysh river. A project known as "The Scheme for the Utilization of the Irtysh River for the irrigation of Central Kazakhstan and the southern part of Northern Kazakhstan" has been worked out, and two variations of this project are being investigated at present. In the first of these, as detailed by the Central Hydro-Mining Planning Authority (Centrogiproshakht) in 1952, the waters of the Irtysh are to be canalized to join the Sary-Su river and will irrigate the Bet-Pak-Dala desert; the water supply for the industrial areas of central Kazakhstan will be ensured by means of special canals branching off the main waterway. In the second variation, which was submitted in 1954, part of the lands of north Kazakhstan also will be irrigated by reducing the volume of water to be canalized into the Sary-Su bed (see sketch map).

The Irtysh project envisages the erection of a dam on the Irtysh river at Shulba 80 km. above the town of Semipalatinsk. This would raise the level of the river waters to 57 metres. The water intake for central



and northern Kazakhstan would be obtained from the upper water of the dam at a rate of 370 cubic metres per second (11.7 billion cubic metres per annum) or about 45 per cent of the flow of the river.

The total water available for use which could be conveyed to the irrigation areas, would be 305 cubic metres per second. The rest of the water taken from the river, i.e. 65 cubic metres per second, plus the additional water intake into the projected canal from small local rivers of a further 60 cubic metres per second (125 cubic metres per second altogether) would be lost in filtration from the main canal and evaporation from the surface of the reservoirs.

Out of the 305 cubic metres per second thus remaining available, the principal part, or 246 cubic metres per second (about 81 per cent) is to be used for the irrigation of agricultural areas, and only 59 cubic metres per second, or 19 per cent, is to be allotted to the industrial areas, including the irrigation of suburban agricultural zones.

The main canal is to begin at Shulba, whence it would follow the left bank of the Irtysh river; along the rest of its alignment it would run parallel to, but 50 to 100 km. from the river, being gradually diverted towards the irrigation areas.

At its 725th kilometre in the vicinity of the Ekibastuz-Boshchekul' industrial area, the canal would flow into a reservoir to be built on the Shiderty river. At the exit to the reservoir a wide branch would flow north-west and reach the village of Il'inskiy on the Ishim river at the 1,450th kilometre from the head-water intake. This Ishim branch of the canal is to irrigate the lands situated in Kokchetav and North-Kazakhstan oblasts.

The main canal, however, will turn away from the Shiderty reservoir to the south-west towards Akmolinsk, which will involve a 128 metre water-lift. At the 800th kilometre of the main canal its second branch, the Karaganda, will begin with another mechanical water-lift of 177 metres. This branch will be 300 kilometres long. After passing Akmolinsk the main canal will reach the Kon river. Here there will be another water-lift of 107 metres, controlled by means of a "cascade" or series of pumping stations, and the canal will enter the Sary-Su river valley in the area of the Kzyl-Dzhar railway. The irrigation water is to flow along the Sary-Su river bed and further through a canal to the Syr-Dar'ya river, where, 2,150 kilometres from the head-water intake, it will join the upper-water of the Kzyl-Orda dam.

At the 1,690th kilometre of the main canal, another branch is to

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penetrate into the Dzhezkazgan industrial area. Water would be pumped here to a 115 metre level at a speed of 15 cubic metres per second.

The total capacity of all pumping stations projected in this scheme would amount to 626,000 kw., including those of 525,000 kw. capacity which are to serve for pumping water into the Akmolinsk, Dzhezkazgan, Bet-Pak-Dala and Syr-Dar'ya areas. Those which would pump water into the Karaganda area would have a total capacity of 91,000 kw. On the slopes opposite the watersheds of the main canal, a series of hydro-electric stations of 190,000 kw., or 30 per cent of the entire capacity required, is to be built.

The Irtysh scheme meets with strong criticism in an article in Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR, No.6 (1955) on the grounds that part of the area it is proposed to irrigate, i.e. the Ishim region, the Dzhezkazgan industrial area, the western part of the Bet-Pak-Dala desert and the districts bordering on the Syr-Dar'ya and Kzyl-Orda oblast, would be too remote from the water source. This is particularly so in regard to the projected pumping of 2.2 billion cubic metres of water per annum from the Irtysh river to the Bet-Pak-Dala desert, which is almost 2,000 km. from the source. The same criticism applies to the construction of the Ishim branch of the canal and the annual supply of 3.3 billion cubic metres of water to north Kazakhstan.

The Bet-Pak-Dala desert, say the authors of the above article, could be irrigated more easily by using the waters of the Ili, Chu and Syr-Dar'ya rivers, which form a natural waterway. They also consider it unnecessary to extend the main canal to the Syr-Dar'ya river as the lands bordering this river can be more easily irrigated by using the waters of the Syr-Dar'ya rather than those of the Irtysh, which would have to be pumped to an altitude of 243 metres and brought a distance of more than 2,000 km. If this volume of water were left in the Irtysh valley, better climatic conditions would result and twice the area could be irrigated there, compared with the region of the Bet-Pak-Dala desert which is to be irrigated under the proposed scheme. The Dzhezkazgan industrial region must undoubtedly have first priority. But here again, it is doubtful whether the use of the remote Irtysh would be justified.

The article points out that in the projected scheme for the utilization of the waters of the Irtysh, the Ishim branch of the canal could be used to irrigate 15m. hectares which lie within the limits of the head-water of the main canal. But owing to their level and the existence of a large number of small lakes, a considerable part of these lands is unsuited to agriculture. However, some 6m. hectares of land along the left bank and 1½m. hectares along the right bank of the Irtysh need water. When the

water reserves for navigation, for Western Siberia and for the central Kazakhstan industrial region have been taken care of, only water sufficient for the needs of 4m. hectares will remain.

The authorities are thus faced with the problem of which areas should be chosen for irrigation by the Irtysh river. The authors consider that the regions in the Pavlodar oblast on the left bank of the Irtysh up to the Shiderty river, part of the lands along the right bank of the Shiderty and the steppe lands of Korestelevskaya and Bel'agachiskiy should be irrigated first.

Finally, they point out that the proposed irrigation scheme would sharply reduce the power produced by the hydro-electric stations on the Irtysh.

In spite of these criticisms the authors consider the question of the irrigation of central Kazakhstan to be important and emphasize the urgency of this problem which should, in their opinion, be regarded as a vital task for the national economy. They believe that further research in this connection should be carried out, as the examination of every possible source of water supply and of the potential economic development of this region of Kazakhstan is necessary before a satisfactory solution can be found.

Source

Article by Sh.Ch. Chokin, N.S. Kalachev and V.A. Kiktenko in
Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR. No.6. Alma-Ata, 1955.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF UZBEKISTAN

The following is a summary of OCHERKI ISTORII KUL'TURY SOVETSKOGO UZBEKI-STANA (Outline of the History of the Culture of Soviet Uzbekistan) by T.N. Kary-Niyazov published in Moscow in the first quarter of 1955. The author - a member of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences - traces the development of Uzbek culture from the earliest times to the present day.

The book is divided into two parts of unequal length; the first, of 120 pages is devoted to the history and cultural heritage of the Uzbeks and is little more than an outline. The second part of some 450 pages, deals in considerable detail with the various branches of Uzbek culture in the post-Revolutionary period, i.e. from the formation of the republic in 1924 up to 1953. The author treats his subject in a manner which deviates only slightly from the established pattern. Although the pre-Revolutionary period is still represented as one of oppression and backwardness, the author nevertheless recognizes the quite considerable achievements of the past and asserts that annexation of Turkestan by tsarist Russia was of positive value for it brought the Uzbeks into contact with the great Russian people and thus enabled them to make great cultural headway in the post-Revolutionary period. Such a view, while it is to some extent true, excludes the possibility of spontaneous progress and assumes that only under the "gentle sun of Soviet socialism and the benevolent influence of the Party" could the notable advances of the Uzbeks in the cultural sphere have been attained. To this extent the work is partial. But although written with a rather too obvious bias and encumbered with numerous slogans and quotations from Lenin and Stalin, it none the less provides a useful work of reference on the cultural achievements in Uzbekistan in the post-Revolutionary period, which is after all, as the title implies, the principal theme of the book. It is therefore of some value to analyse the work, if only in order to draw attention to it and perhaps even suggest parallels.

The present summary deals with the first part of the book relating to the history and cultural heritage of the Uzbeks, and the growth of education and science since the Revolution. The second part, which will appear in the next edition of CAR, deals with Uzbek culture, apart from education and science, in the post-Revolutionary period up to 1953. The opinions expressed in the article are those of the author or of writers and others

whom he quotes.

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PART I

Chapter I

The Cultural Heritage of Uzbekistan

Against a brief historical commentary the author describes the famous architectural monuments - mosques and mausoleums - of Central Asia and the works of its leading writers, scholars and philosophers. Attention is almost exclusively devoted to Alfraganus, Khorezmi, Beruni, Alisher Navoi, Muhammad Farrabi and Avicenna.⁽¹⁾ While paying tribute to their achievements, the author asserts that their creative life was spent in conditions of continuous and unequal struggle against religious obscurantism and the evils of a feudal society. Handicapped by their historical and class limitations they were unable to indicate the correct solution for the social ills of the mass of the people.

(1) А. Омерхан in his review of the book published in the YEZHENEDEL'-NYI OBYOR No.75 of the Munich Institute for the Study of the History and Culture of the USSR, points out that Kary-Niyazov omits all mention of such personalities as Yusuf Balasagun, Mahmud Kashgari, Ahmed Yassavi who played a significant role in the creation of Turkestan-Turkic language and literature. He further claims that the beginning of the 11th century was a splendid period in the development of Turkestan literature, an outstanding example of which is the poem KUDATKYBILIK (Wisdom given to the happy) by Balasagun whose philosophical pronouncements are on a level with those of Avicenna. The absence of these individuals from the pages of Kary-Niyazov's book, Omerkhan explains by the fact that in the dictionary of the Turkic languages compiled by Kashgari in 1073-77 it is explicitly stated that there is no difference of vocabulary among the Uzbeks, Kirgiz and Turkmens.]

Chapter IIThe Growing Significance of the Union of Turkestan and Russia

In stressing the antiquity of the links between the peoples of Central Asia and Russia the author makes great play with the economic contacts of the two peoples and claims that trade relations between them can be traced back to the 7th century. In the 13th century these contacts were made more difficult by the Mongol invasions but by the middle of the 14th century they were again revived. In the 16th century, after the conquests in 1552 of the Kazan and in 1556 of the Astrakhan' kingdoms by Ivan IV, new and more favourable conditions were created for the establishment of closer connections between Central Asia and Russia. At a later stage the development of industry in Russia made it imperative for her to seek new markets, and this together with the desire of the representatives of the military high command to extract personal gains from the conquest of new territories, formed the expansionist policy of the tsarist government. But while ascribing the incorporation of Turkestan to the aggressive aims of the Russian government and the self-seeking of her generals, the author at the same time categorically states that the union had an "enormous progressive significance" for Uzbekistan as it put an end to inter-tribal warfare, abolished slavery in Khiva and Bukhara and kept Turkestan out of the clutches of British imperialists under whom, he contends, the peoples would undoubtedly have fared worse.

Popular education in pre-Revolutionary Turkestan was characterized by two opposing tendencies, the one reactionary, upheld by the tsarist government, the muslim clergy and the bourgeoisie and aimed at preserving the status quo - i.e. a feudal-patriarchal regime keeping the mass of the people in ignorance and subjection; and the other progressive fostered by the more enlightened section of Russian society and directed to the abolition of mediaeval survivals and the destruction of the nationalist aspirations of the bourgeoisie. The protests levelled against the activities of the native elementary schools, which were completely in the hands of the muslim clergy, are cited as instances of the struggle of these opposing tendencies; but no documentary evidence is adduced.

The condition of these schools (maktabs) was most unsatisfactory. Housed in clay hovels they admitted only the children of the propertied classes. Instruction was provided by semi-ignorant slaves of the mosque and consisted almost entirely of teaching religious texts by rote. The number of pupils in these schools was few. According to a contemporary source in the three oblasts of Syr-Dar'ya, Samarkand and Fergana there were in 1899, 4,632 maktabs with a total of 44,773 pupils, that is, less

than ten in each. In 1897 only 1.8 per cent of the native population was literate.

The medreses, or more advanced schools, were hotbeds of mediaeval reactionary ideology and imbued their pupils with an anti-scientific religious outlook and developed in them a slavish submissiveness. As in the maktab they provided religious instruction and only rarely the elements of mathematics.

For the training of translators and interpreters needed by the administration for the courts and various offices, special Russo-native schools were established where Russian was taught together with the local languages, the principles of Islam and the elements of arithmetic, history and geography. These schools, by assisting the spread of the Russian language and culture, undoubtedly played a progressive role in the education of the Uzbek people. Between 1885-1909 in the whole of the Turkestan region 90 such schools were established. Besides these there were also Russian elementary, middle and high schools similar to those in European Russia. These schools were attended chiefly by the children of the well-to-do Russian officials and settlers and a negligible number of native children. In 1896 in the boys' high school in Tashkent only 10 out of 327 pupils were natives, and in the girls' school 8 out of 377. In the Tashkent teachers' seminary established in 1879, 65 of the 415 students were natives.

The tsarist government, true to what the author describes as its policy of preserving national ignorance, sought by every means to delay the spread of education among the native population. In 1915 out of a total budget of 44,570,399 rubles only 1,084,082 or 2.4 per cent were allocated for educational purposes for the whole of the Turkestan region.

Literature in pre-Revolutionary Turkestan, like education, was marked by two tendencies; the reactionary, reflecting the ideology of the propertied classes, and the progressive, at the head of which stood the satirist Mukimi and the poet Furkat. Progressive Russian literature exercised a salutary influence: Uzbek poets began to study Russian literature in the original and this led them to a full appreciation of the greatness of Russian culture and learning, and resulted in the 1880's in Uzbek translations of Gogol', Zhukovskiy, Pushkin and Tolstoy. Poems in praise of Russia and the Russians were also written and those by Furkat are quoted in the book.

After the annexation of Turkestan by Russia book printing was started in the area. Until then literary works had been reproduced in manuscript and occasionally in lithograph. The first printing house in Central

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Asia was opened in Tashkent in 1868 and was followed two years later by a larger and better equipped works. Here the first official Russian newspaper TURKESTANSKIYE VEDOMOSTI (Turkestan News) was printed, and formed the foundation of a regular press. A weekly supplement to the paper was published in Uzbek and Kazakh using the Arabic script. In 1883 the Uzbek supplement began to appear as an independent paper, THE TURKESTAN REGION GAZETTE, with a circulation of 600 copies. In 1880 the works of native authors began to appear in Uzbek and Tadjik in lithographed form.

The number of Russian newspapers published in Turkestan gradually increased and in 1905 as a result of the revolutionary wave in Russia the management of the leading Russian papers RUSSKIY TURKESTAN and SAMARKAND, passed into the hands of Bolshevik editors who used them for propagating the slogans of their party and for unmasking tsarist policies. On account of their criticism of the administration the papers were suppressed but soon reappeared under different names. Only in 1906 after the arrest of the editors did these papers finally cease publication.

The first privately owned Uzbek newspapers appeared in the first decade of the 20th century and were edited by representatives of the wealthy and influential classes. The tone of the papers was bourgeois-nationalist and reactionary.

The opening of the Turkestan Public Library in Tashkent in 1870 marked the beginning of bibliographical work in the area. From its very inception the library enjoyed the support of Russian bibliographers who compiled the TURKESTANSKIY SBORNIK a unique and highly valuable collection in 594 volumes of works on the archaeology, ethnography and history of Central Asia and the adjoining countries of India, Afghanistan, Persia and China.

In the first decade after the annexation of Turkestan by Russia the systematic study of the area was begun by various learned societies. In 1870 the Asian Section of the Moscow Society of Natural Science and Ethnograph was established under A.P. Fedchenko, and a year later the Central Asian Society was organized for the collection, study and dissemination of information on the history, geography, statistics, mineral wealth, industry and traditions of Central Asia. Owing to lack of funds both societies were soon forced to close down.

In 1867 the first meteorological station was set up in Tashkent and shortly afterwards a whole network of similar stations was set up. With the assistance of the Pulkovski Astronomical Observatory and following the organization of the Military Topographical Office in 1869, preparatory work was started on the building of an observatory which was finally set up in

1874 in Tashkent. Its functions were the cartographic study of the area, i.e. the determination of longitudes and latitudes by astronomical observation; 870 points were determined in the area covered by the present Central Asian republics. Under the auspices of the observatory a number of scientific papers were published; among these were the work of Pomerantsev on the shape of the geoid of the Fergana Valley and P.K. Zaleskiy's work on gravimetric points.

Archaeological work was begun in 1895 by Vyatkin and led to great discoveries such as the ruins of the Ulug-Beg observatory in Samarkand. On the initiative of a local group of scholars, the Turkestan section of the Russian Geographical Society was organized in 1897 and did considerable work in the study of the climate, water resources, glaciers, flora and fauna of Central Asia.

Scientific work was also undertaken by various bodies which had to exist on meagre means and with little if any support from the government. Their work was unco-ordinated and followed no definite plan or course of study. In spite of this it is of particular value as a point of departure for the study of a number of problems associated with pre-Revolutionary Turkestan.

Among the historical studies mentioned in the book Bartold's works are praised, though with the qualification that they suffer from serious shortcomings inherent in bourgeois historiography.

By the 1880's the need for specialists in agriculture, the processing industry and trade, was such that the administration found it expedient to open agricultural, commercial and technical trade (remeslenno-tekhnicheskikh) schools. On the eve of the Revolution within the borders of present day Uzbekistan there were two agricultural schools of intermediate standard, one in Tashkent and one in Samarkand, four technical schools and two trade schools. These schools trained agricultural engineers, zootechnicians, hydraulic engineers, railway workers and others.

The tsarist government exiled to Turkestan a number of Russian revolutionaries and democrats who at the turn of the 20th century formed in the area the first social-democrat groups in which the Bolsheviks played a leading part. These circles were in constant touch with the revolutionary organizations in European Russia and Transcaucasia, and arranged an interchange of party officials and revolutionary literature. In 1905 the Tashkent group established a secret printing press.

After 1905 a bourgeois-nationalist movement appeared in Turkestan with the slogan "Reforma Islama", the so-called Dzhadidizm ideologically

connected with pan-Islamism and pan-Turkism. The Dzhadids aimed at the reform of the Muslim schools by introducing secular discipline and revised methods of teaching. But the nature of these reforms was superficial and formal.⁽²⁾ Moreover the Dzhadids had the idea of separating Turkestan from Russia and setting up a bourgeois-nationalist state under the aegis of Turkey.

The 1917 Revolution put an end to all these movements and created favourable conditions for the "brilliant solution" of the national problem and the all round development of Uzbek culture.

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PART II

Chapter I

Some Problems Encountered in the Building of Socialist Culture

The author begins by defining socialist culture and then goes on to describe its superiority to the bourgeois culture of the past and its ability to combine in itself all the achievements of socialism with the creative properties of nationalism.

(2) In his article mentioned above Omerkhan claims that the Dzhadids were not in fact opposed to the teaching of Russian in schools and that Mahmud Khodzha Bekbudi - one of the founders of Dzhadidism in Turkestan - advocated its inclusion in the syllabus as he regarded it as one of the means of developing a national culture. And that the attempt to remove the schools from the influence of the Muslim clergy and to give the people a broader understanding found support among the Uzbek intelligentsia. Among the reformers were Said Rasul Khodzha and Munavar Kary.⁷

Chapter II

Primary and Middle Schools

At the time of the October Revolution there were three types of school in Uzbekistan: 1). Confessional, i.e. the traditional maktab and medresses 2). Reformed Dzhadid maktab and 3). Russo-native schools. Besides these there were also a number of Russian schools. According to a contemporary source in 1914-15 there were 160 schools; i.e. 135 primary, 13 incomplete secondary schools (nepolnykh srednikh) and 12 middle schools.

Following the Revolution, the Russo-native and Russian schools were reorganized into Soviet schools. The same could not be done with the others. The confessional and the Dzhadid maktab in view of their ideological tendencies could not be reformed nor their staffs employed elsewhere as the teachers lacked not only a grounding in the fundamentals of soviet studies but in many cases were even unable to spell.

The establishment of Soviet schools at this stage was also considerably hindered by the shortage of suitable buildings and textbooks and by the opposition of the Muslim clergy. Roving Basmachi bands, in an effort to stop attendance, frequently attacked the schools and beat up the pupils and staff.

To meet the shortage of qualified teachers brief intensive courses in pedagogy were organized for Uzbek teachers. In 1918 in Tashkent, Fergana, Kokand and Samarkand 8 three-monthly courses were run with the object of eradicating illiteracy among the adult local population. After the proclamation of the autonomy of Turkestan several three and four year pedagogic tekhnikums were opened with wider curricula. At the same time Uzbek pedagogical literature first began to appear. In 1922 there were 42 professional-technical establishments of intermediate and advanced levels; instruction however was not of a high order. Following the overthrow in 1920 of the emirates of Khiva and Bukhara and their transformation into national republics, 30 Soviet schools were established and staffed by teachers trained at the three-monthly courses.

At the 8th Congress of the RKP (Rabochaya Kommunisticheskaya Partiya) the basic principles of a Soviet school were formulated; these provided for co-education, absolute freedom from religious influence and instruction in the native tongue.

In spite of the difficulties created by the civil war, the Basmachis and the ruin of the Turkestan economy, the building of schools and the spread of education in the area continued. In 1924 the first batch of

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students graduated from the Kokand Pedagogic Tekhnikum. The nucleus of these was formed from the pupils of the first Soviet middle school in Fergana. Many of the graduates are now leading members of the community and have distinguished themselves in various branches of learning. F. Shamsutdinov, Z. Ashurmatov and N. Aliyev are irrigation engineers, T. Zakhidov a doctor of biology and president of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences.

According to the 1911 inventory there were 476 primary schools with a total of 29,944 pupils in the whole of Turkestan. In 1920 judging by the figures given by the Peoples' Commissariat of Education of the Turkestan republic, there were 2,022 schools and 165,122 pupils. Thus while the tsarist government in half a century of its administration opened on an average 9 schools per year, the Soviet regime in its first three and most difficult years opened 674 schools per year.

In 1920 the Extraordinary Commission for the Liquidation of Illiteracy was set up in Tashkent, and shortly afterwards in the other towns and oblasts of the region. Simultaneously schools for adults were organized. In January 1921, 100 such schools were functioning in Tashkent and evening classes were also held in various establishments, enterprises and clubs.

In 1921 the Basmachi movement became more intense; teachers of the new Soviet schools were attacked, school buildings burned and parents threatened. This however, was only a temporary setback and following the suppression of the revolt the building of schools was continued. In 1924/25 there were 908 and in 1925/26, 1,353 Soviet schools of all types in Uzbekistan. In 1924/25 these schools had a total staff complement of 2,748 teachers and the budget allocations in that year amounted to 11.4m. rubles, i.e. 24 per cent of the total republican budget and 4 times as great as the allocations for 1914/15 when 1,084 rubles were spent on education.

Up to 1925 only 36 new school buildings had been put up, by 1928 this number had been raised to 271, bringing the total number of schools to 1,933 with 139,800 pupils of which 35,000 were girls. By this time the few remaining traditional native schools had lost all their influence and authority.

Simultaneously with the building of schools intensive training of teachers was undertaken and this was reflected in the improved standard of instruction. In 1932 various measures were passed approving the increased authority of teachers and raising their pay. This in turn resulted in a still greater improvement in schools, better discipline, more methodical

work and a planned and comprehensive curriculum. Various literary, musical, dramatic and sporting circles were established as part of extra-curricular activities of the pupils.

During the first five-year plan 366 school buildings were put up in Uzbekistan bringing the total number to 4,666 in 1932. In that year there were 19,314 teachers. During the second five-year plan 735 schools were built and the number of pupils grew from 567,700 in 1933/4 to 917,900 in 1937/8, of these 712,200 attended rural schools. In the course of the third five-year plan, public education was steadily extended. Attention was devoted to professional and technical training and in 1937/8 there were 105 tekhnikums in the Republic.

Great strides were also made in the education of women; thus whereas in 1927/8 girls formed only 26.1 per cent of the total urban school population, by 1940 this figure had risen to 44.1 per cent. During the same period the number went up from 11.5 to 43.1 per cent in the country districts.

Improved conditions of pay and service attracted more candidates to the pedagogic institutes and the number of teachers had again risen bringing the total to 35,700 in 1940/41. In that year the budget allocations were 712,900,000 rubles, i.e. 49.4 per cent of the republican budget.

The Second World War necessitated considerable reconstruction of the schools. Many of the school buildings were requisitioned and a number of teachers mobilized. Instruction in schools was given in three shifts and special evening classes were held for adolescents working in factories and on farms. To meet the shortage of teachers, short training courses were organized for Uzbek women and girls with 7-year education.

In the post-war years industrial expansion took priority, but the building of schools continued if at a slower rate. By 1949 there were 4,797 schools, 40,348 teachers and 1,200,000 pupils, 80 per cent of whom were Uzbek children or those of local nationalities. By 1953 these figures had gone up to 5,144 schools, 57,658 teachers and 1,260,000 pupils. The budget allocations for education amounted to 1,510,000,000 rubles.

As a direct consequence of all these measures and achievements illiteracy, the "disgraceful legacy of the past", was eradicated.

Chapter III

Higher Education

In 1918 a network of schools for the training of postal and telegraph workers and compositors was set up as well as musical and art schools.

The first higher educational institution in Turkestan, the National Turkestan University - renamed in 1923 the Central Asian University - was opened in Tashkent in April 1918. It comprised departments of economics, mathematics, history, literature and philosophy. In 1920 departments of pedagogy, agriculture, botany, zoology, chemistry and geography were added. Under their auspices numerous scientific papers were published and expeditions organized.

In the early years the instruction provided by the University left much to be desired; but with the arrival in April 1920 of 150 lecturers and professors from European Russia and the acquisition of books and laboratory equipment, conditions were considerably improved and the university became the foremost centre of scientific research in the area. By 1924 it boasted 2,278 students; three years later this number had gone up to 3,267 and the staff had been increased to 265 of whom 65 were professors, and 75 assistant professors.

To provide workers needed by the growing industries of the republic certain of the university faculties were reorganized into independent higher educational institutes, and a number of others were established. Among these were the institutes of irrigation engineering, mechanized agriculture, textile engineering and railway transport.

In 1930 pedagogical institutes were established in Samarkand, Bukhara, Namangan, Andizhan, Khorezm, Nukus and elsewhere. In 1938 the Samarkand State University was opened. By the outbreak of war there were 29 higher educational institutions in the republic with 10,869 graduates, including 2,828 engineers, 1,150 economists, 1,016 agronomists, 2,155 doctors, 345 zoo-technicians and vets, 2,458 teachers and 917 other specialists.

In 1941 a dramatic school and Engineering Institute were started in Tashkent and an Oriental Department was added to the Central Asian State University. By 1953 the Republic numbered 36 higher educational establishments with 38,260 students.

Chapter IVScience and Scientific Institutions

In the years immediately following the Revolution scientific research in Uzbekistan made significant advances. In 1919 the research institutes of health and physiotherapy, and the Institute of epidemiology and microbiology first began to function. Two years later sericultural stations were opened in Fergana and Tashkent and a meteorological institute was started in the latter. In Ak-Kavak an experimental irrigation station was opened and thereafter a whole network of such stations was set up.

In 1926 the Institute of hydraulic engineering was reorganized into the Institute for Research into Irrigation. The following year the Industrial Institute was started and the Tashkent silk station was transformed into the Central Asian Institute for Sericultural Research. In 1928 geological surveys were undertaken in Central Asia and these resulted in the discovery of oil and metal deposits in Fergana.

The Uzbek Scientific Research Institute whose tasks concerned the solution of problems relating to industry, agriculture, and cultural construction was set up in 1929. In the next two years other institutes for research into cotton cultivation, building etc. were started. To coordinate the work of all these institutes, a republican committee, Komitet Nauki, was formed in 1932. Apart from various sections and departments the committee comprised research institutes into linguistics and literature.

In 1934 a heliotechnical laboratory was established for the study of the conversion of solar radiation into thermal energy. The work of the laboratory has led to the installation of solar heaters supplying hot water for baths, showers, fruit and cocoon driers. Investigations undertaken by the chemical faculty has resulted in certain practical measures being put into operation. Work was also done in astronomical research, mathematics and the thermodynamics of liquids and solutions.

Concurrently with the scientific work various archaeological expeditions were carried out and resulted in the discovery in 1934 of the mediaeval mosque of Degarron in the Khazara locality and various excavations in Termez and Khorezm.

In January 1940 the Komitet Nauki was transformed into the Uzbek branch of the Academy of Sciences. By bringing together all the scientists, scholars and cultural workers it performed a useful task in providing technical assistance in the construction of public works etc. By 1943

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there were 25 scientific research establishments, 23 scientific experimental stations, 3 observatories and 11 museums. In the same year the Branch Academy of Sciences was transformed into the Uzbek Academy of Sciences.

Among the Uzbek scholars and scientists who have published papers and variously distinguished themselves the following are mentioned: S.Kh. Sirazhdinov, D.Kh. Karimov, Sh.M. Maksudov, N.A. Akbarkhodzhayev, F.S. Khodzhimullayev and P.Sh. Shakhaidarova. Since the war over 1,300 dissertations and theses have been published.

During the war a number of institutes and societies were evacuated from European Russia to Uzbekistan and this greatly benefited the cultural and academic life of the republic and raised the academic standing of the local institutions. In the post-war period the scientific institutes have continued to develop and widen their sphere of work. Important research has been carried out in the spheres of botany and geology.

In 1945 archaeological discoveries were made in the Toprak-Kala and in 1947 near the settlement of Aman-Kutan in the vicinity of Samarkand. In 1948 excavations were re-commenced in the Ulug-Beg observatory.

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ORIGIN OF THE KIRGIZ PEOPLE

Professor A.N. Bernshtam (born 1910) of Leningrad University is a well-known archaeologist and orientalist who has specialized in the ancient history of Central Asia and particularly of Tyan'-Shan' and Altay. He has in the past been criticized more than once for faulty historical theorization and especially for following the lead of Marr (once held in high esteem but later repudiated) in the matter of the ethnic affiliations of Central Asian peoples. During the past few years there has been a noticeable tendency to abandon the theory, not only held by Marr but at one time officially approved, that the ethnic affiliations and cultures of the various Central Asian peoples were not inter-related but quite distinct from each other. This theory is now generally condemned not only on the grounds of historical accuracy but as "parochial". Professor Bernshtam in the present article formally disassociates himself from any such notions.

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The article begins with the following criticisms of the theories propounded by N.Ya. Marr:

"The extreme autochthonism of N.Ya. Marr contributed to the development of a conception, according to which the ancestors of any people should be looked for only in the region where the ethnic group in question now lives. This erroneous assumption of N.Ya. Marr, which is supposedly directed against the limitation of nationalism, in fact contributed to the growth of wrong, bourgeois-nationalist conceptions."

"Following N.Ya. Marr," writes A. Bernshtam, "I presumed ⁽¹⁾ that a common economic base necessarily creates a common ethnic affiliation. In other words I was over simplifying and thus weakening the concrete historical process of Turkic ethnogenesis." These erroneous conceptions were reflected in a number of articles and papers, in which - under the pretext of a struggle against "cosmopolitanism", the cultural links between Kazakhs, Kirgiz and other peoples of Central Asia were denied. Certain Kirgiz and Kazakh scholars particularly protested against the conception of

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the Sogdian colonization of Semirech'ye and its role in the development of agriculture in this territory.

The theory of autochthonism played a distinctly negative role in the study of the history of Central Asian peoples. "Many of us," says A. Bernshtam, "considered the peoples of Central Asia as originating from a "genealogical tree" whose growth had been confined to the same soil on which the modern nations now live, thus in fact denying the cultural links between Central Asian peoples." Although we can identify the forbears of present day peoples living in the 1st millennium B.C., we nevertheless cannot say anything definite about their ethnic affiliations. The Sarmato-Alans of the first centuries A.D. cannot be regarded as ethnically identical with the Turkmens, nor the ancient Yenisey Kirgiz of the third century B.C. with the Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz; nor the Baktrians of the end of the 1st millennium B.C. with the Tadzhiks.

According to S.P. Tolstov's statement at the 1943 Congress on the Peoples of Central Asia, the ancient aboriginal and migrant peoples contributed in varying proportions to the formation of many if not all of the peoples of Central Asia, and in some cases even to the consolidation of peoples living outside its limits. In the formation of the Tadzhik people, Sakians, Baktrians, Sogdians and Tokhans played an important part; but it is not clear which one of these peoples spoke the ancient Tadzhik language.

Different Turkic tribes, most often of South-Siberian (Altay) Central Asian and, particularly, of Semirech'ye origin, who interbred with Kushan and Sogdian tribes of the Central Asian watershed, had already laid the foundation of the Uzbek nation at the time of West-Turkic Kaganate (6th-8th centuries). The Turkmens went through a process similar and almost identical to that of the Uzbeks: in their formation, the Oguz played a decisive role uniting groups of local Sarmato-Alan, Ephelitic (Huns) and other tribes.

It may be that the Kazakhs and Kirgiz are the most recently formed peoples, whose formation into nations was disrupted by the Mongolian invaders in spite of the existence of ancient ancestors and early manifestations of statehood, and that their formation was subsequently still further hindered by the insufficient development of agriculture, and by a number of other historical circumstances. Among the latter was the settlement of Kirgiz beyond the Yenisey basin and South Siberia and their long subordination to alien rule.

All the peoples of Central Asia, and particularly the Kazakhs and Kirgiz, were historically formed from various tribes, nationalities and

racés. Many ethnic names are encountered common to the Kirgiz on the one hand, and to the Kazakhs, Uzbeks and Turkmen on the other, as for instance: toles, dulu, kangly, kongrat, mongol, dzhalair, kytays and a number of others. They suggest a common ethnic composition in the subdivision of several ancient tribes and the participation of their component parts in various ethnic formations. Therefore, ethnographical kinship, which is apparent in many manifestations of the national culture of these peoples, such as common themes in their respective folklores, is not accidental.

The special nature of the Kirgiz ethnogenesis may be explained by the fact that their formation took place in two territories: in the basin of the Yenisey river and in the Tien Shan mountains, the Yenisey Branch being the more ancient. The process of the development of the Kirgiz tribes on the Yenisey resulted in the first appearance of a class society, the foundation of a separate state and the formation of specific cultural features, in particular the runic Kirgiz script in the so-called literary language of the Orkhon Turks.

The political and economic isolation of the Yenisey Kirgiz and the independent nature of their historical development contributes to the extension of their social economy on a broader economic basis and to the appearance of some particular features in the pattern of their domestic life. The growth of agriculture as an auxiliary branch of their economy, the building up of town-encampments and developed crafts, especially in the metal-working trades, played an important part in this evolution.

According to the Tan-Shu Chinese chronicle (7th-8th centuries), the Kirgiz were always on friendly terms with the Dashi (i.e. the Arats and Central Asian peoples), Tu-Fan' (Tibet) and Ge-Lo-Lu (the Karlyks of Semirech'ye).

The military expeditions of the Yenisey Kirgiz brought them southwards into the steppes of Mongolia and to the borders of China, and westwards to the Altay and Semirech'ye regions. A direct result of these campaigns was the inclusion in the ranks of the Kirgiz people of foreign tribal elements, primarily of the Altay tribes, and the adoption by the Kirgiz of certain features of the Chinese and Central Asian cultures, which can easily be traced in their monuments. In the Kirgiz epic MANAS the Altay territory is mentioned as the fatherland of Zhakyp, the father of Manas.

A part of the Yenisey Kirgiz reached Tyan'-Shan' in the early centuries A.D. and this penetration intensified in the 8th-10th centuries. The first appearance of the Yenisey Kirgiz can be traced to 49-47 B.C.,

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when Chzhichzhi led groups of them to the Talass Valley. During their migration to Tyan'-Shan', the Yenisey Kirgiz intermarried with various Altay and middle Asian tribes (the Usuni in ancient times, and later Western Turki, Turgesh, Karluk and - last but not least - the Sogdians). To the above must also be added the Uigur, Yagma, Kara-Kitay and a few other ethnic groups.

The political domination exercised over the Kirgiz tribes by the Tyan'-Shan' states was the second important factor among those which characterized the ethnogenesis of the Kirgiz people. To these states belonged the Western Turkic Kaganate of the 6th-8th centuries; the Karluk state (8th-10th centuries) and the Kara-Kitay state of the 12th century. These states split up the Kirgiz tribes, as a result of which alien ethnic elements took part in the formation of the ancient Kirgiz people (as well as in that of the Uzbeks, Kazakhs, etc.), and this process was not yet complete in the 13th century.

Mass migration of the Yenisey Kirgiz to Tyan'-Shan' was of paramount importance in the formation of the Kirgiz tribes into a united people. Being nomadic inhabitants of the mountain valleys, the Kirgiz bore the blow of the Mongolian invasion much more easily than the sedentary population of Central Asia. They absorbed various Turkic tribes in this region, the Iranian speaking Sogdians having been already dissolved in Karluk Semirech'ye in the 11th century. The Fergana Valley began to be turkified in the middle of the 7th century, according to Chinese written sources and epigraphical material. The ethnic homogeneity of the Tyan'-Shan' population dates from the 6th-8th centuries and it had become stabilized by the 11th-12th centuries. At this time, the "turkified" Sogdians had already been incorporated into the Kirgiz tribes of Tyan'-Shan'.

The following are, in the opinion of A. Bernshtam, the essential stages of the ethnic history of the Kirgiz of the Tyan'-Shan', which differs markedly from that of the Yenisey Kirgiz.

Two main migration periods are known; the first in the first centuries A.D., and the second in the 8th-10th centuries A.D. Possibly, a third migration wave took place under the Kara-Kitay and Mongolians, at which period the basic ethnic mass of Kirgiz in Tyan'-Shan' was being formed. The development of Kirgiz history in Tyan'-Shan' may be grouped into the following stages:

First Stage. The Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz of the Sako-Usum and Hunisti tribal unions of Tyan'-Shan' and Semirech'ye, and possibly also of the mountainous Fergana and Altay areas, appeared as nomadic warrior democratic tribes on the periphery of the Central Asian States, i.e. Fergana,

the Tashkent oasis, and to some extent of Sogd and the Middle Syr-Dar'ya. This was the role of the Kirgiz in the "hellenistic" and Kushan periods of ancient Central Asian history.

Second Stage. In the 5th-6th centuries A.D. agricultural centres began to appear in the Chu valley and Talass areas, but the connection of Kirgiz tribes with these remained that of nomads on the periphery.

Third Stage. The feudal period, during which the integration of Kirgiz tribes into the general process of evolution was taking place in the West Turkic Kaganate, in Tyurgesh and, particularly, in Karluk State (8th-10th centuries A.D.).

Fourth Stage. The process of evolution was intensified as a result of the penetration of new groups of Kirgiz tribes coming to Tyan'-Shan' from the Yenisey basin; these groups possessed a more developed social structure than the Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz. Four separate groups of Kirgiz existed at this period, namely: the Sinkiang group, the Fergana group, Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz and the Yenisey Kirgiz (South Siberia). The 9th-10th century period may be called early feudal, or the fourth stage, during which the Kirgiz people was gradually formed from different tribes.

Fifth Stage. Between the 15th and the 17th centuries the Kirgiz continued to struggle for their independence, but the power of the Mongols and Kalmyks was the main hindrance to their growth into an unified people. The isolation of the Kirgiz from the sedentary agricultural population, their economic weakness and political oppression by their overlords delayed the disruption of patriarchal and the growth of feudal relationships. As a result of this, semi-patriarchal and semi-feudal relations were stabilized.

Sixth Stage. The migration of Kirgiz tribes from Tyan'-Shan' to Sinkiang in the 16th century and from Tyan'-Shan' to Fergana in the 17th century, and the lack of unity among numerous tribal groups of Kirgiz people belonging to different states (Kokand, China, Kazakh khanates) led to further confusion, to a new disintegration of the growing ethnic unity, as well as to the disruption of the process of economic and cultural unification.

The period preceding the incorporation of the Kirgiz people into the Russian Empire (the middle of the 19th century), and particularly the 16th-18th centuries, is that of their struggle for independence under conditions of patriarchal-feudal disintegration.

Chinese sources of the 18th century indicate the lack of tribal

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unit amongst the Kirgiz. In addition to their subdivision into Western and Eastern groups, the inner division of tribes is described in these sources.

The above facts show that in the 18th century the Kirgiz still lived under "patriarcho-feudal" conditions. There is no doubt that the tribes of the Yenisey Kirgiz played the leading role in the formation of the modern Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz people. These have grown in numbers as a result not only of the migration of the Yenisey tribes and the natural growth of the Tyan'-Shan' Kirgiz population, but also of the assimilation by the latter of the nomadic and to some extent of the sedentary alien inhabitants of this region.

In Semirech'ye, Sogdian, Syrian, Arabic, Runic, Chinese, Uigur, Sanskrit and other types of writing had been known. The different origins of the artistic traditions is apparent in the remaining monuments of material culture; this is also true of the craftsmanship and especially of architecture, painting, sculpture, metalwork and earthenware.

Saks, Usuns, Huns and Sogdians have been absorbed by Kirgiz and other peoples, but the culture of these peoples cannot be called Kirgiz culture despite the fact that it does belong to the cultural inheritance of the Kirgiz people.

On the other hand the culture of the Yenisey Kirgiz elements of Tyan'-Shan' may be considered as Kirgiz culture preceding the formation of the Kirgiz nation.

Note

- (1) Ancient Turkic elements in the Ethnogenesis of Central Asia by A. Bernshtam, Sovetskaya Etnografiya, VI-VII, M-L, 1947.

Source

Sovetskaya Etnografiya, 1955, No.2.

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TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN KIRGIZIA

Introduction - Practical training for students - Technical study groups - Technical films - Factory workers as school lecturers - Work of the Pedagogical Scientific Research Institute - Teacher training - Future development of polytechnic education.

The present article has been compiled from two articles on the subject which appeared in SOVETSKAYA PEDAGOGIKA, Nos. 7 and 8 of 1955.

The Soviet Government lays great stress on the importance of technical education in secondary schools throughout the Union, and in particular in Central Asia where such education has lagged behind the standard achieved in European Russia. The reason behind the new drive is the growing demand in a rapidly expanding industry for skilled workers, and the acute shortage of these especially in the remoter regions of the Soviet Union. This need is reflected in recent efforts to direct the thousands of young people who have just completed secondary school, not towards higher education in institutes and universities, but to the factories where they are expected to fill the gaps in the ranks of the skilled workers.

The problem of polytechnical education in the schools of Kirgizia is examined at length in an article in SOVETSKAYA PEDAGOGIKA (No. 8, 1955). According to this article a decision was taken at the XIXth Congress of the all-Union Communist Party whereby technical education was to be introduced in secondary schools in the USSR. As a result of this more than 800 teachers of mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, etc., have attended special courses at the institutes for the improvement of teachers in the oblast centres of Kirgizia.

In addition to the theoretical side of polytechnic education, which is fully discussed on these courses and at teachers' conferences, the curriculum of the training courses includes the practical training of teachers in the essential principles of production. This is achieved by visits to factories, hydroelectric power-stations, sovkhozes etc., where the teachers can see for themselves what is required and the problems

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involved.

At many Kirgiz schools practical technical training already forms part of the education. Many thousands of school-children take part in agricultural work and particularly in harvesting. At some schools pupils specialize in cattle-breeding and care of young animals; at the No.2 Stalin secondary school at Frunze, 5,000 young trees, lm. poplar saplings, and hothouse vegetables were grown in 1954. During the summer of 1954, 80 students from this school worked on kolkhozes as tractor and combine-harvester drivers, stock hands, and in various other capacities. Secondary school-children also help in the building of barns and huts on grazing lands, in maize growing, hay harvesting and various other farm activities. In 1954, 2,650 hectares of maize were cultivated in Kirgizia by school-children.

The main purpose of technical education is, however, to train secondary school-children for industry. As part of their practical training pupils of the No.1 and No.14 secondary schools at Frunze help in "simple operations" at the Frunze Metallurgical Works. At the former school two or three pupils at a time are attached to a skilled worker, and once a week, after school hours, they work with him under the guidance of a foreman. Visits to factories, power-stations and coal-mines are another efficient medium of technical education. In Frunze oblast alone, over 17,000 students visited such undertakings in 1954/55. The practical experience is completed by discussions on the visit between pupils and teachers, and written exercises on what has been learned. These activities are only the first steps in combining school tuition with practical industrial work; the experience that has been obtained so far is now being studied and is likely to be applied to other schools in Kirgizia.

Many secondary schools stimulate interest in technical and scientific education by forming "circles" or groups to study specific subjects. Thus at the No.2 Stalin school (Stalin district of Frunze) the following technical groups have been formed amongst the pupils:

Cabinet-makers	(25 pupils from the V-Xth forms)
Cinema-operators	(10 pupils from the VIII and Xth forms)
Driver-mechanics	(25 pupils from the IX-Xth forms)
Tractor driver-mechanics	(26 pupils from the VII-VIIIth forms)
Michurin garden botanists	(30 pupils from the IXth form)
Michurin agriculturalists	(30 pupils from the Vth form)
Michurin kitchen-gardeners	(30 pupils from the VIth form)
Photographers	(235 pupils from various forms)
Telegraph and W.T. operators	(20 pupils from the VII-VIIIth forms)

All the groups follow definite programmes which are worked out to fit in with the theoretical side of the school curriculum. The 1955 spring examinations showed that the technical groups had helped to widen the children's horizon and the pupils had properly assimilated the connection between practice and theory. At the No.6 Kalinin school, Frunze, there is a group studying the uses of agricultural machinery and during the 1955 summer holidays students from this group were allowed to drive tractors and other agricultural machinery. In the secondary schools of Przheval'sk, technical groups have been organized with the assistance of the agricultural tekhnikum; about 100 pupils from various schools in the town work in a group for cinema mechanics. These activities will encourage young people to join industry on the completion of their secondary school education, instead of going on to a university.

Scientific groups are the most popular of the extra-academic activities. In 1954 in the Issyk-Kul oblast alone there were 65 mathematical groups with 971 students, 72 physics groups with 2,450 members, and 88 young Michurinists (botanists) with 2,100 members. There are also groups for "regional studies", in which the children learn about the natural resources, minerals, climate, soil and the economy of their own regions; they also study the flora and fauna, waterways and mountains of their province. Exploratory work is organized in which the students take part; as a result of these explorations stock is now being raised on the slopes of the Tien Shan mountains, new medicinal plants have been discovered, the structure of various geological strata has been studied and the sources of several rivers and the formation of mountain lakes have been traced.

Annual reports on the activities of the various technical study groups are read at school meetings; at No.6 Kalinin secondary school students exhibited 126 examples of their best work at the 1955 school exhibition, 15 of which were awarded prizes.

The school cinema has proved to be of great help to lecturers. Popular films on such matters as kolkhoz gardens, how to obtain healthy milk, early vegetables and forest planters at work, are shown to illustrate talks on agriculture and forestry. Other films that have been shown recently in Kirgiz schools include RADIO WAVES, M. GORKI, and KRONSTADT IS 250 YEARS OLD. The Ministry of Culture of Kirgizia is responsible for ensuring a regular supply of popular scientific and technical films to all Kirgiz schools.

A further method of interesting children in industry, and one that is followed by several secondary schools, is that of getting prominent workers to visit the school and talk to the pupils about their work.

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The Kirgiz Pedagogical Scientific Research Institute is playing an increasingly important role in education. The Institute is at present studying the experimental work in pedagogy and methodology of Russian and "national" (presumably Kirgiz) schools in Kirgizia. In 1954 the Institute began to organize sessions of its Board at various schools. At these conferences numerous reports are submitted to the school-teachers and directors of secondary schools and the teachers take part in the readings. These papers cover a wide range of subjects and more than 500 have been read at conferences during the past few years. The transition now taking place from the seven-year to the ten-year educational system occupies an important place in the debates.

Teachers show a great interest in the activities of the Pedagogical Institute; many of them continue their post-graduate studies and prepare theses under the guidance of the Institute. In order to popularize its work with the public, Institute members deliver lectures and make reports to the population and school directors. It has published 14 text-books in Russian and Kirgiz, articles on the teaching of languages and literature, physics and mathematics, as well as the best of the reports read at the school conferences. Articles on the work of the Institute over the last three years have appeared in the Kirgiz journals MULGALIMDARGE ZHARDAN and MURGALIMDER GAZETASY.

The Institute keeps in close touch with teachers in the Russian and Kirgiz schools and assists in the improvement of curricula and text-books. A practical conference on their experiences in teaching the Russian and Kirgiz languages was recently held by some 300 teachers. The teaching of Russian in Kirgiz schools in the Tyan'-Shan', Dzhahalal-Abad and Issyk-Kul oblasts has recently been examined and comments were published in the local press. Russian tuition still remains unsatisfactory and the number of hours devoted to it should be considerably increased. The Institute believes that Kirgiz school-children should continuously hear spoken Russian and use it in both writing and conversation; this proposal is now under consideration by the Kirgiz Ministry of Education.

In March 1955 in the Panfilov rayon of Frunze a conference of parents was held to discuss the problems of technical education and how best to assist the schools. Lack of equipment was one of the difficulties discussed: in some schools pupils help to overcome this themselves by making their own apparatus such as telescopes, compasses and dynamometers. At a republican exhibition of junior technical skills in Frunze in November 1954, a number of articles made by the students were shown; 27 of these exhibits were chosen to be sent to the all-Union exhibition of youthful creative work.

In an effort to develop technical education in Kirgiz schools the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kirgizia, after discussing "working conditions and polytechnic education in the schools of the republic", decided that directors of industrial undertakings, MTS, kolkhozes, sovkhoses and other organizations, were to be invited to give every possible assistance to schools in their efforts to consolidate polytechnic education. This is to be achieved by encouraging visits to their factories, farms etc., by sending engineers and skilled workers to lecture at schools, by organizing talks on industrial and agricultural production, in helping schools to equip their work rooms and by lending technicians to help manage the technical groups. The Society for the Diffusion of Political and Scientific Knowledge was instructed to organize a series of lectures for teachers on the problems of polytechnic education at secondary schools. Other measure being taken to encourage technical education include a republican conference of teachers which was planned to take place at the end of 1955, and a treatise to be published by the Pedagogical Scientific Research Institute on scientific methods and the experience learned from polytechnic education so far. Although technical education in the schools of Kirgizia is only in its infancy at present, the hope is expressed that a united effort on the lines outlined above by all the authorities concerned should achieve the rapid expansion and improvement which are the aims of the Soviet Government.

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CENTRAL ASIAN TOWN PLANNING IN THE
MIDDLE AGES

THE CITY-BUILDING CIVILIZATION OF CENTRAL ASIA (from ancient times to the second half of the 19th century) (GRADOSTROITEL'NAYA KUL'TURA SREDNEY/AZII) by V.A. Lavrov, of which the following is a summary, appeared in 1950 (Moscow, State Publishing House of Architecture and Town-Planning). The book treats of town-planning in Central Asia in primitive times (from the 6th century B.C.), in the ancient period (from the 4th-3rd centuries B.C.), in the early middle ages, the pre-Mongol period and in the Timurid and Shaibanid periods.

The existence of cities in Central Asia by the second half of the first millennium B.C. is confirmed by ancient writers of history. The population then lived mostly in agricultural communities, using artificial irrigation; the irrigated areas were thickly populated, while nomads herded their cattle in the surrounding deserts and steppe. A section of the population worked as craftsmen in settlements on the frontier between the settled area and the nomadic steppe.

The Zarafshan valley was one of the most fertile and densely populated parts of Central Asia and its chief town, Marakanda, near the present Samarkand, was a centre of population by the fifth century B.C. Excavations on the site of Gyaur-Kala, the ancient Merv, show the existence of a town here even in the first half of the first millennium B.C.

The primary forms of the Central Asian settlement were two: "wall-dwelling" towns and towns with overall building. The most ancient examples of the first type are found in the sixth-fourth centuries B.C., and, as it has been possible to establish from remains in the Khorezm, such towns were enclosed areas surrounded on four sides by a defensive wall, which formed the rear wall of the houses built along it. The inner space was not built upon, but provided a corral for the community's cattle. The second type of settlement was for the most part that of patriarchal and family communities engaged in agriculture, and was common to all parts of Central Asia. There are no remains to illustrate this type, but an ethnographic parallel may be adduced in the communal dwellings of the Yagnobts in the mountains of Tadzhikistan. These - still in existence - are

single structures with contiguous living and stabling quarters. They were inhabited by a single clan, and when the clan dissolved were split into blocks occupied by groups of kinsmen. Each group of buildings was surrounded by a wall of beaten clay, except in the case of flood-land settlements with a natural defence in the surrounding marshes.

In time such concentrations of population developed trade and crafts and established communications with other areas; for defence they erected walls with towers or citadels. Thus town-type settlements were formed. Such towns, the residence of a temporal or spiritual ruler, possessed large agricultural oases, or rustaks, defended from the nomadic steppe by a long wall.

In the next period, with the development of the ancient social structure in Central Asia, trade links were created with Middle Asia, India and China. New inhabited points appeared on the transport routes - city life was developed, crafts were practised and military defence was increased. Only a general notion of the planning of these cities can be established, as most of them have been destroyed completely. Some idea may be gained from the plan of Toprak-Kala, an ancient city in the Khorezm. The city was at that period a rectangle with the powerful castle-citadel of the ruler in the north corner. The citadel was walled; against these walls were built vaulted living quarters and a large Temple of Fire. The rest of the city consisted of the citizens' dwellings, arranged in streets leading from the city gates to the gates of the Temple of Fire.

In the 3rd and 4th century A.D. the powerful Kushan kingdom was in decline, and in the 5th and 6th under the attacks of the nomads, it fell into separate parts each with its own ruler. They bore different titles - in the Khorezm and Termez "shah", in Bukhara "khudat" and in Fergana "afshin". The urban civilization of Central Asia also went into a decline, the area of the cities and the populations decreased. Land- and slave-owning rulers came to power and the centre of social life moved from the city to the country. In place of fortified cities there appeared the rulers' fortified castles (kesh) and the integrated rural settlements fell into separate and isolated ked, inhabited by the head of a house and his family and kinsmen. These farms were surrounded by walls, within which were the living quarters (kesh-donzhon) and the quarters for the live-stock. Near some of the walled citadels lying on caravan routes, were formed settlements of traders and craftsmen also surrounded by walls. Such a settlement was the kernel of the Central Asian city and was called a shahristan; near its walls a market was held. Before the Arab conquest (7th-8th centuries) there were many shahristans in Central Asia, among them Samarkand, Bukhara, Merv, and Termez. These cities were usually the centre of an agricultural area or rustak, sometimes surrounded by a wall

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(the "long" wall); early mediaeval Samarkand, for example, had an area of 400 hectares and its walls were 11 kilometres long.

In the 7th century the conquest of Central Asia by the Arabs coincided with the change-over from the old slave-owning to the new feudal society. Some areas in the Khorezm and the Bukhara oasis were abandoned by their inhabitants and reverted to desert; the fortified farms were destroyed. Simultaneously the town of Bukhara increased in importance and became the centre of the oasis and the capital of Maverannahr (Transoxania). The importance of Samarkand also increased. At the end of the 10th century the Samanid state ceased to exist under the attack of the Ilk-Khans, and the establishment of feudalism was marked by the partition of Central Asia. The Arabs had introduced Islam into Central Asia; it found most success in the towns, where the great traders and land-owners congregated. The number of settlements decreased, but the towns on the trade routes grew; near the shahristans whole suburbs (rabads) of traders and craftsmen were formed, and the shahristan either entirely died out, as in Samarkand and Merv, or merged with the rabad, as in Bukhara. The rabad was surrounded with walls and contained the best building. The general growth of the city either proceeded near the old shahristan and citadel, as in Bukhara, or the city was transferred to a site with a better water-supply or more suitable for trade, as at Samarkand and Merv. The rabad was the most active part of the city; its distinguishing mark was the bazaar, at the junction of the streets radiating to the city gates, of which there were six in Samarkand and Termez, eleven in Bukhara and thirteen in Tashkent.

In the 8th-11th centuries Bukhara acquired bazaars, mosques, public buildings and wide streets paved with cobbles; it was strongly fortified with three lines of wall and a citadel. The centre of the city's architecture was the chief mosque, later rebuilt and in 1123 moved by Muhammad Arslan Khan to the shahristan, where it has remained. Most of the buildings were of adobe brick, fired brick being used only for large buildings. Many palaces and divans were erected in pre-Muslim Bukhara in the Registan square at the gates of the fortress.

Samarkand, before the Mongol period, lay on the hill of Afrasiab to the north of the present city. The city was about 200 hectares in area and was divided by four rows of walls with towers. The foundations of these walls were 10-12 metres deep; their height was 10-12 metres on the inner side and 40 metres on the outer, from the bottom of the moat. Pre-Timurid Samarkand was amply supplied with water by a large lead pipe (dzhu-i-arzis). This pipe passed along a high embankment and was supported by stone pillars within the city. The town was surrounded by gardens; there are no traces of the streets, but there was a congregational mosque,

town baths and some public buildings of stone. The presence of nomads in the vicinity made necessary the building of fortresses (ribats) on the boundaries of the oasis and of fortified caravanserais and small forts at the approaches to the city. The ribats formed a rectangle surrounded by walls with buildings on the inner side.

At the beginning of the 13th century the Mongol invasion destroyed cities which offered any resistance; but the Mongol aristocracy gradually abandoned nomadism and settled in the towns, mingling with the local feudal upper class. In the middle of the 14th century the separate feudal states gave place to the strong state of Timur. By his conquests and plundering he enriched the areas which were the source of his power - Maverannahr with its capital Samarkand and his birth-place Shakhriyabz, both settled agricultural areas with ample water. The overcrowding in the old Samarkand made Timur transfer the city to a new site nearer to the junction of the trade routes from Bukhara to Fergana and Shakhriyabz. To build and decorate the new Samarkand Timur sent workers and craftsmen from the conquered areas; in this way he resettled the inhabitants of the ruined Urgench, and in 1395 the craftsmen of the capital of the dismembered Golden Horde, Sarai-Berke. Such enforced resettlements were made from Khorezm, the Golden Horde, Khorasan, Azerbaidzhan, Armenia, Fars, Kerman and Mesopotamia.

In the citadel, set on a hill near the west boundary, were the Kok-Sarai, the now-vanished palace of Timur, the mint, the hostel of Muraddin-Basir, the tomb of Sheikh Burkhaddin-Sagardzhi and weapon-shops. The centre of the city was the Registan at the intersection of the main streets coming from the six gates. There were two other architectural foci; one near the Akhanin gate with the congregational mosque of Bibi-Khanum, and the other around the tomb of Gur-Emir with the group of Muhammad-sultan's khanaka and medrese. The Registan was reconstructed in the 1420s and again in the 17th century. After Timur's death his son Shahrukh transferred his palace to Herat, but Ulug-bek again restored Samarkand as the capital. The Timurid state ended at the end of the 15th century, and power passed to the Uzbek Sheibanid dynasty, which continued to rule Central Asia as one state with its capital at Bukhara.

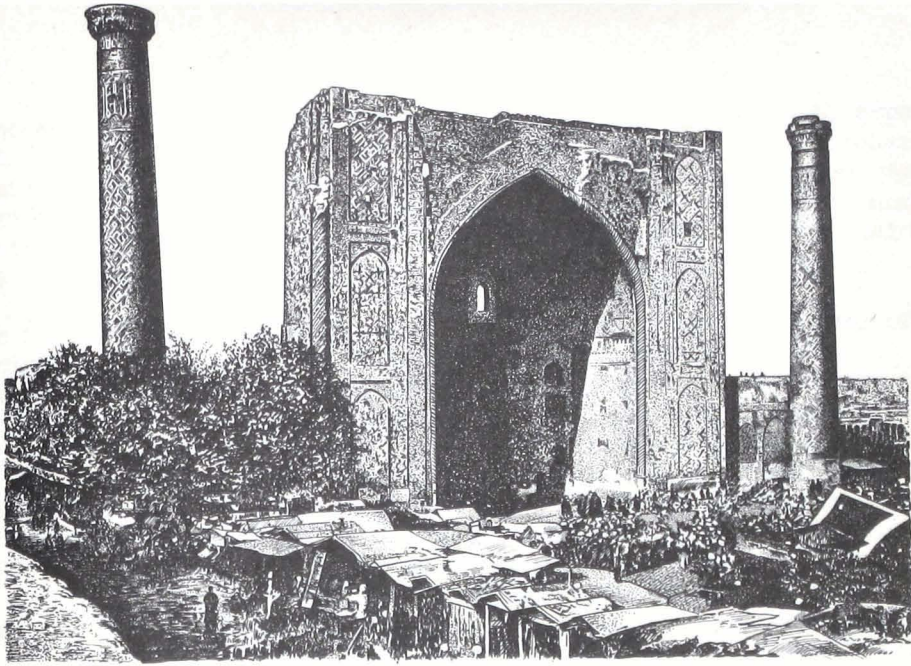
Bukhara had been a small city under the Timurids. Its reconstruction by Abdul-Aziz-Khan (1540-1549) gave the city the plan it has preserved in essentials to the present day. The bazaar of Bukhara crossed the city in a long broken line from east to west, with domes at the cross-roads. Along the streets there were caravanserais and covered warehouses; the rest of the space was covered with small workshops grouped by trade. As the centre of Muslim learning Bukhara had more than 150 medreses built in the Sheibanid era. There were ten

congregational mosques and more than 200 ward mosques; Bukhara was divided into 200 wards (guzar) of 30-60 houses, each with its mosque, school and hauz or water-cistern. Each ward was on one of the main streets, from which side-streets (past-kucha) and cul-de-sacs (dalon) ran off. The houses had no gardens and in Bukhara the usual Central Asian density of building was aggravated by the large areas occupied by medreses and cemeteries.

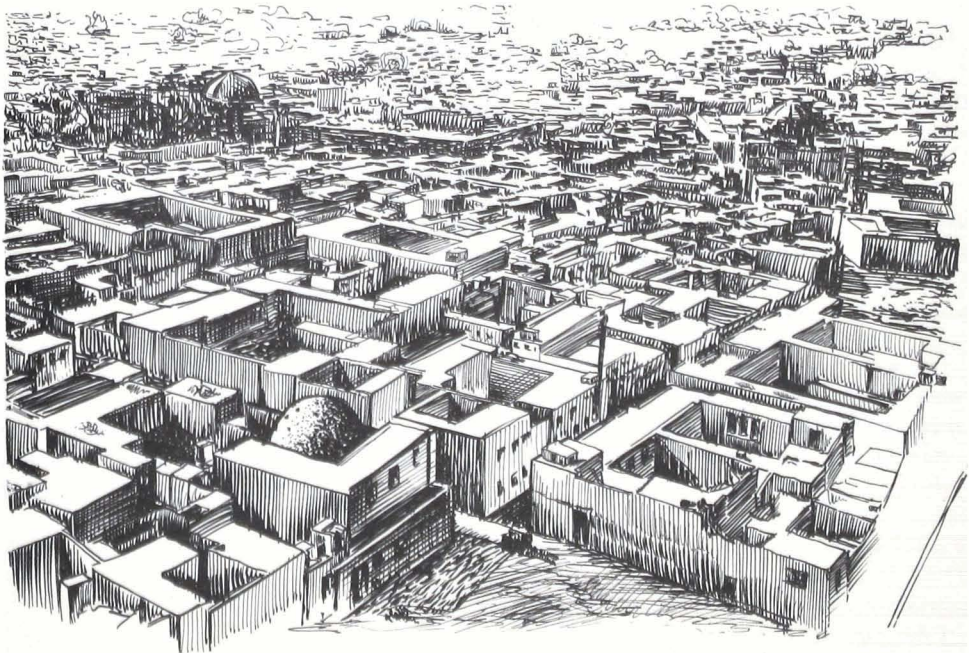
Many Central Asian cities, ruined by the Mongol invasion, were refounded at this time. Termez was moved from its old site to the bank of the Surkhan-Darya. The characteristic post-Mongol town-plan shows streets radiating from the central bazaar to the settlements surrounding the town; Tashkent and Andizhan are typical examples. Tashkent under the Sheibanids grew to be a great centre of trade, with a large bazaar and 13 gates; Merv, on the contrary, became a small town, now known as the fortress of Abdulla-Khan. On the outskirts of the Central Asian cities were the large gardens of the feudal rulers and the great ministers. These gardens were made of avenues and canals intersecting at right angles, with a palace or pavilion at the centre. There were many such gardens around Samarkand in the time of Timur, the largest of them being Davlet-abad, between Samarkand and Shakhrisyabz. This was surrounded by a wall and towers, and contained Timur's palace with its kiptar-khana, or hall of audience.

Craftsmen were grouped together by trades, each trade having a separate quarter which formed the basis of the town wards (guzar or mahalle). Each mahalle was a separate administrative unit under a "commander of fifty" or illik-bashi. At night the boundary streets were barred by chains or the gates of inner walls around the mahalle were closed.

There are two types of Timurid or Sheibanid public building; the mosque or khanaka, a central domed structure with rooms (hujra) in two storeys, and the open rectangular court surrounded by living quarters. An example of the first type is the 17th-18th century Bukhara khanaka, and of the second the Ulug-Bek medrese in Bukhara, built in 1417 and the oldest in Central Asia. This second type is also the usual plan of palaces such as the great palace of Timur in Shakhrisyabz. In caravanserais and medreses the living quarters had less importance. There were several types of dwelling houses in this period; in the Khorezm the plan was a room with large veranda and service quarters placed round a yard. There was sometimes a separate women's court, and the verandas (aivans) were sometimes replaced by a covered court, especially in the houses of the rich, where the men's quarters and the mehman-khana or guest room were on the first floor.



The Ulug-Bek medrese in the Registan, Samarkand.



Bukhara : a general view of the residential quarter.

Reproduced from *Gradostroitel'naya Kul'tura Sredney Azii.*

Bukhara houses had no verandas, and consisted of two storeys with separate courtyards for men, women and stock. The Fergana farm included orchards and gardens within the limits of the building, and had separate courtyards as independent units; the Tashkent houses were similar. Samarkand houses had a central building with a veranda, and the customary three divisions; the men's quarters and mehman-khana were on the first floor.

From the buildings preserved, it is possible to establish some of the principles of town planning in Central Asia in the 14th-18th centuries. There were various adaptations in the use of a group of public religious or commercial institutions, all based on the principle of giving one of the buildings more importance than the others. For example, the Tilya-Kari in the Samarkand Registan unites in a group the chief medrese and the congregational mosque. The Khiva groupings have the same motifs and dimensions repeated in each of the members of the group. Another variant is the pair of independent buildings set one against the other. The numerous guzar mosques were usually surrounded by cemeteries and hujras for pilgrims and clergy. In the environs of the cities there were large necropolises - groupings of domed tombs, hujra and khanaka, the most famous of which was that of Shah-Zind near Samarkand. It took a hundred years to build in the 14th and 15th centuries, and possessed a cemetery used by the aristocracy and the family of Timur. At Bukhara there was the Chor-Bakr (16th-17th centuries), whose centre was the mosque and khanaka of Abdullakhan, which were joined by a gateway and hujra. Street-planning was given special attention, especially under Timur and in Bukhara under the Sheibanids. The streets ran in straight lines broken up at intervals by domes over the intersections. All the streets were covered and domed cross-roads separated the different trades. In the 16th-18th centuries Central Asia lost its international importance. The world trade routes passed no longer through, but round it; the irrigation system, destroyed in the Mongol invasion, was never fully restored. The general social stagnation is reflected in the town-planning of the time, which was restricted by lack of resources and preserved the traditional forms without making any innovations. The exterior effect of buildings was maintained at the cost of the constructional materials and by the use of cheap and effective, but not durable tiles as facing materials. In the 60s-80s of the last century the inclusion of the Central Asian khanates in the Russian State brought the planning of new town settlements with a more progressive culture, side by side with the old; these are distinguished by the breadth of their streets, by their parks and public gardens.

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THE RE-EXAMINATION OF THE
SOVIET ASIAN EPICS, 1948 - 1955

Oral literature in the form of epics and songs handed down by word of mouth is an important part, and in some instances constitutes the whole, of the literary heritage of the indigenous peoples of Soviet Asia. After the Revolution much of this oral literature was committed to writing for the first time. Whether or not the early transcriptions were faithful it is now impossible to say. In any event, they came in the course of time under the fire of official criticism, the object of which appears to have been to purge them of any politically unsuitable passages, such passages being usually attributed to falsification, interpolation or faulty editing.

Although the general attack on the national epics did not begin until 1951, it was foreshadowed as early as 1948 when, following the publication of THE EPIC OF THE MONGOL PEOPLES by S.A. Kozin of the USSR Academy of Sciences, the Buryat-Mongol ASSR Writers' Union condemned the epic GESER as "reactionary and feudal". The Mongol scholar, Ts. Damdinsuren, opposed the decision and the USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of Oriental Studies placed the matter under discussion, a discussion not concluded until February 1953. In 1948 there also appeared a book by V.M. Zhirmunskiy and Kh.T. Zarifov on THE UZBEK NATIONAL HEROIC EPIC. This book was strongly condemned in a discussion and review published in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA (No.2, 1949). It was asserted that the authors were mistaken in following the methods of the Russian "bourgeois" scholar A.N. Veselovskiy, and in particular in using among others, his comparative method of study of the epics; they had adduced Homer as a parallel, whom Marx had pronounced to be peculiar to one epoch and one stage of social development.

As the leading article in LITERATURNAYA GAZETA of 1st July 1952 remarks, the official beginning of the campaign was marked by the condemnation of the Tatar-Bashkir epic YEDIGEY and by a PRAVDA article entitled "Towards a Marxist-Leninist treatment of the problems of the history of Kazakhstan". It seems at first that the PRAVDA article (26th December 1950) has little bearing on the question of the epic; it argues that the Kazakh national hero Kenesary Kasymov was, in so far as he opposed the accession of Kazakhstan to Russia, not a "progressive" leader at all; but the combination of this article and the condemnation of the Bashkir epic in the

LITERATURNAYA GAZETA explains the reference. YEDIGEY is about the famous leader of the Golden Horde who attacked Muscovy and the condemnation of the epic extolling him was prompted by the same motives that lay behind the re-writing of Kazakh history.

There were other motives. Scholars untouched by the condemnation of Veselovskiy's "comparative" method in 1948 were affected by the condemnation of Marr in Stalin's MARXISM AND PROBLEMS OF PHILOLOGY. Much new work had been done since the war in the collection and publication of national epics, notably Klimovich's A CHRESTOMATHY OF THE LITERATURE OF THE PEOPLES OF THE USSR, and it was inevitable that the re-examination should be far-reaching; work not affected by one count came under suspicion on another.

It is not here intended to examine in detail the campaigns against epics other than those of Central Asia; but it is necessary to give some information about events in other republics, since the epics under discussion are nearly all interrelated. Thus, the condemnation of the Azerbaydzhani epic DEDE-KORKUT, first by the republican Writers' Union and then by the XVIIIth congress of the republican Communist Party in 1951, was followed by the condemnation of the Turkmen KORKUT-ATA in the same year. The Turkmen epic is in fact merely another version of the same story. Its condemnation followed the model set by Azerbaydzhan; it was attacked first by KURBANSAKHATOV, the president of the Turkmen Writers' Union, then by the republican Party Central Committee, and finally in an article by Shikhmuradov in LITERATURNAYA GAZETA (27th October 1951). The grounds for the condemnation were that the epic was not properly speaking a "popular" creation because it was a "so-called version"; it contained Muslim ideas; it propagated bourgeois nationalism and pan-Turkism and falsified reality.

The next epics to be condemned were those of the peoples of the Caucasus, and in particular the Dagestani SONGS OF THE RAIDS, first attacked in a review of an edition of them in DAGESTANSKAYA PRAVDA in January 1952, and later condemned more strongly in LITERATURNAYA GAZETA of the 14th July 1952 on the grounds of their subject - the raids of Dagestani bands on Georgia.

The Uzbek epic ALPAMYSH had already been discussed in 1948 at the inquest on Zhirmunskiy and Zarifov's book. In their book they had, so Professor S.P. Tolstov said, thought only of the Turkic element in Uzbek epic poetry, and neglected the ancient Sogdian elements. The Uzbek epics were peculiarly national, and not the result of Persian and other borrowings. ALPAMYSH could not fairly be called a national Uzbek epic - it was confined in popularity to those Uzbeks who preserved the tribal system

until very recently. The review of the book pointed out that the authors considered various stages of the story of the epic to be variations on the same theme, although of different date - 11th and 16th century. This was found to be impossible; the elements composed at various dates must reflect the changed conditions of the times. The GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA (1950) solves the ideological problem set here by dating the whole cycle within the 16th-17th centuries; but it admits that the epic exists in Kazakh and Karakalpak versions. It was on the grounds of subject that the epic was in the end condemned; it is about the struggle of the settled Muslim Uzbeks against the infidel and nomadic Kalmyks. This condemnation was expressed by LITERATURNAYA GAZETA in February 1952, and was the cause of various sessions and re-examinations conducted by learned bodies in Uzbekistan. At about the same time there took place a three-day discussion on epics in circulation in Kazakhstan organized by the Kazakh Writers' Union, the results of which are uncertain; but in the ENCYCLOPAEDIA (1953) the different versions of KOBLANDY, YER-TARGYN and YEDIGEY are condemned because in them "khans and feudal bays who destroyed other nations" are extolled.

There does not seem to have been any great opposition to any of these measures; but the next attempted, the condemnation of the Kirgiz epic MANAS, was less successful. The process has already been described in some detail in L'AFRIQUE ET L'ASIE, No.20-23, 1952-3, and was marked by a controversy of a kind hitherto unknown between the two organs of the Central Committee of the Kirgiz Communist Party, SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA and KYZYL KIRGIZSTAN, the one attacking the epic for its subject matter (the resistance of the Kirgiz to the Chinese invaders) and the other defending it as being a truly popular composition. In the last resort a conference of 400 delegates from Moscow, Leningrad, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan, as well as from Kirgizia itself, had to be convened in Frunze in June 1952. Here a new theory of the development of epic form was worked out, to apply not only to MANAS, but to all epics. The new line was expounded thus in a leading article by LITERATURNAYA GAZETA (1st July 1952):

"Epics, basically of a popular character are not infrequently handed down to us spoiled by alien stratification. In the hands of feudal nobles these epics were in part subject to "editing" which corrupted the sense of the work, and even the fabric of the poetry itself. Such, for example, was the Nart epic (condemned with the SONGS OF THE RAIDS) which was until very recently uncritically popularized with all its corruptions. The Kazakh epic KOBLANDYBATYR, of whose popular foundation we may judge by certain little-known versions, was published in Marabel's version which is strongly corrupted by Islamic ideas of fighting for the faith and destroying the "infidels". The Kirgiz epic MANAS has also been subject to considerable corruption. An excerpt from MANAS - THE GREAT CAMPAIGN -

which has been widely read in Kirgiz and in Russian, is saturated with pan-Islamist and military-adventurist ideas alien to the Kirgiz people. Even such a clearly popularly based epic as KER-OGGLY, (GUR-OGGLY, GOROGGLY) found in Azerbaydzhan, Tadzhikistan, Turkmenia and Uzbekistan, is in many versions spoilt by late feudal-bay and religious deposits."

This is the line, developed by Chicherov in the article quoted in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK SSSR (No.12, 1952), which has since been followed. The Uzbek discussion of ALPAMYSH was now concentrated on the version written down in 1927 from the words of a noted Uzbek bard, Fazil Yuldashogly, a version highly praised in the ENCYCLOPAEDIA. But relatively little work has appeared on the epics since LITERATURNAYA GAZETA settled the line in July 1952. Chicherov in his article is mainly concerned with exposing the various theories - identified as those of Miller, Veselovskiy and Marr - which, he insists, should not be followed in interpreting and publishing epics. Chicherov had been concerned in the first discussions of THE UZBEK NATIONAL HEROIC EPIC in 1948. His summary is taken as authoritative in the latest work to appear on the question.

In condemning the comparative method, Smirnov had mentioned KER-OGGLY as an example of its application. He had there pointed out that Zhirmunskiy and Zarifov were mistaken in treating the various works with that title as different versions of the same theme. It is clear, however, from the LITERATURNAYA GAZETA editorial that this line was to be dropped; it is also clear that KER-OGGLY was to be re-examined. This examination was done in part by I.S. Braginskiy in notes published in 1953; he has lately published a new edition of these notes in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE (No.3, 1955) under the title "The study of the epic poetry of the peoples of the Soviet East (GURGULI and GESER)". The conjunction of the two epics is significant. GESER, the first epic to be attacked, is also an "international" work; it exists in Buryat-Mongol, Mongol, Tibetan and Chinese versions. It was the first epic to be condemned as a whole, but in February 1953 it was rehabilitated in so far as it was admitted to have a "popular" character, although certain versions of it were said to be textually corrupt. KER-OGGLY is itself the Azerbaydzhani original of an epic found in Armenia, among the Soviet Kurds, among Turkmens, Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Kara-Kalpaks and in Turkey. It thus lays itself open to criticism on the score of "cosmopolitanism" or pan-Turkism. Re-examination of the epic was perhaps complicated by the fact that Stalin himself had highly commended an opera based on the Azerbaydzhani version. Braginskiy is ostensibly dealing only with the Tadzhik version, GURGULI, but, as his use of the Uzbek and Turkmen names KER-OGGLY and GURGULY shows, he has the whole cycle in mind. He is at some pains to emphasize that each version is in fact a different epic; that Avaz plays a greater part in the Tadzhik version than in the Azerbaydzhani version, and that the

episodes differ widely in each poem. The names, and therefore the characters, of the dramatis personae differ in each language. But he also shows the essential similarity of the epics and even, in a long footnote displaying considerable learning, that a description of the assembly of an army has a direct parallel in a Parthian epic of the 8th century. He thus implicitly rejects the idea that poetry must correspond to the age in which it was composed. He does say, however, that such elements are not the main indications of an epic poem, but interpolations in the action.

From this it is evident that the "comparative" method is again, if only tentatively, being employed. The force of his remarks is mainly directed against the text of the epics. He says that there are two types of anti-popular textual corruption; total - his example is the written version of the Turkmen DEDE-KORKUD - and partial. To the second class belong such mechanical additions as are found in the version of KER-UGLY made from the words of Odin Shakar, where any mention of Bukhara is followed by a conventional praise of its mosques and former glory. These are, it seems, in future to be removed. The elements which formerly led to the absolute condemnation of an epic are now to be treated as of this second class. For example, in some of the pre-Revolution editions printed in Tashkent there are religious corruptions; Gurugly is made a saint, and his victories come with the help of Allah and of Khizr (Elias) and his forty chiltan (saints). In Turkmenistan, mullas tried to make Gerogly an avliy (saint) and made a shrine (mazar) for him in the Balkhan mountains. In some texts there are harmful ideas of national differences between Turkmen and Tadzhik; there is even praise for khans and rich men. These passages are, it is asserted, corruptions and can be removed.

This method of editing a text is illuminated by a footnote: "The rejection of a variant reading in toto because of the reactionary nature of its content does not exclude the possibility of the critical use, in work on a text, of individual elements of the rejected reading (descriptions of nature, scenes of everyday life) to restore the text of an episode forming part of the epic. This is the method that has been adopted by the Kirgiz poets in their preparation of a collated text of MANAS." It seems that the first attacks on the epics were prompted by a desire to do away with anything that transcended national boundaries, whether the epic existed in different versions in many languages or whether it contained elements found by coincidence in any national epic. To this was added the official condemnation of the retelling of stories about campaigns against traditional enemies, and particularly against the Russian people. The first line has been dropped, but the second still stands, though in a modified form which leaves the body of the epic while destroying features of it. It seems doubtful whether the new

method is preferable to the first; but it will unquestionably make future study of the poetry of Central Asia much more difficult.

Sources

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2. Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR. 1952, No.12, pp.32-44.
3. Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye. 1955, No. 3, pp.19-35.
4. Pravda. 26th December 1950.
5. Literaturnaya Gazeta. 1st July 1952.

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

T H E N E W L I F E I N S I N K I A N G

The appearance in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 14th and 15th October 1955 of an article entitled THE NEW LIFE IN SINKIANG constitutes something of an event, since hitherto scarcely any mention of Sinkiang has appeared in the Central Asian Press. This is remarkable, for three of the republics border on Sinkiang, Kazakhstan in particular having a long common frontier with few natural barriers. There are, moreover, half a million Kazakhs living in Sinkiang. The article was written on the occasion of the announcement declaring the creation of a Sinkiang-Uygur Autonomous Region. A translation of this announcement and a summary of the article follow.

. . .

"At the end of September 1955 the permanent committee of the All-China Assembly of Representatives of the People confirmed the decision of the State Council of the Chinese People's Republic to create a Sinkiang-Uygur Autonomous Region. It is to occupy the whole of the territory of the former province of Sinkiang.

"Sinkiang is an area inhabited by thirteen peoples. The total population is over 4,000,000, of whom about 500,000 are Kazakhs. In the north west, Sinkiang borders on Soviet Kazakhstan for 1,500 km. At the present time, by agreement between the governments of the USSR and the CPR, a railway is being built from Lanchow to Urumchi and Alma-Ata, the 'Road of Friendship'. We publish today an article telling of China's new autonomous region."

Until the popular revolt Sinkiang was one of the most backward borderlands of China. The Kuomintang rulers looked on it as a patrimony in which they could exploit and plunder the people without retribution. The land belonged to landowners, kulaks and local nobles who exploited the peasants cruelly. The innumerable agents of bureaucratic capital bought up the produce of the local population at low prices and sold them industrial products at fabulous cost; one brick of tea was bartered for 100 kg. of wool and a piece of coarse cloth for a camel. Like the mass of Chinese

workers, national minorities were excluded from the government of the country. All official posts were filled by Chinese civil servants or trusted members of the local feudal aristocracy. The lower administrative machine was entirely at the service of local and Chinese landowners. The Kuomintang set one people against another; one of their reactionary practices was to give licences for the same grazing-ground to three or four tribes at once, which provoked quarrels that often developed into armed conflict.

On the 1st October 1949 the Chinese People's Republic was solemnly proclaimed in Peking, and in the same month units of the National Liberation Army entered Urumchi, the capital of Sinkiang. A united popular-democratic provincial government was set up with representatives of all the nationalities inhabiting the province. Thirty-one members were elected; nine Uygurs, three Kazakhs, two Chinese, two Dungans and one representative of all the other nationalities. Local government was set up on the same principle; of the ten chairmen of okrug governments four were Uygurs, three Kazakhs, two Chinese and one Mongol. Of 78 uyezd chairmen, forty-five were Uygurs, thirteen Kazakhs, eleven Chinese, four Mongols, three Kirgiz and two Tatars.

In this way each nationality had its own representatives; for example, in the Chzhen'si uyezd, where nearly 10,000 Kazakhs live, more than 200 Kazakhs take part in government. This principle was maintained in the formation of all the 78 uyezd, 958 rayon, 1,275 volost and 7,166 kishlak governments.

The creation of national autonomy for Sinkiang was begun at the second session of the provincial conference of representatives of the people in 1952. A preparatory committee set up organized propaganda to tell the people about the nationalities policy of the Communist Party, and studied the peculiarities of each of the peoples of Sinkiang. The creation of autonomous rayons was attended by a bitter class struggle and met frenzied opposition from Greater Chinese chauvinists and local nationalists. But by the end of 1954 there were already thirty national and autonomous rayons in existence, controlling their own finance, economic, cultural, educational, and health services within the limits of the Chinese Constitution and on the basis of a single State financial and economic system.

In February 1955 a special committee began to consider the problem of creating an Uygur autonomous region embracing the whole province; its work was completed in August and the project made law in September. The minorities of Sinkiang, as elsewhere, are represented in the highest organs of State. 21 of the 150 members of the All-China Assembly of

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Representatives of the People are representatives of the Sinkiang minorities; among them are twelve Uygurs, three Chinese, two Kazakhs, one Dungan, one Mongolian, one Kirgiz and one Tatar. There are also many representatives of Sinkiang in the Assembly who have been chosen on general grounds.

By the end of 1953 agrarian reform (see CAR Vol.III, No.4, p.345), one of the greatest achievements of the new regime in China, had been applied to the whole of Sinkiang. 4,366,048 mu (approx.272,878 hectares) of land were confiscated and redistributed. The "groups of concerted assistance in labour" numbered 58,773 at the end of August 1954; the agricultural production co-operatives now number 1,700. There were more than thirty state farms in Sinkiang at the beginning of 1955 and there are MTS in some areas. Sinkiang supplies more than 60 per cent of China's wool. There are 83 animal husbandry farms, state stud farms are being organized and veterinary posts are everywhere at work. In the course of the first four years of its existence the People's Bank has given 14,800m. yuans in subsidies to the farms; from 1953 to the end of the first half of 1954 they received an additional 12,075m. yuans. As a result of this the number of cattle increased from 13,200,000 head in 1949 to 17,105,000 in 1954 and in 1955 will reach 19m.

Until the liberation there were only a few cottage-type industries in Sinkiang, and some of these were laid waste by the Kuomintang. With the help of the Soviet Union a metal-working plant, a machine building factory and a cement works have been built, and an electric power-station and a large coal-mine have started production. The Ulaybay power-station was completed in February 1955 after only two years work.

Textile, silk-weaving, flour-milling and oil-pressing factories have been built; the first textile kombinat is on a large plateau five miles from Urumchi, and will send its products to Tibet and Tsinhay. There are large non-ferrous metal-working mills in Sinkiang, and oil refineries; a motor repair works has been built and opened. Altogether with the help of the Soviet Union eighty-one new factories have been constructed. A State mining company has been formed to prospect for non-ferrous and rare metals, and a State company is exploiting the oil-field at the foot of the Tien Shan, where a modern kombinat does the work that was formerly done by hand. The output of oil in 1954 was fourteen times that of 1951. In 1953 industrial production in general was thirty-six times that of 1949. The Soviet Union has provided all the equipment in such undertakings as, for instance, the oil industry, and Soviet experts have trained Chinese and local workmen.

Transport in a territory of such vast area is very important. Work

is going on in almost every part of Sinkiang to repair the old roads and build new ones. Over 4,000 km. of new metalled roads was built, and over 30,000 km. of old road repaired during the first years after the liberation. The new railway from Alma-Ata to Lanchow will be a great step forward in this respect.

Sinkiang has now three higher educational establishments. There are four times as many secondary schools and twice as many primary schools as in 1949. Illiteracy is being eliminated; scripts are being invented for languages that have none as yet. The works of Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin and Mao Tse Tung are appearing in large editions. Thirteen newspapers are printed in Uygur, Kazakh, Chinese, Mongol and Sibir. The artistic arrangement of MUKAM, one of the greatest Uygur national musical compositions, has just been completed and a film made called KASYM AND ZHAMELYA, which tells of the fight of the Sinkiang Kazakhs against the Kuomintang regime. A national-democratic theatre has recently been built in Urumchi; Sinkiang has more than forty cinemas, forty-five radio diffusion posts and twenty-eight travelling cinemas. The improvement of the material and cultural welfare of the workers of the various nationalities of Sinkiang is a clear testimony to the vitality and stability of China's popular-democratic regime.

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

S O V I E T O R I E N T A L S T U D I E S

Nos.4 and 5 (1955) of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE have recently been received. The following is a resumé of articles dealing wholly or partially with the study of Central Asia.

The leading article in No.4 is entitled "The Study of the Economies of the Countries of the East". Work so far done on this subject in the Soviet Union, the author of the article writes, has for the most part not touched the post-war period. Where this period has been discussed, discussion has been confined to questions of theory and general economic laws; as the periodical seminars in the Institute of Oriental Studies show, Soviet scholars are not sufficiently briefed with the necessary facts to discuss the problems in concrete terms. For this reason even theoretical discussions have been vitiated; measures undertaken by the "bourgeois national" states, which have an objectively progressive character, are represented as reactionary, as for instance Kemal Ataturk's policy of étatisme in the 30s, whose progressive character is clearly shown by the fact that the Soviet Union during this period extended substantial credit to Turkey for industrial expansion.

Soviet scholars continually assert that capitalist endeavour to obtain the greatest possible profits out of the East is increasing. But they must show in what way this is true and by what channels the profits accrue. In this connection, Soviet scholars, while remarking the ruining of the peasantry by the introduction of Western capital, do not seem to appreciate that capitalist elements are consolidating positions in the country. The wide study of agrarian relations recently begun by the Institute will help to make this clear; but such work will suffer from the lack of material on feudal forms of land-tenure in the East and their prevalence today. One of the greatest difficulties is that not only is it impossible to trust imperialist statistics, but national literature dealing with economic statistics is very hard to come by; only in Moscow and to some extent in Leningrad can it be consulted. Co-ordination of all Soviet work on eastern economics is necessary, and co-operation with foreign scholars - of the kind that produced the HISTORY OF THE MONGOL PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC - will be of great help.

A note on "The Position of Handicrafts in Modern Afghanistan" by

R.T. Akhramovich, gives the sort of facts demanded by the leading article. His sources are the Afghan newspaper ISLAH and a SHORT REPORT ON THE STATE OF HANDICRAFTS written by a representative of the Ministry of the National Economy, who accompanied a UNO specialist on a tour of the areas of production. The conclusion is that where imports have not destroyed home production, such production is entirely dependent either on export, and thus on foreign capital, in the case of such things as carpets, or on a few monopolistic concerns supplying raw material. The only handicrafts discussed in the note are in fact weaving and garment-making.

No.4 also contains an article commemorating the 110th anniversary of the birth of Abay. ("Abay Kunanbayev - an eminent Kazakh luminary" by K. Beysembiyev, D. Kshibekov and Sh. Tastanov.) The article begins with a section on the significance of the accession of Kazakhstan to Russia, of which Abay is declared to be the product. He saw that in education lay the way out of misfortune, and mistakenly thought that the Kazakh nobility would be interested in this aim. In other respects - the question of the poor, the position of women - his ideas were progressive. The article ends with a comparison of Abay's views on poetry and those of Belinskiy, which the authors find similar.

No.5 of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE has a leading article, "The Great October Socialist Revolution and the East", by V.Ya. Avarin, who is not a member of the editorial board. He enumerates the benefits which Revolution has brought to the peoples of the Soviet East and the results of its influence in revolutionary movements in other eastern countries, China, Korea, Mongolia and Vietnam on the one hand and on the other India, Indonesia, Burma, Syria and Egypt. He asks, in conclusion, for the acceptance of the Chinese People's Republic as a member of the United Nations.

Some considerable scholarship is shown in I.P. Petrushevskiy's article "The Forms of the Peasants' Feudal Dependence in Persia in the 13th-14th Centuries". After a lengthy exposition of the views of Marx and Engels on what constitutes serfdom - a term which, as Petrushevskiy remarks, is used rather loosely in present Soviet writing - he sets out the views of Soviet scholars on the position of the peasants in mediaeval Persia and other parts of Asia; that is, the area of the Mongol conquest. Bartold, who denied that serfdom was permitted under Islam, nevertheless asserted that under the Mongols the peasants were tied to the land. His pupil Yakubovskiy denied that serfdom was at that time legally established, although he later changed his position. Zakhoder held that by the 13th century there was no longer a free peasantry in Persia; Gordlevskiy that serfdom was only legalized at the beginning of the 14th and consolidated in the 16th-17th centuries. Ali-Zade formerly held that the peasants were

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tyed to the land before the Mongol period but latterly has admitted that there is little or no evidence for his belief. Petrushevskiy himself gave his view in 1947 that the peasants were tied to the land in the early years of Mongol rule, and that the right to change their place of work was finally withdrawn in the 17th-18th centuries. In the present article he adduces new evidence to support his view. There are exhaustive references accompanying the text.

The Linguistic Conference in Ulan-Bator, of which there is a report in this issue of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, was held in May 1955. Reports were read on the state of the study of Mongol in the Mongolian People's Republic, the structure of the Mongol sentence and the classification of the parts of speech in Mongol. No Soviet scholars are reported as having taken part in the discussions, but the account of the Conference is by G.L. Mikhaylov.

From the present number onwards there is to appear a bibliography of the main works by Soviet orientalists published between 1938-1953, either originally or as reprints. Soviet bibliographies for the period before 1938 are already available, and the year 1954 was covered in No.1 of the present series. In No.5 the Far East, China, Korea, Mongolia, South-East Asia and Japan are dealt with.

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

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

The number of Russian and local language newspapers published in Central Asia is very large and by no means all of them are readily available. The information given below is based on a study of the following leading Russian dailies, but in general it may be said to apply to the leading local language papers as well:

PRAVDA VOSTOKA, organ of the Central Committee of the Uzbek Communist Party, the Supreme Soviet and the Council of Ministers.

SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, organ of the Central Committee, the Supreme Soviet and the Frunze oblast committee of the Party.

KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA, organ of the Central Committee, the Supreme Soviet, and the Stalinabad Party Committee.

TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, organ of the Central Committee, the Praesidium of the Supreme Soviet, the Ashkhabad town council and the Ashkhabad Party Committee.

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, organ of the Central Committee of the Kazakh Communist Party.

Of these papers PRAVDA VOSTOKA has the most thorough coverage; news is divided into 10 sections: Party life, propaganda, Soviet construction, agriculture, industry, literature and art, culture and way of life, press survey, information, workers' letters and advertisements. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA is divided into 10 sections similar to those of PRAVDA VOSTOKA, except that instead of a press survey there is a section on animal husbandry; this possibly reflects the current official emphasis on an increase in livestock breeding in Kazakhstan. SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA also has 10 sections, though the titles differ they cover the same subjects; transport is included in the section dealing with industry, and science is included in the culture section. KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA omits the section headed "press survey" or "correspondent network" but otherwise is the same. TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA has the narrowest coverage with only 6

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sections; Party life and propaganda, Soviet construction and illustrations, industry, transport and agriculture, culture and way of life, workers' letters, and advertisements.

In lay-out the papers are similar to the Moscow newspaper PRAVDA. On page 1 there is a list of contents and the editorial, sometimes repeated from PRAVDA of the day before; decrees and edicts; "rolls of honour" of the winners in a round of "socialist competition"; republican news and news from the rest of the Soviet Union. These last items are often given in a separate box under such headings as "The day of Soviet Uzbekistan", "In our Republic", "In the Soviet Union" or "In our home land". The first two columns, and sometimes more, of page 2 are devoted to an article on Party life. Also on page 2 is the industrial and transport news and the overflow from the first page; at the bottom is an article of general interest, scientific or political. Page 3 contains special features, agricultural and cultural news, feuilletons, the overflow from page 4 and readers' letters. Foreign news is on page 4 and sometimes an article on foreign policy is given at the bottom. The last two columns have sports news and local news is also placed here. Then come minor differences: some papers have weather forecasts, some concentrate on local news and TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA has a special box on Sundays headed "Ashkhabad" with news from the town. The name of the editor, or deputy editor, responsible for the issue is printed at the bottom of page 4.

Advertising, in the form practised in western countries, is rare. Very little space is given to it, and that at the bottom of page 4. Rather less than a quarter-page of advertisements is the maximum ever given in the 4-page newspapers, and these include such things as divorce announcements and employment vacancies. There are a few small announcements of goods for sale, mostly unillustrated, PRAVDA VOSTOKA is the only paper which regularly carries pictorial advertisements for goods, but at holiday times, such as the New Year, similar advertisements appear also in the other papers. From time to time advertisements for jobs vacant are published, but most of the small space devoted to advertising is concerned with theatre and cinema programmes, and the public defence of these. All newspapers carry periodical announcements of divorce proceedings, and expressions of sorrow at the death of a colleague by the kollektiv where he worked.

Small illustrations of rather poor quality are published daily. These may appear on any page but are not usually placed on page 1.

The system of headlining is quite different from that of newspapers in, for instance, Britain, the U.S.A. and Western Europe. The editorial on page 1 has a two-column headline in large type, though the size and type of

lettering varies considerably in the different papers. The main Union or Republic news items on page 1 all come under a general heading similar to those quoted above, i.e. "In Soviet Kazakhstan", with a 3-column spread. Each news item then has its own headline in smaller type. An item of news considered really important, such as the visit of Pandit Nehru last year, is given the place of honour and replaces the general headline with its own 3- or even 4-column headline, and possibly even a sub-head. On the whole sub-headlines are not used, even in main news items.

From the technical point of view the production and lay-out, which are similar in all papers, are equivalent to the average local British newspaper. The quality of the newsprint is very good; although not as good as that used for THE TIMES, it is superior to that of some of the London evening papers. The papers are printed on rotary machines and the type is set mechanically. The quality of printing is rather poor. Close inspection shows that while the machinery and materials used are of a good standard the results obtained are not in keeping with this. This suggests that the printing trade, like many others in Central Asia, is short of first-class technicians; probably the supervisory staff are well trained with the majority of the workers in the "improver" stage.

It is not possible to give any accurate figures regarding circulation; the print order of Soviet newspapers is not given as it invariably is in the case of books or periodicals. However, information given in the Central Asian newspapers on the 5th May ("Press Day") 1955 gives some indication of their circulation. In Kazakhstan there are 8 republican newspapers, 33 oblast, 223 town and rayon newspapers, and many magazines in Kazakh, Russian, Uzbek, Uigur and Korean. The total newspaper print order for one issue in 1955 exceeded 1,370,000; the print order for newspapers and magazines together was 2,180,000 - an increase of one-third over 1952, but of this latter number more than 6,300 copies were not distributed. Such complete information is not available for the other republics; in Uzbekistan there were 207 newspapers with a total print order per issue of over 1,200,000; in Tadzhikistan, with 7 republican, 8 oblast and 59 rayon newspapers the total was 300,000. In Turkmenistan the 6 republican, 1 city, eight oblast and 47 rayon newspapers, and 9 institutional periodicals had a total print order of over 260,000, and the 10 magazines of 80,000. Kirgizia has 6 republican, 7 city, ten oblast and 65 rayon newspapers, 4 "large circulation" periodicals (propaganda pamphlets) and 9 magazines; no details of circulation or print orders were given.

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NEWS ITEMS

The following news items refer to the period September-December 1955. Items are arranged by republics, and a list of abbreviations of their sources is given at the end.

General

Creation of union-republican Ministries of Textile and Light Industries

By a decree of the USSR Supreme Soviet of the 22nd September 1955, union-republican Ministries of the Textile and Light Industries were to be formed out of the Ministries of Consumer Goods of constituent republics. Enactments of individual republican Supreme Soviets were published in Kazakhstan on the 8th October, in Uzbekistan on the 1st November, in Tadzhikistan on the 12th November, in Turkmenistan on the 17th November (no Ministry of Light Industry seems yet to have been created there) and in Kirgizia on the 26th November. Central Asian Press

Import of eucomia trees from China

Two years ago the first eucomia seed was imported from China and planted in Turkmenistan; there are now 30,000 eucomia trees in the republic. The eucomia tree, which produces gutta-percha, is native to central and south-western China. Seed imported from China has been planted on the Kuylyuk State Tree Farm (Tashkent oblast), the Kurgan-Tyube State Tree Farm (Tadzhikistan), the Ashkhabad Forestry Experimental Station, and at Bakharden and Firyuza (Turkmenistan). At Kuylyuk 25 hectares have been planted with eucomia and in 1955 a harvest of two tons of leaves per hectare, with a gutta-percha content of five per cent, was obtained.

PV. 26th October 1955

KT. 12th November 1955

TI. 16th December 1955

Central Asian artists visit China

A group of actors, singers and dancers from Uzbekistan, Kirgizia and Kazakhstan gave performances in China during the month of October 1955.

SK. 23rd September 1955

KP. 27th September 1955

Soviet Turcology

A tribute to the late Professor N.K. Dmitriyev, who died on 22nd December 1954, was paid by E.V. Sevortyan in a long article in IZVESTIYA AKADEMII NAUK SSR (No.5, 1955).

A disciple of the Academician V.A. Gordlevski and a corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, N. K. Dmitriyev specialized in Turkic languages (Turkish, Bashkir, Gagauz, Kumyk, Azerbaydzhani, Turkmen and others). He was a firm supporter of the theory of genetic unity of the Turkic languages, and was an outstanding expert in their morphology, syntax, phonetics, lexicology, dialectology and history. The problem of the relationship between Turkic and Slavonic languages was also amongst his particular preoccupations.

His numerous works include: STUDIES ON SERBO-TURKISH LINGUISTIC INTERACTION, OTTOMAN TURKISH GLOSSES OF THE XVIIIITH CENTURY, MATERIALS FOR TURKISH DIALECTOLOGY, PHONETICS OF THE KARAMALIK LANGUAGE, ESSAYS ON KUMYK SYNTAX, GRAMMAR OF THE KUMYK LANGUAGE, in part THE GRAMMAR OF THE AZERBAJDZHANI LANGUAGE, THE GRAMMAR OF THE BASHKIR LANGUAGE, BARBARISMS IN BASHKIR, RUSSIAN-BASHKIR DICTIONARY, RUSSIAN-CHUVASH DICTIONARY, and METHODOLOGY OF THE TUITION OF RUSSIAN IN TARTAR SCHOOLS. He was not only a prominent turcologist but also a great connoisseur of Turkic folklore.

For sixteen years (1925-41) N.K. Dmitriyev was closely connected with the Leningrad State University and Oriental Institute at which he held the chair of Turkic Philology. The creation of the Oriental Section at the Philological Faculty of the Moscow State University was, to a considerable extent, due to his energy and personal initiative. He was also responsible for the organization of academic research work in the methodology of the teaching of Russian in Turkic schools at the Institute of Tuition Methods of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the RSFSR.

Dmitriyev was for thirty years professor at the Leningrad University and initiated the following courses there: Introduction to Turcology; Comparative Grammar of the Turkic languages; the Turkish language; the Turkmen language; the Azerbaydzhani language; the Kumyk language; Turkish dialectology; Turkmen dialectology; History of the Turkish language; Turkish paleography and a few other subjects.

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Uzbekistan

Egyptian doctors visit Uzbekistan

In September 1955 a delegation of Egyptian doctors led by the Egyptian Minister of Health, visited Uzbekistan to see the medical institutions of the republic. PV. 9th September 1955

Conference on tuberculosis

A conference on the Tuberculosis Institute of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences and the Uzbek Tuberculosis Research Institute was recently held in Tashkent. 33 papers were read and 67 speakers took part in discussion of them; the papers were on various aspects of the problem of tuberculosis in Uzbekistan and the effect of Central Asian climatic conditions on its cure. PV. 28th September 1955

Experiments with sun-power

During 1955 many different types of apparatus using sun-power were tested at the Tashkent base of the sun and wind laboratory of the G.M. Krzhizhanovskiy Power Institute of the USSR Academy of Sciences. Sun-power water heaters and cookers were tested, and a high temperature apparatus with a paraboloid mirror two metres in diameter which has given temperatures of 3,500-4,000 sufficient to melt steel and wulfram in a few seconds. At present experiments are being carried out in the use of sun-power to produce artificial ice in large quantities; a design is being elaborated for a sun thermal power station. PV. 1st October 1955

Reorganization of Uzbek Academy of Sciences

A group of scholars led by Academician M.N. Tikhomirov was recently sent by the Presidium of the USSR Academy of Sciences to reorganize and advance the work of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences.

PV. 16th November 1955

New Uzbek language newspaper

A new newspaper, KUL'TURA SOVETSKOGO UZBEKISTANA, will appear in Uzbek twice weekly from 1st January 1956. It will be an organ of the Uzbek Minister of Culture on the lines of the all-Union periodical SOVETSKAYA KUL'TURA. PV. 30th November 1955

Archaeological expedition in Kara-Kalpakia

In the summer of 1955 the USSR Academy of Sciences sent an archaeological expedition under the leadership of S.P. Tolstov to excavate sites in Kara-Kalpakia, including the ancient fortress of Koy-Krylgan-Kala (3rd century B.C. - 1st century A.D.) on the old irrigation lands north-east of Turtkul', and the 8th century settlement of Berkut-Kala on newly cultivated lands in the Kyrk-Kyz valley. In September, after the completion of the work at Koy-Krylgan-Kala, the expedition was to explore the ancient bed of the Akcha-Dar'ya, and in October the late mediaeval monuments in the area of Lake Sarykamysk.

TI. 4th September 1955
quoting SOVETSKAYA KARA-
KALPAKIA

Death of famous Uzbek actor

Mannon Madzhidovich Uygur, a famous Uzbek actor and one of the founders of the Uzbek theatre, died on the 16th October 1955. He was for 37 years the chief director and producer of the Khamza Academy Theatre in Tashkent. His wife is to receive a grant of 3,000 rubles and a life pension; a theatre in Yangi-Yul' and a school and a street in Tashkent are to be named after him by order of the Council of Ministers.

PV. 18th and 21st October 1955

TurkmenistanMinisterial Changes

On the 17th November the Presidium of the Turkmen Supreme Soviet released Anna Durdy Geokov from the duties of Minister of Motor Transport and Highways for other unspecified work. He was replaced by Makhtum Charyev, released for this purpose from the post of Minister of Housing and Town Planning (Communal Economy).

TI. 19th November 1955

Administrative and territorial changes

By decree of the Presidium of the Turkmen Supreme Soviet on the 6th December 1955 three new rayons were abolished and their territory absorbed in neighbouring rayons: Kuybyshev (Mary oblast), Burdalyk (Chardzhou oblast) and Andreyev (Tashauz oblast). On the 9th December the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet approved a Turkmen proposal to abolish the Krasnovodsk oblast (re-formed in April 1952) and once more to include its territory in the Ashkhabad oblast.

TI. 10th and
11th December 1955

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Exchange of periodicals with foreign institutes

During the last few months the Turkmen Academy of Sciences has received many requests from abroad for an exchange of periodicals, in particular from China, Washington, Delhi, the Sorbonne and the Institute de l'Afrique Noire in French Morocco. The Academy has set aside a special number of its publications for this purpose. TI. 8th December 1955

Kazakhstan

Formation of new rayons

By decree of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet seven new rayons were formed in the republic on the 22nd October 1955, two (Barankul' and Kiyma) out of the Yesil' rayon, Akmolinsk oblast, three (Kazanka, Chistopol'ye and Leningrad) out of the Ayrtau, Ruzayev, Aryk-Balyk, Kzyltu and Chkalov rayons, Kokchetav oblast and two (Kamyshnoye and October) out of the Ordzhonikidze, Semiozernoje, Karasu and Amangel'dy rayons, Kustanay oblast. All these changes reflect increases of population in the new lands.

KP. 26th October 1955

Kazakh batteries for Soviet-backed Indian metal works

The Alma-Ata Heavy Machinery Works has begun to plan the production of the coke and by-products batteries for the metal works now being built in India with the help of the Soviet Union. New working parts are being designed for the gas, air and reserve valves and for the nipples by the works designers in accordance with the latest principles of Soviet design.

KP. 26th November 1955

"Electromagnetic yard sweeper"

The head of the Zyryanovsk Polimetal Kombinat transport department has invented an "electromagnetic yard sweeper" - a machine with six magnetized rollers which clears metal waste from the works yard, and prevents damage to the tyres and inner tubes of lorries.

KP. 25th September 1955

Television station in Karaganda

The building of a television station in Karaganda is to start shortly. It will open in 1957 and will serve an area including Karaganda, Sran', Temir-Tau, Churubay-Nura, Karabas, Aktau, Fedorovka, Bol-shaya, Mikhaylovka and Tokarevka.

KP. 20th October 1955

Karaganda's new railway station

A new two-storey railway station has been opened in Karaganda. It is much nearer the centre of the town than the old station, being set on the main street where the Council House, the hotel and the Miners' Palace of Culture are situated.

KP. 27th November 1955

Opening of Kazakh branch of All-Union Institute of Agricultural Economy

A Kazakh branch of the All-Union Institute of Agricultural Economy has been opened in Alma-Ata and a competition announced for posts in it.

KP. 24th September 1955

New combine harvester works

The building of a combine harvester works, to be the largest in the USSR, has been begun at Pavlodar. It will manufacture the first combines, of the Stalinets 8 type, in 1957. At present road and railway communications are being built on the site. A pipe has been laid to bring water from the Irtysh.

KP. 17th September 1955

Creation of special seed-cultivation sovkhoses

89 seed-growing sovkhoses are, by a decision of the Kazakh Ministry of Sovkhoses, to be organized on the basis of existing state farms to grow seed for the new lands. 13 of them will produce grain and oil-bearing seeds, 45 second reproduction seeds to renew strains, and 23 maize seeds. They are to be allotted 5,200 hectares of irrigated land. The existing farms producing sorghum, Sudan grass and other grass seeds are to be expanded.

KP. 20th October 1955

New instruments to help agriculture

Leningrad scientists who were members of a recent agro-physical (agro-fizicheskiy) expedition to Kazakhstan have sent twenty new types of instruments to the New Lands, developed and tested by them on the basis of their work on the expedition. Among them is an instrument which measures the temperature at any required depth of soil, which can also be used for measuring the temperature and humidity of the air or grain in elevators, an instrument to assess the amount and quality of work done by a tractor in the field, and an instrument which automatically assesses the average depth of ploughing.

KP. 28th September 1955

Publication of articles on "Problems of the Study of Russian"

The Kazakh Academy of Sciences has published a collection of articles

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entitled "Problems of the Study of Russian" edited by Kh. Makhmudov. Questions dealt with by the 39-page booklet include the comparative grammar of Kazakh and Russian, and the history of the study of some Russian grammatical problems. KP. 18th September 1955

Minister of Culture replaced

By a decree of the Presidium of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet issued on the 23rd November 1955, the Minister of Culture and Deputy Chairman of the Kazakh Council of Ministers, Tulegen Tazhibayevich Tazhibayev, has been replaced by Amir Kanapinovich Kanapin as Minister. He retains the post of Deputy Chairman. KP. 24th November 1955

Abbreviations

P for Pravda

KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda

PV for Pravda Vostoka

KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana

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, cinema, engineering, ethnography, geography, geology, history, industry, linguistics, public works and science.

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(The author, a director of the Order of Lenin MTS in Regar, Tadzh., discusses various measures for the improvement of the organization of the stations.)
- Anikanova, A.Z. O primeneniі gerbitsidov dlya uluchsheniya senokosov v pastbishchakh Kazakhstana. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR, 1955. No.10, p.90-93. 1,000 words.
(The application of weed-killer in the grazing grounds of Kazakhstan.)
- A.R. Shire propagandirovat' dostizheniya nauki i perezodovoy opyt v khlopkovodstve. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.12, p.55-57. 1,500 words.
(A reprint from SOTSIALISTICHESKOYE SEL'SKOYE KHOZYAYSTVO UZBEKISTANA. The author suggests ways and means of publicizing the methods of cotton cultivation of the leading workers.)
- Baitenov, M.S. Novye vidy flory Kazakhstana. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR, 1955. No.9, p.78-80. 1,000 words.
(A description of new species of Onobrychis and Juncus found in Kazakhstan.)
- Karibzhanov, F. Perspektivy razvitiya sel'skogo khozyaystva Kazakhstana. Sotsialisticheskoye Sel'skoye Khozyaystvo, 1955. No.5,

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p.15-23. 3,500 words.

(The author, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, describes the achievements to date in the virgin lands and the prospects and plans for the future.)

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Musayev, Sh. Za vysokiy urozhay khlopka-syrtsa, Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.12, p.36-38. 850 words. (The author, a hero of Socialist Labour, describes the method of achieving a high harvest of cotton in the Akhumbabayev kolkhoz, Keness rayon, Kara-Kalpak ASSR.)

Paravyan, A.V. Tsveteniy e i plodonosheniye chainogo kusta v usloviyakh Bostandykskogo raiona Yuzhno-Kazakhstanskoy oblasti. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR, 1955. No.9, p.62-69. 1,800 words. (An illustrated account of the flowering and fertility of the tea shrub in Bostandyk rayon of South-Kazakhstan oblast.)

Paravyan, A.V. Itogi rabot po ispytaniyu kul'tury chaya v Kazakhskoy SSR. Akademiya Nauk SSSR: otdeleniye biologicheskikh nauk. Voprosy razvitiya kul'tury chaya v novykh rayonakh SSSR, 1955. p.135-146. 3,500 words. (An illustrated account of the results of the experimental cultivation of tea in Kazakhstan.)

Piriniyazov, A. Nash opyt razmeshcheniya rasteniy khlopchatnika Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.12, p.35-36. 600 words. (The author, chairman of the Malenkov kolkhoz, Chimbay rayon, Kara-Kalpakia describes the kolkhoz method of cotton cultivation.)

Rusakov, P. O povysheniy rentabel'nosti i perevode na khozraschet mashinno-traktornykh stantsiy Tadjikistana. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.12, p.14-17. 1,200 words. (The author discusses the means of increasing the profitableness of MT stations of Tadjikistan and putting them on a business footing.)

- Rzhevskiy, G. Opyt kolkhozov Uzbekistana po kvadratno-gnezdovomu sposobu vozdeleyvaniya khlopchatnika. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.12, p.28-33. 1,500 words.
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- Soveshchaniye po sisteme mashin dlya kompleksnoy mekhanizatsii selskokhozyaystvennogo proizvodstva rayonov oroshayemogo zemledeliya Sredney Azii i Zakavkaz'ya. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.9, p.61-63. 1,300 words.
(Report of the congress arranged by the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Sovkhozes of the USSR and held in Tashkent in July 1955.)
- Tepliyakova, Z.F. Effektivnost' primeneniya bakteriyal'nykh udobreniy v Kazakhstane. Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR, 1955. No.10, p.33-45. 2,000 words.
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(The author, deputy Minister of Agriculture of the Uzbek SSR discusses a system of complex cotton mechanization.)

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- Bochkarev, A. V stsenarnom otdele Tashkentskoy kinostudii. Iskusstvo Kino, 1955. No.7, p.106-107. 1,500 words.
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- Khodzhayev, F. and Vlasov, M. O nekotorykh nedostatkakh Uzbekskoy kinodramaturgii. Iskusstvo Kino, 1955. No.11, p.19-29. 5,000 words.
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(An interpretation of the Turkmen alamans - raids -; the author maintains that these were organized by the Sufist clergy and the feudal-tribal aristocracy and that their sole aim was plunder. Moreover they impeded the union of the peoples of Central Asia in their struggle

against the feudal oppressors. The article is annotated.)

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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

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

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

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. IV. No. 2.

1956

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3, and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as these are reflected in Soviet publications.

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

Distribution Agents :

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

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EDITORIAL NOTE

The Editors of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW take pleasure in introducing their readers to a new series of studies beginning in this issue entitled "The Borderlands of Soviet Central Asia". These studies aim at analysing Soviet writings on the countries bordering on or adjacent to Central Asia, the first to be handled being Afghanistan. In subsequent issues it is hoped to deal with Persia and Turkey, and if sufficient material can be obtained, with Sinkiang.

In starting this series the Editors are conscious of the difficulties involved: much of the early material cannot be obtained and the treatment of certain matters in the light of available material cannot be regarded as exhaustive. But it is hoped that the studies will provide some record of past changes in Soviet historiographical and cultural policy, which will help students to understand changes which may be expected in the future.

The Editors

LINGUISTICS

SOVIET LINGUISTIC POLICY
IN CENTRAL ASIA

One of the most important and interesting features of the Soviet experiment in Central Asia is the language policy which has been pursued there with varying degrees of intensity since 1924. The question of national languages was one which attracted the particular attention of Stalin and was treated by him in his pronouncement of June 1950. Although there is no special reason to suppose that any fundamental revision of the existing language policy is imminent, it will be useful at this juncture to outline its main features so that the significance of any change can be quickly apprehended.

The main languages of Central Asia are, (a) Turkic languages: Kazakh, Karakalpak, Kirgiz, Uzbek and Turkmen, and (b) Iranian languages: Tadjik. The Turkic languages belong to three recognized groups, namely, the North-western (Kipchak) Group (Kazakh, Karakalpak and Kirgiz) which is confined to the USSR; the South-eastern Group (all dialects of Uzbek) to which belongs also Uygur (Eastern Turki) spoken in Sinkiang; the South-western Group (Turkmen) to which belong also the Turkish of Turkey, Azerbaydzhani (as spoken in Transcaucasia and N. Persia), and the Turkic dialects spoken in South Persia. Tadjik, which is a form of Persian, is spoken by about one million people.

The remarkable inter-resemblance of all Turkic languages (except the strongly aberrant Yakut and Chuvash) has always made oral intercommunication among the Turkic peoples of Central Asia, as well as with those elsewhere in the Union and even with the Turks of Turkey, a relatively easy matter. Owing to the low standard of literacy written intercommunication was very limited before the Revolution. From the tenth century onwards such writing as existed was done in the Arabic script except in the Kipchak and Chagatay languages which were written in the Uygur script by the Golden Horde and the Timurids until the fifteenth century. It was then that the Chagatay literary language written in the Arabic script began to develop. This persisted until the Emirate of Bukhara was incorporated in the USSR in 1920, when it gave way to the Uzbek literary language. One of the few advantages of the use of the Arabic script for the Central Asian Turkic languages was that it gave the phonetic differences between

LINGUISTICS

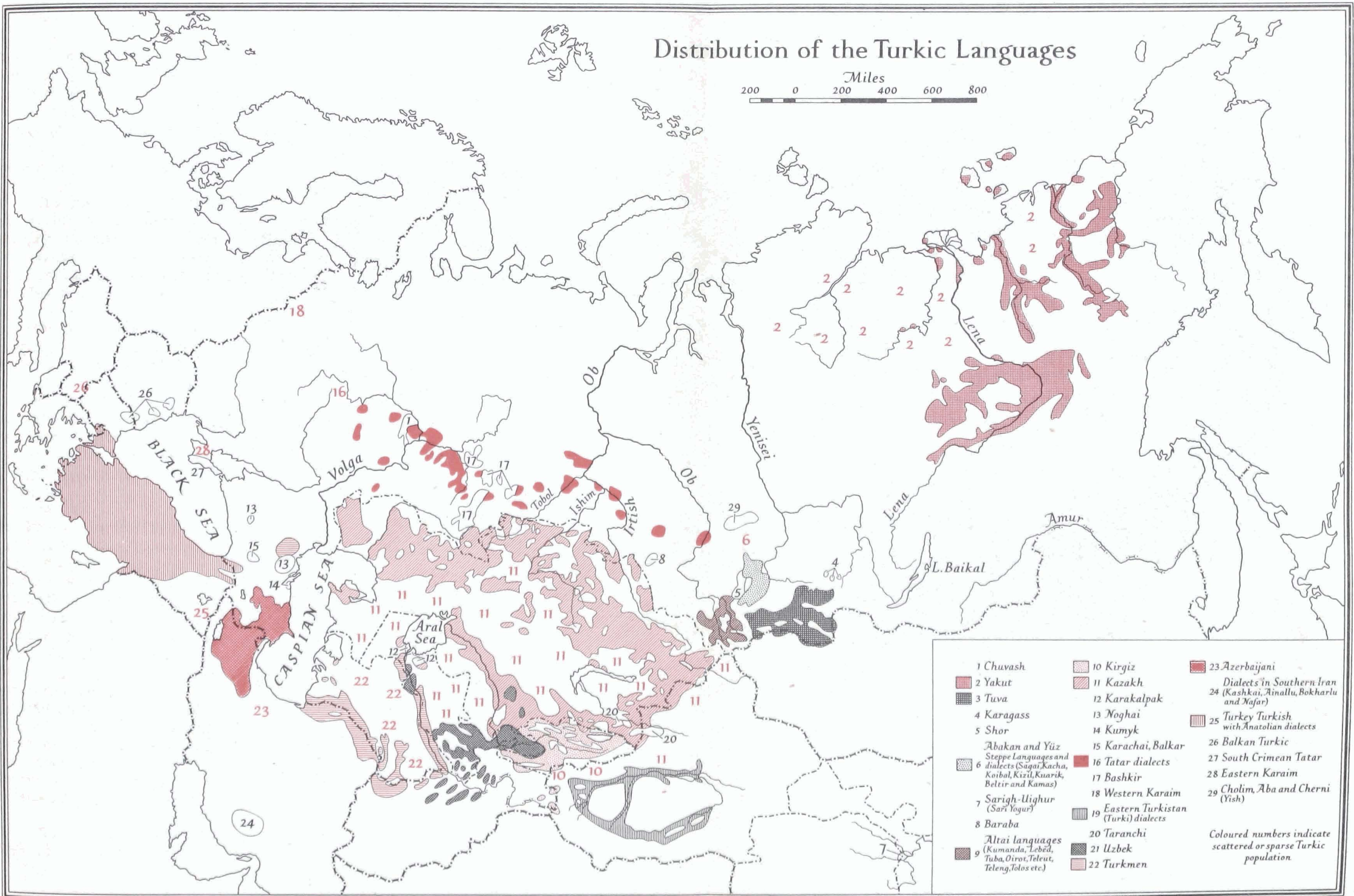
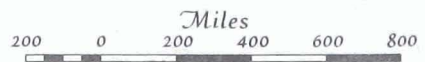
the various languages less prominence and might have rendered written intercommunication less difficult than any other script. Apart from Chagatay the only other distinct literary language in use in Central Asia before the Revolution was Turkmen. A small amount of writing in the Arabic script was current in Kazakh and Kirgiz.

Before the Revolution the languages of Central Asia had been affected in certain respects by other languages. The Islamic conquests of the seventh and eighth centuries resulted in the adoption of the Arabic script and later the incorporation of a large Perso-arabic loan vocabulary in the Turkic languages, particularly in Uzbek and Turkmen. The Russian conquests of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries gave currency to a limited number of Russian words for concrete objects hitherto unknown, and of Russian words and expressions relating to administration. During the nineteenth century some Ottoman Turkish and Tatar literature found its way into Turkestan and was studied by the literate few. This did not however produce any noticeable effect on Central Asian languages.

None of the successive dominations by Arabs, Persians, Mongols or Tsarist Russians were accompanied by anything approaching a linguistic policy, that is to say, an attempt to change and regulate by legislation established languages or methods of writing them. Linguistic policies may be of two kinds. There is the policy initiated by the government of a country in order to change or develop national language in accordance with national requirements. These often include the dropping of foreign accretions and the adoption of new and more practical scripts and orthographies. Examples of this are the policies adopted by Mustafa Atatürk in Turkey and the orthographical reform of Russian introduced after, but devised before, the Revolution. There is also the policy which seeks to compel subject alien peoples either to abandon their own languages in favour of another or to change them in certain specified ways. The only instances of a ruling power forcing or attempting to force a subject people to abandon their own language in favour of that of the rulers seem to have been in Korea where the Japanese forbade the teaching of Korean in schools, and in Poland where the Russians for a time banned Polish from the primary schools except for religious instruction to non-Orthodox pupils.

In the USSR certain changes have been compulsorily introduced which tend to assimilate native languages with Russian; but there has not, so far, been any attempt to forbid the use of native languages as the medium of education. Elsewhere, changes in native languages and the adoption of loan vocabularies, new orthographies and grammatical structures have resulted from causes other than direct compulsion or even calculated policy.

Distribution of the Turkic Languages



- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 1 Chuvash | 10 Kirgiz | 23 Azerbaijani |
| 2 Yakut | 11 Kazakh | 24 Dialects in Southern Iran
(Kashkai, Ainallu, Bokharlu
and Nafar) |
| 3 Tuva | 12 Karakalpak | 25 Turkey Turkish
with Anatolian dialects |
| 4 Karagass | 13 Noghai | 26 Balkan Turkic |
| 5 Shor | 14 Kumyk | 27 South Crimean Tatar |
| 6 Abakan and Yüz
Steppe Languages and
dialects (Sagai, Kacha,
Koibal, Kizil, Kuarik,
Belcir and Kamas) | 15 Karachai, Balkar | 28 Eastern Karaim |
| 7 Sarigh-Uighur
(Sari Yogur) | 16 Tatar dialects | 29 Cholim, Aba and Cherni
(Yish) |
| 8 Baraba | 17 Bashkir | |
| 9 Altai languages
(Kumanda, Lebéd,
Tuba, Oiroi, Teleut,
Teleng, Tolos etc.) | 18 Western Karaim | |
| | 19 Eastern Turkistan
(Turki) dialects | |
| | 20 Taranchi | |
| | 21 Uzbek | |
| | 22 Turkmen | |
- Coloured numbers indicate scattered or sparse Turkic population

Thus, the adoption of the Arabic character and a large Arabic loan vocabulary by the Egyptians, Persians and Turks did not spring from any deliberate linguistic policy of the Arab conquerors, but resulted from the adoption of Islam, the use of Arabic for official purposes, and the currency of Arabic scientific and other literature. The same, mutatis mutandis, can be said of the Latin and Greek accretions in English and a number of other languages.

The removal of foreign accretions and their replacement by purely native or other elements has been attempted in different countries with varying degrees of success. Since nine-tenths of the peoples of Central Asia speak Turkic languages a comparison between the policies adopted by the Turkish and Soviet governments will be of some interest although they display many differences of method and ultimate aim.

The ultimate aim of the Turkish government is to make the Turkish language a suitable vehicle of expression for a modern nationalist state anxious to throw off the shackles of foreign cultural influence but at the same time to take its place in the western rather than the eastern world. At the root of the trouble lay the Arabic script. This was totally unsuitable for the writing of any Turkic language and its use facilitated and indeed necessitated the introduction of more and more Arabic words and phrases, whose immutable and distinctive orthography tended to avoid ambiguity but restricted the use of the literary language to a highly educated minority. The adoption of the Latin alphabet was originally intended to pave the way for the complete and early replacement of Arabic and Persian words by Turkish, and where this was not possible, by western foreign words. This has not proved so easy as was anticipated and in the early stages there was a danger that the wholesale introduction of archaic or built-up Turkish words would make the language even less intelligible than before. More moderate counsels prevailed, and while the Arabic Persian loan vocabulary in ordinary literary Turkish has been reduced from nearly 60 per cent to about 25 per cent, the language has not been subjected to any serious strain and its simplification has been generally popular and beneficial, particularly for the purposes of general and adult education. Great use has been made of the word-building possibilities of the language in providing words for new concepts; but the temptation to provide purely Turkish words for such innovations as 'helicopter' has been resisted. In general the Turkish linguistic reforms have been in accordance with national sentiment and have promoted intercourse with other peoples, to whom the Turkish language is now much more accessible than formerly.

The ultimate aim of Soviet linguistic reforms as applied in Central Asia is still not entirely clear and pronouncements and legislation on the

subject during the past thirty years have shown many inconsistencies and changes of front. In the need for a new orthography and for the abandonment or reduction of the Arabic and Persian loan vocabulary the Soviet and Turkish linguistic reformers have been at one from the beginning, the Soviets having actually been the first to introduce latinization. In the USSR, however, the unified Latin alphabet was soon replaced by a number of slightly differing cyrillic alphabets, and whereas the Turkish reformers have always aimed at making their language as Turkish as possible, the Soviet reformers aimed and apparently still aim at making the Central Asian languages as Russian as possible. The reasons given for this aim have varied from time to time. Before Stalin's pronouncement of 1950 and his ruling that, contrary to the theory of the hitherto respected philologist Marr, language was neither part of the superstructure of society nor of its base, the adoption of the cyrillic script and the introduction of Russian loan words were given out as necessary aids to the study of Russian, whose importance as a second language for the non-Russian peoples of the USSR had always been emphasized. The first comprehensive attempt to show in what way Stalin's pronouncement would affect Central Asian language reform was made by A.N. Baskakov in 1952 (see CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.I, No.1, 1953, pp.1-8 and THE TURKIC PEOPLES OF THE USSR: THE DEVELOPMENT OF THEIR LANGUAGES AND WRITING). From Baskakov's article it is clear that Soviet philologists were in some doubt as to what was expected of them. The need to regard Russian as "the second native language" of Central Asian people was strongly emphasized as was the need for making native languages as like Russian as possible. In addition to Russian script and loan words the introduction of Russian syntactical and grammatical forms was now encouraged, whereas the object had formerly been to make the Central Asian languages as different from each other as possible. Baskakov suggested that some of the artificially created differences should be removed, presumably because they hindered rather than helped the process of russianization. Although Baskakov maintained that Russian words adopted before the Revolution should continue to be spelt in accordance with the phonetic requirements of each language, a decree was published in Frunze in the following year laying down that all such words in the Kirgiz language would, in future, be spelt exactly as in Russian. This decree, which was promulgated very shortly after Stalin's death, has not, as was then expected, been followed by similar decrees for other languages. Indeed, before the opening of the Second Turkmen Linguistic Congress in October 1954 care was taken to explain that the adoption of the Russian orthography in the writing of loan words was not always practicable. During this Congress tribute was paid to the immense value of Stalin's contribution to linguistic science, but it was not explained in what precisely his contribution consisted. The value of the cyrillic script and Russian loan vocabulary as stepping-stones to the study of Russian was re-emphasized, but there was no mention of the adoption of Russian syntactical forms or of

Russian phonetic principles in the pronunciation of Russian loan words. Apart from any considerations of policy the latter may have been found impossible, particularly in the case of consonant clusters at the beginning of words (e.g. Uzbek 'ustol' for the Russian 'stol' - a table).

The development of the Central Asian languages into modern vehicles of expression dispensing altogether with the Arabic and Persian loan vocabulary seems to present more difficulties than that of Turkish. The constant insistence on the superiority of Russian to all other languages and its indispensability in higher education and professional advancement can hardly assist the natural development of native languages. The peoples of Central Asia may be just as anxious as the Turks of Turkey to purge their languages of the survivals of Islamic culture. It may even be true, as the Russians constantly maintain, that the great friendship which they have always had for the Russian people makes them want to impregnate their languages with Russian. In fact, however, the Arabic and Persian elements have been replaced by purely native or other foreign words to a smaller extent than in Turkish except in political or scientific literature. This literature is largely artificial, since advanced politics and science are invariably studied in Russian.

It may well be that Soviet linguistic policy has not yet crystallized. Between 1940 and 1950 the aim was evidently to achieve quickly and by arbitrary means the same sort of effect that Arab culture had had on Persian, Egyptian, Aramaic and the Turkic languages in the course of centuries. But the conditions which made this possible for Arabic are not present in the case of Russian. For instance, the languages just mentioned had already been subjected to Semitic influence through the prevalence of the Syriac script, whose use as a clerkly language was widespread, and which had even affected the Pahlevi and Uyghur scripts. On the other hand, Spanish, which had never been thus affected, remained relatively uninfluenced by Arabic, just as Russian proved unreceptive of Mongolian. Stalin's pronouncements of 1950 undoubtedly had the effect of intensifying the russianization of non-Russian languages and may even have been intended as the first step in the withering away of all languages except Russian. It is too early to say whether the repudiation of some of his other policies will be extended to language, but the constant reference and deference to his "Marxism and Problems of Linguistics" is likely to cease and further changes in linguistic policy may ensue.

I N D U S T R Y

THE AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY
INDUSTRY IN CENTRAL ASIA

Introduction - Individual agricultural machinery works - Repair and accessory works - Future development.

The Central Asian agricultural machinery industry is engaged in the production of implements and self-propelled units; tractors are imported from other parts of the USSR. The industry is mainly represented by two large factories in Frunze and Tashkent, but there are many small factories, most of them in Uzbekistan. The larger factories are under the control of the Ministry of Motor, Tractor and Agricultural Machinery Production of the USSR, while the majority of the small repair and accessory works are under the control of the republican Ministry of Agriculture or Ministry of Sovkhozes.

It is important to note that the Soviet agricultural machinery industry is highly centralized in the sense that each factory aims as far as possible at self-sufficiency. Thus there are in Central Asia no plants solely concerned with assembly. Orders for components placed by one works with another are not normally part of any system of coordinated production, but are usually the result of sheer necessity due to the unexpected shortage of the items in question.

Individual agricultural machinery works

The Frunze Agricultural Machinery Works is the largest factory in Kirgizia. (Director, Shipulin; chief metallurgist, Luk'yanov; chief engineer, A. Yusupov, who replaced Mansurov in the summer of 1955; chief of designers' office, V. Andrusenko; deputy chief technician, V. Li.) It produces one horse and two horse rakes, a side-delivery tractor rake, a shaft well-digger, various spare parts (for example, mower tines - production 400,000 in 1954, 36,000,000 in 1955) and a few ordinary consumer articles. Orders for other machines are sometimes received; in the first quarter of 1955, 2,500 automatic narrow-row seed drills for square-pocket cotton planting were produced without any dislocation of the normal programme of work. Stamps and presses for cotton seeding machines have

also been made in Frunze to the order of UZBEKSEL'MASH. Machines made in Frunze are sent not only to other parts of Kirgizia, but to Kazakhstan, the Altay, Siberia, Bashkiria, the North Caucasus area and even Sakhalin, and were exhibited in 1955 in Peking and Delhi. The value of the total output was in 1950, 38,971,600 rubles; in 1955, 148,871,600 rubles and is to be 258,771,600 rubles in 1960. (These figures are approximate: they have been calculated on the basis of figures given by the chief engineer in an article in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 28th September 1955.)

Articles about the Works, even about the work of individual shops, frequently appear in the press; all the officials mentioned above, with the exception of the director, have written articles. There are at present the following shops: machine-tools, repairs, spare parts, painting and packing, foundry and press, and machine assembly shops for the rakes and the well-digger. During the last one and a half years the Works has been entirely reorganized; an even more drastic reorganization is to follow under the Sixth Five-Year Plan. 300 "rationalization" measures have been carried out; each shop has been set to work on one machine, and its lay-out replanned, and new machinery has been supplied. In the rake shops an automatic line planned by the Frunze Research Institute of Machinery Construction Technology has been set up to make rake tines. Under the old system the tines were heated three separate times, heating and tempering was done in flame ovens; it is now to be done by contact with high-frequency current under compression. Heat-treatment has always been a bottle-neck in the past; the existing furnaces to be replaced by liquid fuel furnaces, and electric treatment used wherever possible.

In the side-delivery rakes machine-assembly shop, semi-automatic machines now cut screw threads and four automatic machines make bearings for the bushes; the frames and axle-bearings are assembled on conveyors. A new process has reduced the number of operations in machining the cantilever of the rear wheel of the rake from ten to six. The axle-bearing collars and the drum frame rods were bent by hand stamping; the chief construction engineer has made stamps which obviate the need for hand finishing and have released four men for other work.

The design of the shaft well-digger was altered in August 1955. In this shop semi-automatic welding (O.E. Paton's method) and a duplicating gas cutter to replace hand cutting have been introduced, but the gas cutter is as yet little used. In the spare parts shop a pneumatic all-purpose tool has been introduced, and in the foundry operations have been placed in sequence. Automatic machines cut the thread of nuts; bolts once made on horizontal forging machines fed by hand with rods heated in flame furnaces are now, in many cases, made on a two-stroke cold up-set automatic machine. The basic casting processes are now

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mechanized.

The chief features of the new reorganization under the Sixth Five-Year Plan are that machining and assembly will be separated, and that the Works will specialize completely in hay-harvesting machinery. The anomaly inherent in the production of consumer goods will be done away, and production of the well-digger transferred to another factory. Two new shops will be built for the manufacture of a pick-up baler; this baler (PPS 2.0) was designed at the Lyuberetsk Works and tested in Kazakhstan. This is an adaptation of the design of the ordinary combine harvester, though there are 250 new units and 1,200 new parts. A drum (reel) with four tubes set with special teeth lifts the hay into a worm conveyor; in a chamber 35 x 50 cm. the hay is compressed by a piston working on two toothed wheels from a special reduction gear. Specifications of the baler given are: engine, UralZIS; weight, 5.3 tons; table width, 2 metres; capacity, 10 tons per hour; weight of bale, 30 kg.

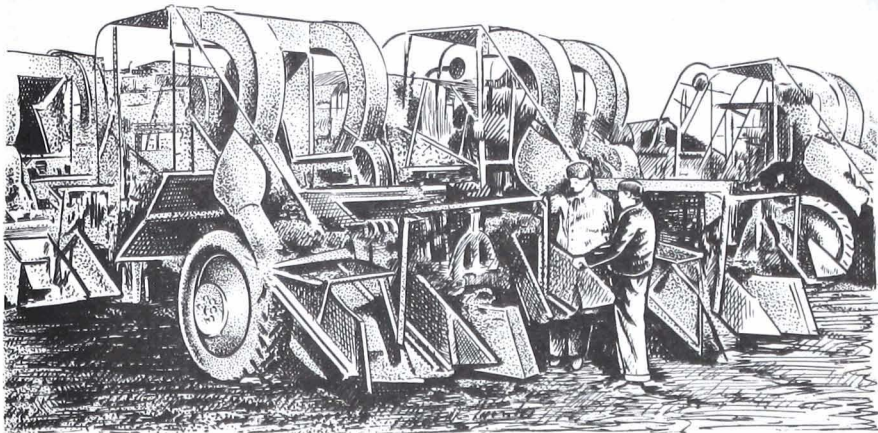
The general reorganization of the Works will proceed on lines well-known elsewhere; a conveyor will take parts from the machine shops to the assembly shops, and through the painting and drying sections to the consigning bays, from which the painting section will now be separated. The two rake line production lines will be moved out of the foundry, which will be enlarged by 2,700 square metres. Two automatized lines will produce nuts and bolts. Inter-works transport is now done by motor or animal haulage; these will be replaced by an overhead chain conveyor, to carry 70,000 tons a year.

All these developments will depend on the machine tool shop, which is to be placed in a new building. This shop and the repair shop are at present short of skilled labour and cannot work three shifts, as the rest of the factory does, and some machines stand idle because there is no one qualified to operate them. 400 workers already at the factory are to be trained for higher qualifications, individually at the factory and collectively in the schools of Frunze; in addition to these, 99 specialists with higher education and 180 workers with semi-specialized (tekhnikum) technical education will be required; the city's educational establishments must provide these.

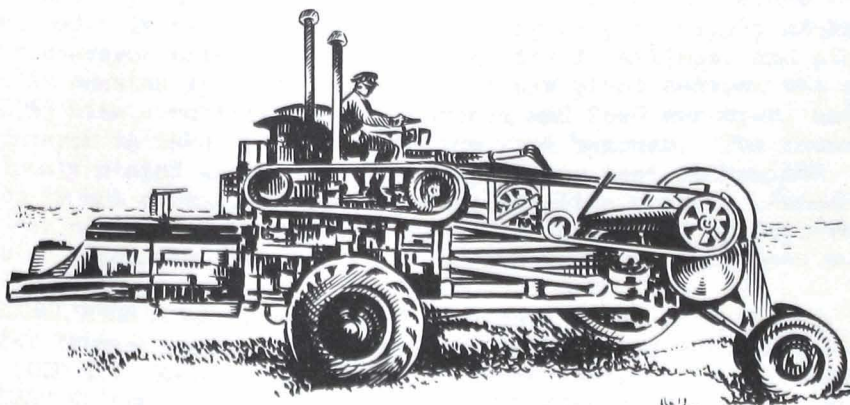
(The Works 1955-1960 Five-Year Plan was described in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA on 28th September 1955 by the officials concerned.)

The Voroshilov Agricultural Machinery Works in Tashkent, usually known as TASHSEL'MASH, is the largest factory in Central Asia in this or any other industry. It was created in the first year of the First Five-Year Plan on the basis of Glavkhlopprom (Cotton Industry Authority) workshops,

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY



SKN 2.8 cotton stalk harvesters made at Chirchiksel'mash.
Reproduced from *Pravda Vostoka*, 14th December, 1954.



Experimental model of the PPS 2.0 self-propelled pick-up baler,
to be made at the Frunze Agricultural Machinery Works.
Reproduced from *Sovetskaya Kirgiziya*, 28th September, 1955.

which until that time were merely engaged in servicing pre-Revolution or foreign machinery. The factory now has more than twenty shops, including a foundry, casting and press shops, and machine-assembly shops. The factory is subordinate to Glavkombaynprom (Combined Harvester Authority). The works manager is Ottygashev and the chief engineer Vinokurov.

In the twenty-five years of its existence the factory has produced 25,000 SKhM 48 and SKhM 48M cotton pickers. It also produces cotton gins (UPKh 1.5) of which a new model (UPKh 1.5A), in production since 1954, cleans stalks as well. Two new types of cotton picker, the SKhS 1.2 and 1.4 were brought into production in 1955. The 1.2 has a complicated horizontal spindle and is meant for work on two narrow rows. Delayed deliveries of components from the Magnitogorsk Calibration Works and the Pervoural'sk Old and New Tube Works, and of new machine-tools and an automatic production line from the USSR Ministry of Machine-Tool Production, reduced the output of the new model from 100 a month, the target, to two in October 1954. The TASHSEL'MASH machine-tool shops were also to blame; a press article claimed that, as on the 1st September, it frequently occurred that while 26 machines worked in the shop, 36 stood idle. 1,000 SKhS 1.2 should have been produced in the second half of 1955, but it seems that even then production was behind schedule.

Although the factory is so large, little information has been given on the present lay-out of the shops and the new Five-Year Plans have not been announced. It is known that the casting shop is highly mechanized; there is a conveyor both for grey iron and steel castings, and other new equipment is constantly being received. A new pivot section was opened in July 1955 with a vertical drying furnace and feed conveyor, and a second conveyor to take the pivots to the work benches. The foundry has been variously stated as being from 60 to 90 per cent mechanized. The press shop is not organized with a production-line system. Assembly, at least of the new SKhS 1.2, takes place in the open air; by September 1955 the expected automatic line for this machine had still not been built.

UZBEKSEL'MASH - an agricultural machinery works in Tashkent, also named after Frunze - makes cotton seeders (SPG 4) and defoliant dust sprayers (OUN 4). Many parts, such as piston shells, are supplied to them by TASHSEL'MASH, but from June 1955 UZBEKSEL'MASH has been making its own crank shafts, and under the new Five-Year Plan will produce more parts than it now obtains under agreement. No production figures have been given; the August 1955 quota for cotton seeders was 700, although 637 machines only were produced. In September the quota was 150 machines short.

There seem to be under ten shops in the factory, engaged in mixed

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tasks; specialization will be a part of the new Plan. The mechanization of the Works is far from complete; only the foundry is described as having much new machinery - it has a large hydraulic press, a 500 ton press, an 800 kg. pneumatic hammer, and is to have two friction presses of 150 and 250 tons. The factory director is Stykaylo.

CHIRCHIKSEL'MASH, the Chirchik Agricultural Machinery Works (Manager, V. Petrikin), produces cultivators (NKU 2.4, 2.7, 2.8), guza (cotton-pod) harvesting machines with SGN binders, and kurak (cotton stalk) harvesters (SKN 2.4). The 1955 planned production figures were 10, 8, and 4,000 respectively. The last item only began production in July 1955. The machine was tested in Uzbekistan in use with the UPKh 1.5A cotton gin, and covered 10 hectares a day. As only ten a day were being produced in October, it seems that the plan was not being fulfilled. Deliveries from other factories were involved: the Magnitogorsk Metal Works, the Pervoural'sk New Tube Works, the Vyksan Tube Works, UZBEKSEL'MASH, KZYL-OLOV and the neighbouring SREDAZKHIMMASH (Central Asian Chemical Machinery Works) were to supply castings, seats and other parts. These deliveries were not made on time.

The Works has much new equipment, a new separate painting and drying shop, and a conveyor for grey iron castings, but there have been complaints that this equipment is not in the hands of qualified personnel.

Repair and accessory works

The USSR Ministry has some of the larger repair and small parts works under its control, such as AVTOTRAKTORODETAL' (Tashkent), TRAKTORODETAL' (Stalinabad) and KRASNYY DVIKATEL' ("Red Engine", Samarkand).

AVTOTRAKTORODETAL' and KRASNYY DVIKATEL' both produce replacements and components for motor and tractor engines in use in Central Asia, Kazakhstan, Siberia and the Altay. Both factories are said to be supplied with the most modern machinery. As has already been said, no tractors are made in Central Asia itself. Three types are most commonly mentioned as in use; the UNIVERSAL, made in Vladimir, the STALINETS (S 80) made in Chelyabinsk, and the DT 54, which is made in Stalingrad and Kharkov. It would seem probable that most of the DT 54 tractors in use in Central Asia come from the large Altay Plant established at Rubtsovsk (Altay Kray, RSFSR) with equipment transferred from danger areas during the war.

The Frunze Repair Works makes machine tools for MTS, sovkhos and kolkhoz workshops, spare parts for tractors and farm machinery, and services tractors, and tractor and combine harvester engines. In 1955 all sections of the works were concentrated in one building with the exception

of the motor vehicle repair shop. A senior technician of the Works, I. Lagoda, writing in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA on the 29th September, said that there were eighteen men at work in this shop, and that they could give a complete overhaul to only five engines a month; 4 per cent of the total output of the Works. Nevertheless, more than half of the complaints received had to do with the work of this shop; some engines had been there since 1954; it would be better to do away with this shop altogether, or to unite it with the engine repair shop. In later articles in the press there has been no indication that this has been or is to be done.

The Stalinabad Tractor Parts Works - TRAKTORODETAL' - was opened in 1945. There is a foundry, a machine shop, a heat-treatment shop and a shop for high-frequency current heat treatment. The Works makes fourteen articles, among them pistons, piston fingers, bascule bearings, grooved shafts, fan belts, bobs for the UNIVERSAL tractor and pumps for the ZIS. Parts have been sent to the Altay, Kazakhstan, the Far East, the Ukraine, Belorussia, Moldavia, the Karelo-Finnish and Chuvash Republics, and abroad to Rumania, Hungary, Bulgaria and Czechoslovakia. From 1945 to 1955 nearly three million pistons and over four million piston fingers were produced. The works manager is a Russian, Semenov.

The various republican Ministries of Agriculture maintain repair works in Tadzhikistan at Nau, Kurgan-Tyube and Ordzhonikidzeabad; in Uzbekistan at Tashkent and Urgench; in Kirgizia at Osh and Kurshab; and in Kazakhstan at Alma-Ata (20 YEARS OF OCTOBER), at Dzhambul, at Tayncha (Kokchetav oblast) at Akmolinsk (METALLIST) at Pavlodar (OCTOBER), at Aktyubinsk (BOL'SHEVIK), at Karaganda (The Parkhomenko Works and the Osakarov Works), Mankent and Ural'sk, where a new repair works, in addition to the already existing Machine Works, was opened in November 1955. This list is not exhaustive. The Ministry of Sovkhozes in Kazakhstan has machine works at Alma-Ata and Kustanay.

These factories, in addition to repair work, have usually their own special articles of production; Mankent produces combine harvester spare parts and engine washing machines, Dzhambul DT 54 tractor spare parts and water sprinklers, Akmolinsk winnowing machines, Kustanay maize drills, and the Alma-Ata factories grain-cleaning machines, grain-loading machines and field kitchens. At times they may all be given the same order for an urgently needed machine; thus, in the winter of 1954 almost all the Kazakh factories named were put on to the production of snow ploughs, for furrowing the snow and so aiding water conservation. Orders for machinery, and not merely for components, are sometimes given to the factories of other authorities. Thus a result of the maize campaign was an order to the Chkalov Works (Ministry of Local and Fuel Industry, Uzbek SSR) to assemble 1,000 silage cutters to be made by twelve other Tashkent

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factories. The Chkalov Works has also made tanks for defoliant sprays; in November 1955 it was producing boiling-tanks for milk, and automatic drinking troughs for cattle.

Future development

The most interesting development in the Central Asian farm machinery industry as a whole under the new Five-Year Plan, apart from improvements in already existing factories, will be the opening of the largest works in the industry in the USSR near Pavlodar (Kazakhstan) to build grain and maize combine harvesters and components. The site is already being prepared; the building of the Works will involve the construction of many subsidiary undertakings. Although the New Lands policy has undoubtedly been immediately responsible for this development, the accessibility of the new combine factory will have an importance for cereal growers in South Kazakhstan and Central Asia as well.

Source

Central Asian Press.

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THE NEW COALFIELDS OF KAZAKHSTAN

Introduction - New coal deposits - The Ekibastuz basin - New workings at Ekibastuz - Current production - Future expansion.

In addition to the Karaganda Coal Basin several other coal deposits have recently been discovered in Kazakhstan, according to a paper read by Samsonov, director of the Kazakhuglegeologia (Coal-geology Authority of Kazakhstan), at a conference of geologists held at Karaganda in October 1955. Some of these new deposits have already been brought into production. (See Central Asian Review, Vol.I, No.3, THE KARAGANDA COAL-FIELDS, p.78.)

One of these new coalfields is Churubay-Nura, 45 km. south-west of Karaganda. The first coal-mine (No.6/7) started production in 1955 and five more are under construction. The coking coal mined in this region is obtained from the so-called "Dolinskaya Seriya" and is of great importance to the metallurgical industries of Kazakhstan and the Urals.

New deposits within the Karaganda coal basin have been found in the Dubovskiy area, where it is planned to open up several large new mines in the next few years; an opencast working with an average output of 1,500,000 tons per annum should start production between 1956 and 1960.

New brown coal deposits have been discovered in Semiozernoje, Kara-Su and Amangel'dy rayons in the Kustanay oblast. The survey of one of the largest of these, in the Ubagan river valley near the settlement of Kushmurun, was recently completed.

The last, but by no means the least, of these new coalfields, are the Ekibastuz deposits which lie near the new Akmolinsk-Pavlodar railway, about 140 km. south-west of the latter town. Coal was discovered in this area by a shepherd in 1876 who saw the soil burning under the fire he had lit; the first shafts were sunk seventy years ago. In the 1890s the VOSKRESENSKOYE Stock Company started mining coal on a very small scale, and according to KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 9th July 1955, "an English capitalist", Leslie Urquhart, under the name of the Kirgiz Mining Company, was digging in this area before the first World War. Since the second

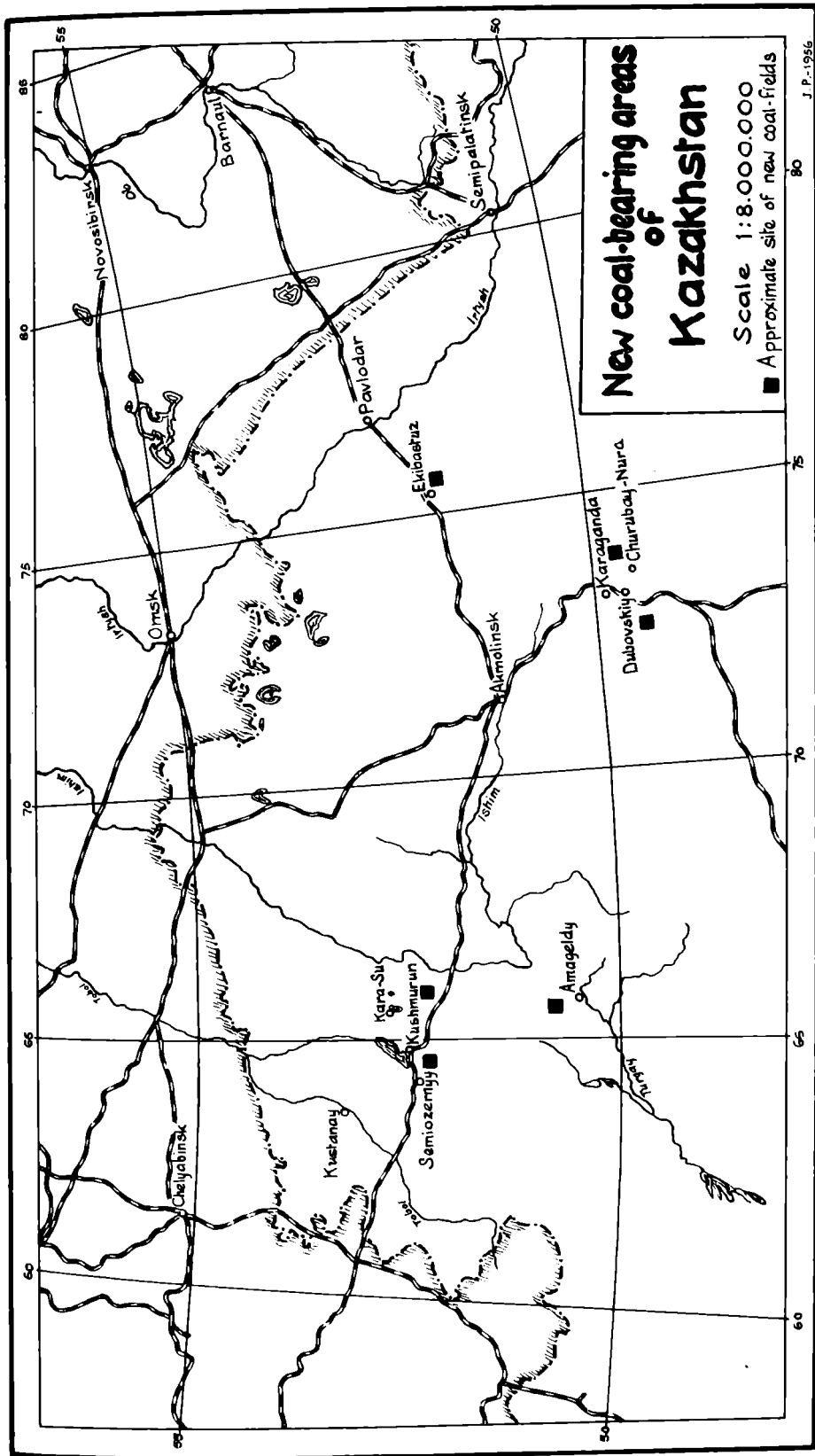
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World War research at Ekibastuz has established the existence of a coal-field 13 km. long and 6 km. wide. According to the data obtained, there are five thick coal seams relatively near the surface. The average thickness of the upper coal-bearing horizon is about 20 metres. The second layer, which is separated from the first horizon by a small deposit of clayey shales, is 30.5 metres thick including 25.4 metres of coal-bearing strata; this is the richest single seam at Ekibastuz - its ash content is up to 28 per cent and the volatile content 24 per cent. The third seam includes 53.2 metres of coal strata, the ash content of which is 30 per cent and the volatile matter 25-26 per cent. Seam four strikes 56.2 metres below seam three and is 26 metres thick, the coal deposits reaching 15 metres; the coal contains 31.5 per cent ash and about 25 per cent of volatile matter. Finally, under a 7-8 metre thick rock strata is the fifth seam, which is still being studied.

The first large opencast working, the Irtysh, was sunk at Ekibastuz in 1949 and production was started in December 1954. The large "Uralmash" (3 metre scoop) excavators are in use here and also a number of the so-called "walking excavators" which serve to cut access trenches. Automatic loading of rock and coal is now being introduced at the Ekibastuz mines. The Irtysh opencast working is the first of ten strip mines which are to be sunk at Ekibastuz in the immediate future. The opening up of the second and third workings was started in 1955. In February 1955 the coal output of the Irtysh working did not exceed 3,200 tons per day, by June it had risen to 5,600 tons and in July had reached 7,400 tons. Since then several large, new excavators have been brought into use and output was expected to be doubled, or even trebled, by the end of 1955.

The speed of loading the coal into the trains is being gradually raised. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 9th July 1955 says that a single excavator can load sixteen dumpcars in three hours and in individual cases an excavator-mechanic can load 900 tons of coal per shift. There are, however, difficulties in that rock can easily be scooped up with the coal and this has later to be separated to avoid its mixing with the coal. At present six to seven trainloads of good coking coal are sent daily from Ekibastuz to the Ural industries. Last summer an average of 2,000 - 2,200 tons of coal per day was being loaded by the excavators; these figures are well above the set norms.

Professor G.N. Cherdantsev in EKONOMICHESKAYA GEOGRAFIYA SSSR (Moscow, 1954) refers to the Ekibastuz coal basin already as a "second Karaganda": when all the strip mines projected in this area have been opened up the coalfields could yield up to 30 million tons per annum (the planned annual output capacity of a large opencast working is 3 million tons). The calorific value of the coal in this area varies between 7-8,000 calories.



New coal-bearing areas of Kazakhstan

Scale 1:8,000,000

■ Approximate site of new coal-fields

Its nearness to the Altay industrial region will enable a large fuel base for the Altay, Pavlodar, and Semipalatinsk industries to be created here and will influence the further expansion of these industries, especially of non-ferrous metallurgy.

At present 57 coal-bearing horizons, with a total thickness of 121 metres, have been prospected in the Karaganda basin; these reserves alone are enough to ensure coal production for hundreds of years to come. Soviet geologists estimate the enormous coal resources of the Ekibastuz coalfields at billions of tons; by exploiting these resources and building up Ekibastuz within the framework of the general industrial and agricultural plan for northern Kazakhstan, the development of this area could be greatly accelerated. These and the other new coalfields in Kazakhstan will contribute considerably towards the solution of the fuel problem in this part of the Soviet Union.

. . .

The opening up of the new coalfields in Kazakhstan has brought with it the social problems so familiar in the new towns and settlements of Central Asia. Skilled miners have come from other mining areas, such as Chelyabinsk, Sverdlovsk and Karaganda; there is a severe shortage of living accommodation for these and other workers although hundreds of small houses and blocks of flats have already been completed, as well as nursery and secondary schools, an evening school for juvenile workers, a school of music, a miners' clubhouse, a "palace of culture", stadium, shops and hospital. Improvements in accommodation are promised for the immediate future, but in the meantime the overcrowded living conditions are one of the main difficulties of the whole project.

Sources

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

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

A STUDY OF CONDITIONS FOR THE 1955-57 PLAN

I General - II Railways - III Roads - IV Allocation of freights between rail and road - V Water transport.

The following is an abridged version of an article dated November 1955, by I. LAVROV and P. NEKRASOV, published in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKH-SKOY SSR, 1955, No.11. It is supplemented by items extracted from the daily press. This article adds considerably to the information given in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW Vol.III, No.3, pp.199-203. It should be noted that the map is not drawn to scale; locations are only approximate; and some of the places mentioned in the text of the article it has been impossible to locate at all.

The article deals chiefly with the grain-producing oblasts: North-Kazakhstan, Kustanay, Kokchetav, Akmolinsk and Pavlodar. The oblasts, 22 per cent of the area of Kazakhstan, have 60 per cent of the virgin and derelict land to deal with. In 1956 they are to produce 10m. tons of grain: five times as much as in 1953. Roads and railways, then, must be greatly extended and improved.

Although northern Kazakhstan is linked by existing lines with the Ural area, western Siberia, Altay, central and southern Kazakhstan and the Central Asian republics, it is considerably poorer in railways than the other grain-producing areas of the Soviet Union.

I General

1,710 km. of narrow-gauge railway are being built in the huge area between the head-waters of the Tobol and the Irtysh, and the length of railway in northern Kazakhstan will be increased by 70 per cent. In this area of 18.5m. hectares there were at the beginning of 1954 hardly more than 40

sovkhozes: when the railways are built there will be more than 200; and the area sown with grain in 1956-57 will be four times as great as that in 1953.

Of roads, 1,340 km. are to be built and surfaced in 1955-57; 460 km. of these roads are of national importance.

The correct distribution of transport-building facilities is of fundamental importance; a detailed technico-economic study of this was carried out between June and September 1955 by the North-Kazakhstan detachment of the mixed Transport Study Group of the USSR Academy of Sciences and of the Economic Institute of the Kazakh SSR Academy of Sciences.

Then follow a systematic analysis of the task which is to be completed in 1957, and a description of the roads, railways, etc., as they will be, viz.:

Total freights in 1957 are to be four times as great as those of 1954 and are to be divided among different goods in the following percentages:

Industrial	. . .	3.5
Grain	. . .	53.1
Other agricultural freights		.8
Consumer goods	. . .	4
Building materials	. . .	22.4
Liquid freight	. . .	6.3
Other freights	. . .	9.9

i.e. mostly agricultural products and building materials.

The different freight-turnovers of four oblasts, Pavlodar oblast being left out, as percentages of that of the whole of northern Kazakhstan will be: Kustanay, 39.8; Kokchetav, 28.1; Akmolinsk, 24.2; North-Kazakhstan, 7.9; so that their patterns of transport must be different, and must depend on the location of existing main lines, the dimensions of the oblast and the distribution of grain-growing land.

A plan has been worked out on this basis for the four oblasts which envisages the minimum of expense on building, the maximum area served and the smallest extent of road and railway that is adequate. In all about 2,000 km. of railway and more than 3,000 km. of motor roads are to be built: this does not include motor roads which carry less than 70-100 thousands a year.

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II Railways

(It should be noted that the Russian standard ('broad') gauge is 1.524 metres (5 feet) wide. Under 'narrow' gauge are included 1 metre, .9 metres (these for industrial lines: mines, etc.), .75 metres (forestry and agricultural lines), and .6 metres.)

Most important of all is a broad-gauge railway running Kustanay - Kokchetav - Kzyl-Tu - Kaymanachikha. [Ed.note: Hitherto only a narrow-gauge railway has been mentioned as planned to run between these points.]

The following table shows the freight-density planned for 1957 on this line in thousands of tons:

Sections of the railway	Length in km.	F R E I G H T S			
		Inward		Outward	
		Total	Grain	Total	Grain
1. Kustanay-Uritskoye	129	2,058	-	4,336	4,273
2. Uritskoye-Peski	124	1,896	-	3,804	3,746
3. Peski-Volodarskoye	80	1,455	-	2,876	2,737
4. Volodarskoye-Kokchetav	89	1,342	-	2,621	2,470
5. Kokchetav-Chkalovo	80	1,011	-	1,407	1,384
6. Chkalovo-Kzyl-Tu	123	893	-	1,214	1,210
7. Kzyl-Tu - Kaymanachikha	69	605	-	970	969

And this table, the number of kolkhozes, etc., in the four oblasts, served by the railway:

Names of Oblasts	Number of institutions served by the railway			
	Kolkhozes	Sovkhozes	MTS	Storage-points, remote or close to transport
1. Kokchetav	169	40	19	53
2. Kustanay	88	22	13	18
3. N.-Kazakhstan	26	11	7	11
4. Pavlodar	6	17	16	2

The area served will be considerably enlarged; the new line will deal with grain carried by the Akmolinsk - Kokchetav sections of the Trans-Kazakhstan railway; it will considerably lighten the load on the Akmolinsk - Kartaly section of the Karaganda railway, which is increasing year by year; and, since it goes through areas which are far from main lines, will considerably shorten the distances over which grain has to be carried - it is now transported by motor road or narrow-gauge railway to the existing main lines - and will therefore shorten the time taken by the grain to go from northern Kazakhstan to the areas where it is consumed.

Items from the daily press

(These refer to the progress of the narrow-gauge Kustanay-Kaymanachickha line.)

PRAVDA VOSTOKA

10th August 1955: Kustanay eastwards: the 138 km. of rail-bed, Kustanay - Uritskoye, are finished, and the first construction-train has arrived at Uritskoye. /Ed.note: This stretch of line was to have been finished by August./ Work on the rail-bed, Uritskoye-

COMMUNICATIONS

Peski, has begun.

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

4th February 1956: This was reported to be continuing, and on the Kustanay-Uritskoye stretch buildings and auxiliary constructions were being put up.

14th August 1955: Kokchetav westwards: The rail-bed to Volodarskoye has been completed, and was getting nearer daily to Ruzayevka [Ed.note: this may mean "the Ruzayev rayon"/]; and will temporarily be ready for traffic by 15th August, the beginning of harvest.

Kokchetav eastwards: A broad-gauge line is being laid, of which 80 km. will be opened in September. Rails have been laid on 70 km. and trains will temporarily begin to run this distance to Chkalovo. Ballasting of the stretch to Kzyl-Tu is under way, but held up by bad supply from Karaganda railway quarries.

14th August 1955: Kokchetav is becoming a complex of stations. By the elevator a station is being built - Kokchetav-Uzkokoleynaya - with all equipment for transferring corn from narrow-gauge to broad-gauge trucks and vice versa. Raz'yezd 15 (a raz'yezd is a station at which a single-line track becomes double) where the new broad-gauge line joins existing lines, forms Kokchetav III station; Kokchetav II is 6 km. away in the direction of Chkalovo.

4th February 1956: At Kustanay-Uzkokoleynaya a depot is being built, and water-pipes laid.

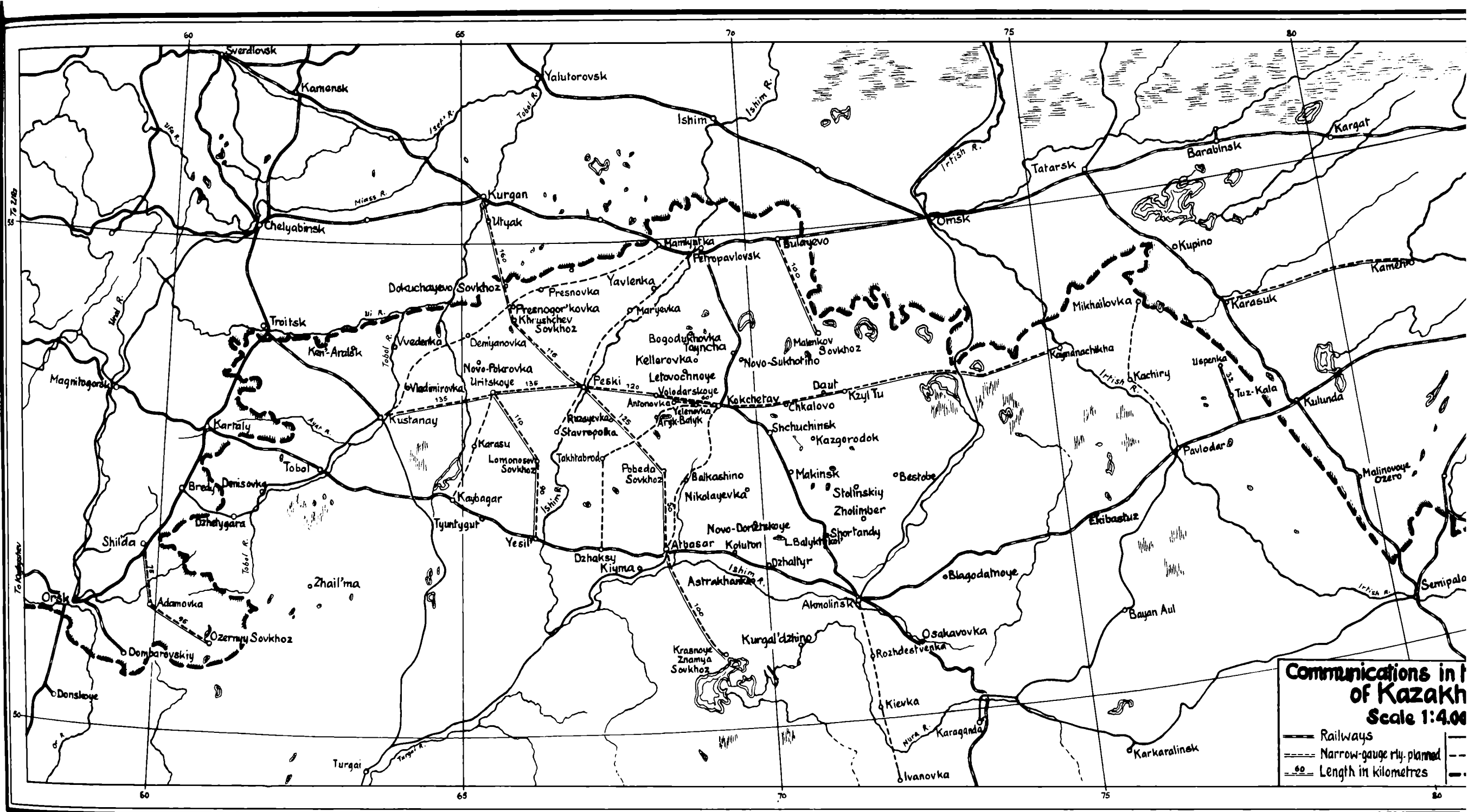
Atbasar - POBEDA sovkhov - Peski - Kurgan (narrow-gauge)
(N.B. This line also serves the KHRUSHCHEV sovkhov.)

This line will run through the North-Kazakhstan, Akmolinsk, Kustanay and Kokchetav oblasts: it will carry grain from Ruzayev and Aryk-Balyk rayons to the South-Siberian main line and to the Kustanay-Kaymanachika line, and grain from the Presnogor'kovka rayon to Kurgan station.

Items from the daily press

PRAVDA

19th August 1955: The stretch Utyak-KHRUSHCHEV sovkhov is nearing com-



**Communications in
of Kazakh
Scale 1:400**

— Railways
 - - - Narrow-gauge rly. planned
 - 60 - Length in kilometres

pletion. The first train from Kurgan to Troyebratnaya (Kazakhstan) ran on 18th August, with building materials for fifteen sovkhoses in the New Lands: this is the beginning of a regular service. Since the beginning of Spring 1955, 159 km. of rails and sleepers have been laid. The builders have undertaken to finish up to 165 km. and open a service as far as Kayrankul' by 25th August.

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

19th October 1955: A new broad-gauge line is being begun from Utyak (18 km. south of Kurgan) to Peski. It is to run for 275 km. in the Kurgan, Kustanay, North-Kazakhstan and Kokchetav oblasts. The builders are heaping up the track at the 198th kilometre, not far from DOKUCHAYEVO sovkhos in the North-Kazakhstan oblast, where there will be a raz'yezd; and a little further on will be Suly station at TIMIRYAZEV sovkhos. Traffic is running on 170 km. of line, half of it in the North-Kazakhstan oblast. The new line has taken hundreds of tons of necessaries to the sovkhoses, and brought back thousands of tons of grain from the new harvest. The builders are trying to get the line working as far as Suly by 7th November.

4th February 1956: Traffic has begun between Kurgan and Peski, loads of seed-corn and building materials are going to KHMEL'NITSKIY, OZERNYY, BAUMAN and other new sovkhoses. Grain-stores are being built at Troyebratnaya station.

Yesil' (Raz'yezd 77) - LOMONOSOV sovkhos - Uritskoye (narrow-gauge)

This line is to serve the new sovkhoses in the Yesil' (Akmolinsk oblast), Ruzayev (Kokchetav oblast) and Uritskoye (Kustanay oblast) rayons, which lie along the Ishim river. In the Akmolinsk oblast this line will pass through only two sovkhoses, ZHANYSPAYSKIY and DAL'NYANSKIY. The majority of the grain-traffic will be in the Ruzayev rayon, most of it for Yesil' and the rest for Uritskoye.

Items from the daily press

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

15th September 1955: 90 km. of narrow-gauge line are in use between Yesil' and LOMONOSOVO. Transport of grain will be accelerated from the new grain-sovkhoses of TSELINNYI, LOMONOSOV and ZARECHNYI.

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4th October 1955: A long article complained of the bottle-neck at Yesil' station, where freights, especially building materials were dumped, or delayed in their trucks, because of bad organization. On 30th October the paper reports that there has been a thorough re-organization and that some people have been removed from their posts; although the orders of the Ministry of Town and Country Building, that building material freights should be handled by stations' own staffs, are still not being obeyed.

Atbasar - KRASNOYE ZNAMYA sovkhov (narrow-gauge)

This line will serve sovkhovs in the Yesil', Atbasar and Kurgal-dzhino rayons in the Akmolinsk oblast, and will be one of the most heavily-loaded narrow-gauge lines in northern Kazakhstan.

Bulayevo - MALENKOV sovkhov (narrow-gauge)

This line will serve new sovkhovs, kolkhozos and MTS in the Bulayevo rayon (North-Kazakhstan oblast) and sovkhovs in the Krasnoarmeyskiy (rayon centre, Novo-Sukhotino), Kzyl-Tu and Chkalovo rayons in the Kokchetav oblast. The Council of Ministers of the USSR have decided that the line shall be built only as far as MALENKOV sovkhov, but in this case it will not be connected with the other narrow-gauge lines. It is considered that it is essential to extend it to join the Kokchetav - Kaymanachikha line, which would lessen the amount of shunting to be done and make it possible to send by it a stream of building materials of which there are not enough in the North-Kazakhstan oblast; e.g. stone from Daut. [Ed.note: About 30 km. west of Kzyl-Tu.] (For the availability of building materials in Kazakhstan, see CAR, Vol.III, No.2, pp. 95-96.)

Items from the daily press

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

24th August 1955: Shipments of grain from MALENKOV sovkhov to Bulayevo have begun. Applications for transport of grain are coming in from many sovkhovs; it will go by the new lines from five rayons in three oblasts: North-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav and Omsk. It is intended to move hundreds of thousands of tons of grain from the New Lands by this line in the current year.

Raz'yezd 77 (Yesil') - DERZHAVIN sovkhov - ROSTOVSKIY sovkhov (narrow-gauge)

This will serve twenty-three new grain sovkhovs in the Yesil' rayon, Akmolinsk oblast and will be the most heavily loaded of all the projected narrow-gauge lines. At the approaches to Raz'yezd 77 the load on the railway will reach 820,000 tons, which is quite enough for a narrow-gauge railway.

There is no more in this newspaper article about particular stretches of railway, but the following news items are of interest:

Items from the daily press

1. Kustanay - Tobol (gauge not stated)

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

26th October 1955: Work on the rail-bed of this new railway is going forward quickly. 25-metre rails of heavy type, with sleepers close together, will permit heavily loaded trains to go at increased speeds. 1,800 km. are to be built, including a bridge over the Ayat river. The line will link the South-Ural railway with the Karaganda line, take Sokolovsko-Sarbay ore to the Ural area and improve communication between Kustanay and the southern rayons of the oblast. The builders are trying to ensure movement of traffic as far as the Sokolovsko-Sarbay kombinat by 7th November. Kustanay will be transformed from a terminal station to an important junction.

18th November 1955: The rail-bed is now more than 60 km. long, and over 30 km. of rails have been laid. A ferro-concrete bridge is being built over the Ayat. Construction-trains are moving between Kustanay and Sokolovskaya, and a telephone line joins the two. The line is to be open for traffic as far as Sarbay by 5th December.

4th February 1956: Winter conditions have made construction very difficult. Forty kilometres have been laid, and traffic is running on the 30 km. stretch from Kustanay to Sokolovskaya.

2. Akmolinsk - Kartaly

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

3rd December 1955 and 20th January 1956: This broad-gauge line of

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800 km. has been doubled in less than a year, and 200 km. of sidings have been built. There was difficulty in taking the line over the flooded Koluton river.

3. Yesil - Turgay

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA

20th January and 4th February 1956: New industrial regions will be opened up by this line, where building is going on. There is a description of the bauxite mines which are to be started at Turgay in the remote steppe. Fifty kilometres of the rail-bed have been laid, and a transshipment point has been constructed at Yesil'.

Ed.note: Turgay is in the Amangel'dy rayon, Kustanay oblast. The distance is about 350 km. and the line will have to cross the Ishim river. /

III Roads

The following entirely new lines of communication must be considered in order to complete the study group's proposals:

- (1) Raz'ezd 77 (Yesil') - ROSTOVSKIY sovkhov.
- (2) Shortandy - IZOBIL'NIY sovkhov.
- (3) Dzhaksy - Ruzayevka.
- (4) Atbasar - Balkashino.
- (5) Kokchetav - Yelenovka.
- (6) Makinsk - KAGANOVICH kolkhoz.
- (7) Novo-Pokrovka - Kiyaly.
- (8) Tayncha - Letovochnoye.
- (9) Ken'-Aralsk - Dzharkul'.
- (10) Novo-Pokrovka - Volodarskoye.
- (11) Tayncha - Chkalovo - Kzyl-Tu railway station - Kokchetav.
- (12) Shchuchinsk - Nikolayevka.
- (13) Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino.
- (14) Tyuntyugur - PANFILOV sovkhov.
- (15) Petropavlovsk - Krasnoyarka.
- (16) Astrakhanka - KRASNOGVARDEYSKIY sovkhov.

These proposals may be changed in the future, since some of the more heavily loaded motor roads may be made into narrow-gauge railways.

The motor road Shortandy station - IZOBIL'NYY sovkhov (2. See above) will provide communication among the sovkhovs, kolkhovs and MTS in the Shortandy, Stalinskiy and Erkenshilik (rayon centre, Blagodatnoye) rayons in the Akmolinsk oblast, and will connect the gold industry at Bestobe and Zholymbet with the Akmolinsk - Petropavlovsk railway. Since the road is long - 241 km. - it can be laid in two stretches, the first from Shortandy to MINSK sovkhov, where the density of freight varies between 342 and 150 thousand tons; and the second from here through Bestyube to IZOBIL'NYY sovkhov, where the minimum freight density is 43,000 tons.

A motor road Dzhaksky station - ZHARKUL' sovkhov - Ruzayevka (3) is proposed instead of the Dzhaksky - Takhtabrod road decided on by the Council of Ministers. It will pass within 70-75 km. of the projected Atbasar - POBEDA sovkhov - Peski narrow-gauge railway, and will serve a large area which will include the new ENTUZIAST, YAROSLAVSKIY, KALININ, LYUBIMOVSKIY and KIROV sovkhovs in the Akmolinsk oblast, and the SHEPTYKUL', ZHDANOV, ZHARKUL' and VOROVSKOY sovkhovs in the Kokchetav oblast. Moreover, the extension of the road from VOROVSKOY sovkhov to Ruzayevka, the chief town of the rayon, would assure communication among the oblasts of North-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav and Akmolinsk. The most heavily loaded section of the road will be that between Dzhaksky station and YAROSLAVSKIY sovkhov and the least that between VOROVSKOY and Ruzayevka.

The area served by a road between Dzhaksky station and Takhtabrod would be little more than half as big. It would include the ENTUZIAST, KIROV and KALININ sovkhovs in the Akmolinsk oblast, and in the Kokchetav oblast would pass close to the Atbasar - Peski narrow-gauge railway, which takes the weight of the freight in this area.

A motor road between Atbasar and Balkashino (4) is considered not merely as a prolongation of the Kokchetav-Balkashino road proposed by the Council of Ministers: it will incontestably play a great part in the communications between the Kokchetav and Akmolinsk oblasts.

A road between Kokchetav and Yelenovka (5) is necessary for traffic from the Aryk-Balyk motor road to get to Kokchetav; more than 100,000 tons of grain for Kokchetav will be carried along it. Supposing that grain constitutes up to 50 per cent of the freight, the loads to be carried by the Aryk-Balyk road and the Yelenovka - Kokchetav section will be ample reason for building. The density of freight round Yelenovka will be up to 200,000, and in the approaches to Kokchetav up to 234,000 tons.

A motor road between Raz'yezd 63 (Kocherzhinovka) and Zhail'ma will allow freight to pass from the Ordzhonikidze rayon (rayon centre, Deni-

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sovka), Kustanay oblast, to Kocherzhinovka railway station, and will serve sixteen sovkhoses most of them recently set up. The greatest freight density on the road is expected at the approach to Denisovka, where the road will fork, to go to Kocherzhinovka or to Tobol. Both these branches will have a density of more than 250,000 tons at the approach to the railway station.

A motor road between Makinsk and KAGANOVICH kolkhoz (6) will be the first modern road in Enbekshil'der rayon (rayon centre, Kazgorodok), Kokchetav oblast. It will pass through Kazgorodok, and will serve six sovkhoses, four of them new.

A road between Astrakhanka and Makinsk will connect with the Petropavlovsk - Akmolinsk - Karaganda and the Kartaly - Akmolinsk railways. Wheat will be brought to Novo-Donetskoye village and thence to Makinsk or Dzhaltyr stations. An extension of this road from Astrakhanka to KRASNOGVARDEYSKIY sovkhos, to be built at a later stage, is to carry wheat from the new sovkhoses in the Novo-Cherkassk rayon (rayon centre, Astrakhanka); Akmolinsk oblast, to Dzhaltyr station.

A motor road running Stavropolka - Mar'yevka - Petropavlovsk, when there are the narrow-gauge lines Yesil' - LOMONOSOV sovkhos - Uritskoye and Atbasar - Peski - Kurgan, will have not much freight before Yavlenka. The greatest density on the road, about 263,000 tons, is expected to be at the approach to Petropavlovsk; the least will be only 13,000 tons. This road, which for the most part follows the Ishim River, will serve kolkhoses, sovkhoses and MTS in the Ruzayev rayon (Kokchetav oblast), and in the Oktyabrskiy, Leninskiy and Priishimskiy rayons of the North-Kazakhstan oblast.

A motor road running Kaybagar - Karasu - SEVASTOPOL' sovkhos will serve kolkhoses, sovkhoses, MTS and storage points in the Karasu rayon (Kustanay oblast). It will provide communication for the rayon with Kaybagar station and with the Yesil' - Uritskoye narrow-gauge railway. The greatest density - over 200,000 tons - is expected in the approaches to Kaybagar, and the least - about 93,000 tons - in the approaches to the narrow-gauge railway.

The road between Novo-Petrovka - Kiyaly (7) is proposed, in spite of the opinion of the need for a road between Kiyaly - Yavlenka. The latter would pass at a distance from the main kolkhoz area of the North-Kazakhstan oblast, which lies to the south-west of Lake Balyktykol', and from the wheat-producing northern part of Kellorovka rayon, in the Kokchetav oblast. Both these areas are poorly provided with roads. The result of the construction of a road Kiyaly - Bogodukhovka - Novo-

Pokrovka would be very great, since it would pass directly through these areas. From it another road, from Novo-Pokrovka, would join the Kustanay - Kokchetav railway at Volodarskoye: it would serve, mainly, agricultural undertakings in the Airtav rayon (rayon centre, Volodarskoye), Kokchetav oblast, and a small part of the Oktyabrskiy rayon to the south of Novo-Pokrovka in the North-Kazakhstan oblast.

A motor road Tayncha - Letovochnoye (8) would go through Kellerovka, the centre of the rayon of that name in the Kokchetav oblast, and would carry wheat from this and the Krasnoarmeyskiy rayons to Tayncha railway station. 100,000 tons of wheat are to be carried in this way in 1957. A natural extension of this road will be the motor road Tayncha - Chkalovo - Kokchetav (railway station) - Kzyl-Tu. This latter will serve the Chkalovo and Krasnoarmeyskiy rayons in the Kokchetav oblast, and will carry wheat to Tayncha station (up to 76,000 tons) and to the Kokchetav - Kzyl-Tu railway (62,000 tons).

A motor road Ken'-Aral'sk - Dzharkul' (9) will cross the Fedorovka rayon (Kustanay oblast) Ed.note: there are two places called Fedorovka in the oblast, one north-west of Kustanay, the other north-east and ensure communication for four big wheat sovkhoses, MTS, six kolkhoses and five storage-points, with Dzharkul' railway station. Two more sovkhoses are projected for the area served by it. The highest load is expected at the approaches to Dzharkul' station - about 200,000 tons in 1957.

A motor road Tyuntyugur - PANFILOV sovkhos (14) will be something quite new in the Kustanay oblast transport system. It is made necessary by two to five new sovkhoses in the Semiozernoye and Amangel'dy rayons. Freight density in the approaches to Tyuntyugur station will grow to 150,000 or 200,000 tons.

A motor road Dzhetygara - Bredy will serve the Dzhetygara rayon of the Kustanay oblast; that is, six sovkhoses, one MTS, seven kolkhoses and six remote storage-points, and the Dzhetygara gold-industry. Maximum freight-density will be 150,000 tons.

A motor road Kustanay - Vvedenka will link the Vvedenka rayon, Kustanay oblast, with Kustanay itself, and will be used by part of the Kustanay rayon. It will carry a great load: the maximum will be at the approaches to Kustanay, about 180,000 tons; the minimum will be up to 100,000 tons.

A road Akmolinsk - Nurinsk Ed.note: presumably in the Nura rayon, Karaganda oblast, rayon centre, Kiyevka will run through Akmolinsk rayon. Agricultural undertakings in the Kurgal'dzhino rayon will be 30 -

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40 km. away. Maximum load will reach 150,000 tons, but this cannot be taken to be constant. For most of the sovkhoses in the Kurgal'dzhino rayon a nearer road is that from Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino (13), but they are separated from it by the Nura river. When the floods are out it will be difficult for them to get to this road, and they will have to use the Akmolinsk-Nurinsk road. At other times the bulk of the freight will go by the Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino road. So, if one does not consider such a temporary factor as the flooding of the Nura, the freight-turnover on the Akmolinsk - Nurinsk road will be little more than half what it is at present. (This takes no account of inter-oblast communication.) The building of the Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino road must be considered to be the more important, and the Akmolinsk - Nurinsk road can be built later.

The motor roads Shchuchinsk - Nikolayevsk (Kokchetav oblast) (12), Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino (Akmolinsk oblast) (13) and Petropavlovsk - Kraznoyarka (North-Kazakhstan oblast) (15), which will each have a maximum load of 100,000 tons, are planned in order to link the Shchuchinsk, Kurgal'dzhino and Sokolovka rayons with the broad-gauge railways. These will be the only modern roads in the above rayons.

IV Allocation of Freights between Rail and Road

When the communications enumerated above have been completed, the transport system of the North-Kazakhstan, Kokchetav, Akmolinsk and Kustanay oblasts will consist of 3,037 km. of motor road and 1,765 km. of railway. The much larger part of the freight will be carried by rail. The proportions of the total freight carried by rail and road in the four different oblasts will be (in percentages):

	<u>By rail</u>	<u>By road</u>
Kustanay	71	29
North-Kazakhstan	67.5	32.5
Akmolinsk	57	43
Kokchetav	86.8	13.2

The expansion of the transport system will enable it to serve 77 per cent of the kolkhozes, 80 per cent of the MTS and 90 per cent of the remote storage-points in the four oblasts under review.

Items from the daily press

(The following items have all been taken from KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA):

Osakarovka - Kiyevka (Nura rayon)

13th August 1955: The building of a 95 km. stretch is proceeding at full speed, the work being done by MDS 14. Several dozen kilometres of road-bed have been laid, and it is being metalled at the same time; later it will be surfaced with asphalt.

Kokchetav - Ruzayevka

14th August 1955: The earth-road is being surfaced.

Kustanay - Demyanovka

25th October 1955: Mechanized work is going on near Vladimirovka; the road-bed is being levelled and laid. The road is being bound experimentally with "black earth", a new method which is simple and cheap. Black earth, like bitumen for asphalt, is obtainable everywhere about here, whereas road-metal may have to be fetched long distances. The process is explained and the apathy of the Ministry of Construction, and especially of the Roads Research Institute, is complained of.

Petropavlovsk - Mar'yevka and Kustanay - Demyanovka

13th November 1955: 186 km. of road-bed have been laid.

General

7th December 1955: Until recently out of 108,000 km. of motor road in Kazakhstan only 4,440 km. were surfaced; of these 38,000 km. in all were in the Akmolinsk, Kustanay, Kokchetav, North-Kazakhstan and Pavlodar oblasts. Many of them were impassable in spring and autumn because of the thaw, and in winter because of snow, and much grain was left uncartered. Thirteen new MDS and six road-building areas have been set up in the New Lands. 700 km. of road were to be built in 1955 and 3,000 in 1955-57. (The figures projected in March 1955, were 700 km. and 2,600 km: see CAR, Vol.III, No.3, p.201.) More than 900 km. of road-bed has been laid, and 23 km. of surfaced road; the foundation has been laid for 175 km. more. The following important roads were to be built:

Kustanay - Uritskoye - Ruzayevka - Kokchetav
 Pavlodar - Kachiry - Mikhaylovka (eventually to Omsk)
 Tobol - Dzhettygara - Bredy

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Kustanay - Vorovskoye - Demyanovka
Presnovka - Mar'yevka - Petropavlovsk and others.

Regular bus services have been started between Kokchetav - Kzyl-Tu; Atbasar - Balkashino; Ekibastuz - Bayan-Aul; Kustanay - Presnogor'kovka; Akmolinsk - Kurgal'dzhino; Atbasar - Kiyma; and others.

Inter-town passenger bus services now cover 5,800 km.

15th January 1956: In the past year in the Kustanay oblast 325 km. of road-bed have been laid, and 100 km. of foundation. Tobol-Denisovka: 19 km. are in use. Raz'yezd 63 (Kocherzhinovka) - Zhail'ma: 16 km. are in use. There are asphalt-and-concrete works at Kustanay and Vladimirovka, a further one at Vorovskoye will soon be ready, and a 'mechanized quarry' at Denisovka. A new MDS (No.6) is being set up at Karasu, and the six MDS in the Kustanay oblast are being organized into a 'trust'.

V Water Transport

Considering how much will have to be done by road transport and the unsatisfactory state of the motor roads, that part of the Ishim river which flows through the North-Kazakhstan oblast will have to be brought into the scheme. The transport system of five rayons can be improved by the organization of traffic on the Ishim, to begin with on the stretch Petropavlovsk - Mar'yevka. Calculations have shown that the principal bulk-freight that can be carried by the river is grain (up to 120,000 tons in one season). The freights will be going downstream, too, which will hasten their carriage and save fuel.

Before the big grain-freights come on in the summer, the river can also be used to carry building-materials from the Oktyabrskiy rayon (stone for building, lime and gravel) to Petropavlovsk and the regions close to the Ishim; the more so since there are no supplies of stone in the other rayons of North-Kazakhstan, and the need of Petropavlovsk for building-stone and lime grows from year to year. Upstream, fuel for MTS, kolkhozes and sovkhoses, industrial products and provisions, and building-materials will be carried.

An experimental trip from Petropavlovsk to Mar'yevka showed that the chief difficulty for powered boats was the remains of wooden bridges which had been laid across the river in the autumn for motor-transport to cross. After dredging and clearance work, the use of the river might be

perfectly practicable, and this form of transport might be used to bring construction materials for the middle part of the Kustanay - Peski - Kokchetav railway and for the Petropavlovsk - Mar'yevka motor-road.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

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

D O M E S T I C H O U S I N G

Introduction - Municipal housing - Private building - Uzbekistan -
Tadzhikistan - Kirgizia - Turkmenistan - Kazakhstan.

Since the war much more attention has been paid to domestic housing in the Central Asian republics and Kazakhstan. But in spite of the large number of flats and houses completed each year, demand from the rapidly expanding population still far outstrips the supply and many urban families are living in very overcrowded, not to say squalid, conditions: a flat or house to a family is still accounted a luxury. Two of the main difficulties are ever-recurring ones in Central Asian affairs, namely, lack of raw materials and uneconomic use of existing machinery. It is hoped to overcome the former by the construction of pre-fabricated wall-blocks (factories are now being built), and mechanized brick mills, of which twenty-three with a total output capacity of 767m. bricks a year will soon be completed in Kazakhstan alone. Ceramic and glass factories are under construction in Uzbekistan, and a large kombinat for building materials at Kurgan-Tyube (Kirgizia).

Criticism of domestic housing centres mainly on the neglect of existing buildings, which appears to be universal, poor sanitary conditions and lack of modern amenities. There is also criticism of the method of jumping from site to site in the case of new buildings without completing the work begun; this practice, also, appears to be fairly general. An interesting point is the popularity of individual houses as opposed to blocks of flats; obviously the greater speed with which these can be built has a great deal to do with it. (The fact that the construction of a block of flats has started is no assurance of early completion - it may be several years.) But local authorities, by allocating sites originally earmarked for flats, seem to be encouraging the trend. On the other hand, central authority is opposed to this deviation from planning.

Municipal housing

The officially favoured type of building for domestic housing is the four or five storey block of flats. These buildings have proved to be

the cheapest to construct and the most economical to maintain, in addition to which higher buildings are not practicable in this part of the USSR as earthquakes are fairly frequent. The flats are constructed by the municipalities or by industrial organizations for their personnel; all new buildings have central heating and other modern amenities.

Private building

Small private houses may be built by individuals for their own occupation. According to V.F. Maslov in PRAVO LICHOY SOBSTVENNOSTI NA ZHILY DOM V GORODE I RABOCHEM POSELKE (Moscow, 1954, pp.8 and 13), individual domestic accommodation in the form of private property owned either before "the great October Revolution" or built for their personal use since, is one of the rights of the Soviet citizen. Article 10 of the Constitution of the USSR proclaims the right of citizens to own their "earned income, savings, living accommodation, objects of individual consumption and comfort" and also the right to inherit private property if next of kin. This was confirmed and amplified by a decree of the Supreme Soviet on 26th August 1948 on the "right of citizens to purchase and build individual living accommodation", which has considerably encouraged private building. This decree also limited the size of houses which may be built by private citizens for their own use, to 1 - 5 rooms, the house not to be higher than two storeys. But individuals who owned larger houses prior to the promulgation of this decree, retain the right of ownership to the larger property.

Now that the right of the individual to build his own home has been recognized, the State provides for "gratuitous and unlimited use of sites" and grants to would-be owners in the way of long-term financial subsidies. To build a house a citizen of the USSR does not have to buy a building site because land is state property and cannot be bought or sold; it is therefore given to the individual free of charge. According to whether he lives in town or country, he applies for a site to his kray, oblast or rayon soviet and a site is allotted which accords with the approved town (or settlement) plan. In some areas the design of the house must conform to standards laid down in the town plan; in others it may follow an individual project. It is the responsibility of the local soviet to provide standard plans to those wishing to build their own house; a plan of the site and the approved design are attached to, and form an integral part of the contract. The local authority concerned must also ensure that building materials, means of transportation and labour are available for construction of the house when a site has been granted. "The builder has the right to begin construction on the site only after a written building permit from the executive committee of the town, or settlement, soviet has been obtained. A preliminary permit for construction is

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necessary both in the case of building on new sites and where the site is adjacent to an existing building (i.e. in a court-yard)." The size of the individual sites is determined by the executive committee of the oblast and rayon soviets and depends on local conditions. It can vary between 300 and 600 square metres in towns, to 700-1,200 square metres outside the town boundaries. (Ibid., pp.42-46.)

Uzbekistan

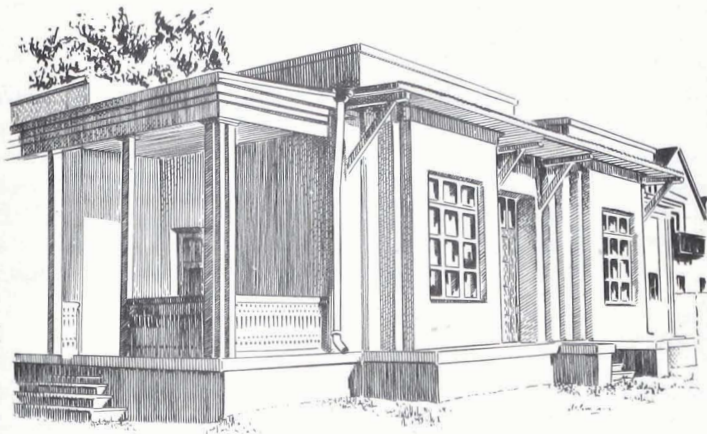
The replanning of Tashkent was the subject of a long controversy between the central Moscow authorities and the Uzbek Government. Usually town-plans for the capitals of Union republics are laid down in Moscow; Tashkent however rejected the Moscow project as unsuitable, firstly because they preferred a purely Uzbek style of architecture, and secondly because the area is subject to earth-tremors and therefore not suited to the high Moscow-style buildings. New plans were submitted by Tashkent and finally accepted by Moscow with some modifications. The project, which is now under way, allocates 60 per cent of the building resources for private houses, 20 per cent for two-storey blocks, and 20 per cent for five-storey blocks including some administrative buildings. Many miles of streets have already been asphalted, new parks and gardens laid out and a stadium for 50,000 people - the largest in Central Asia - is under construction. Domestic building is making good progress both in Tashkent and in the rest of Uzbekistan, and in the last three years 860,000 square metres of urban housing has been built in the republic. (The official allocation of living space per person is 9 square metres.)

The earlier Russian-type houses built in Uzbekistan have not been found satisfactory and were considered too ornate. In the thirties much of the new architecture was simple and plain, and in recent years Uzbek architecture has again been characterized by the absence of superfluous decoration.

Sanitary conditions are far from satisfactory in Tashkent and other large towns in Uzbekistan. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 18th September 1955 published a "compulsory regulation on the improvement of sanitary conditions and amenities in Tashkent" which exhorts "block managers, house owners, tenants and the commandants of administrative and other buildings" to ensure that yards, pavements, ditches and squares are watered and cleaned at least twice a day. Sanitary inspection has also been organized and according to PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 27th May 1955, has revealed some appalling hygienic conditions. The paper adds, however, that many tenant collectives have organized sanitary committees which, in addition to keeping their buildings clean, plant trees and flowers in the yards.

MODERN HOUSING IN CENTRAL ASIA

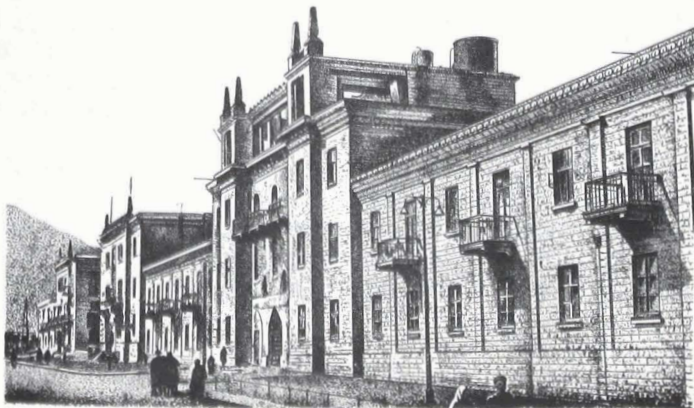
Reproduced from *Arkhitektura Respublik Sredney Azii*, Moscow, 1951.



Dwelling-house in Chirchik.



First three-storeyed blocks of flats in Stalinabad.



New blocks of flats in Kirov Street, Krasnovodsk.

Tadzhikistan

A great deal of new building is going on in Tadzhikistan especially at Stalinabad. Ferro-concrete factories have been built at Leninabad and Stalinabad to help overcome the shortage of this material which is hampering the domestic building programme. KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of the 30th September 1955 reports the uneconomic use of available machines and lack of mechanization in the building industry at Stalinabad, as well as the shortage of timber, cement, bricks and sand.

Kirgizia

In 1954 alone, 70,000 square metres of domestic accommodation were completed in Kirgizia; this included 30,000 square metres by individual builders. In spite of the large amount of new building, however, there is still a great shortage of living accommodation, especially in the larger towns. The slow progress of domestic housing is due partly to lack of mechanization in the building industry and partly to the fact that the authorities do not make full use of the funds allotted to them.

The development of Frunze has been planned for as far ahead as 1970; the plan includes the construction of flats by various organizations and industrial undertakings as well as individual houses. Up to now plots for private house-building have been taken mainly from yards or land belonging to old houses in areas that are already built up. According to the plan, between 280 and 360 private houses may be built each year and districts have been specially chosen for these houses; but in fact during the past few years individual builders have been allocated over one thousand plots a year. As a result 80 per cent of all land earmarked for private building up to 1970 had been built up by 1954, and if this policy continues all the land will have been utilized by 1957. The Frunzestroy, the authority in charge of housebuilding in Frunze, has adopted a policy which meets with considerable criticism. Early in 1955 the Authority had forty building sites in the town; their practice was to start building on one site, leave the building unfinished and begin work at another site, leave that uncompleted and move on to yet another. Thus although many blocks of flats and houses are started each year, only a small number are completed.

The maintenance of existing houses in Frunze is also far from satisfactory. Not only are there great delays in carrying out the necessary repairs, but the repairs themselves are often poorly done. Sanitary conditions are bad in many districts, the water and drainage system is quite inadequate for the rapidly growing population and new construction is behind schedule.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

In Dzhelal-Abad individual houses are being built on a large scale, as well as blocks of flats by industrial organizations for their employees. The maintenance of existing accommodation here too is not always satisfactory and SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of the 4th October 1955, published a report giving instances of neglect and maladministration. The situation in Talass is similar in most respects, but here the actual number of houses completed during a year is usually greater than that planned.

Turkmenistan

At Ashkhabad, which suffered badly in the earthquake of 1948, new twenty-four, ten and eight-flat blocks are being built. Over 700 telephone lines have been installed in Ashkhabad flats since 1953, but according to TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 26th July 1955, promises to extend water mains to new houses within a short time have not been kept. The same paper criticizes the poor state of repair of many houses and bad sanitary conditions. In the Stalin rayon of Ashkhabad, for instance, where many railway families live, the houses although well built are badly in need of redecorating, lack pavements and good roads, and "the area around is still in a state of disorder." For five years the town soviet has been discussing the plan for town sanitation and conservancy.

Kazakhstan

In Kazakhstan, which is developing more quickly than the Central Asian republics, new buildings are apt to spring up in a haphazard fashion which has sometimes resulted in difficulties for the inhabitants, such as settlements outside large towns with no transport, clubs, or other cultural institutions. In many cases the areas allocated for industrial development are too large. In order to prevent this kind of thing and to ensure strict town planning, the Kazakh Council of Ministers has approved standard regulations for domestic housing in the oblast towns of Kazakhstan, and in December 1955 the Presidium of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet appointed a building and architectural committee under the Council of Ministers, which will supervise general town planning.

Almost one-third of the population of Kazakhstan now live in towns. The new towns, such as Karaganda and Balkhash, consist mainly of four or five storey blocks of flats. Most of the flats have two or three rooms, but a few have four or even five. The average height of the rooms is between 3 and 3.5 metres. Domestic building is planned to fit in with the general plan for the development of a town, which means that where the new buildings are to be in the central squares and avenues, old houses on adjoining sites and side streets have sometimes to be pulled down. In old towns like Alma-Ata, Semipalatinsk and Gur'yev, large new blocks of flats

are growing up side by side with the old houses.

The choice of architecture is complicated in Kazakhstan by the climate: the strong steppe winds, short winter, and ventilation difficulties in the southern regions, the snow-storms in central and northern Kazakhstan, all have to be taken into consideration when designing suitable housing. Balconies, loggias and galleries have necessarily become typical features of much of the domestic architecture in the republic. Housing planning offices have a scheme to establish a number of standard types of domestic accommodation; these would be constructed of pre-fabricated ferro-concrete blocks. This method would reduce costs and raise productivity.

The new Alma-Ata is to be a modern city with large squares and wide avenues. Two building organizations, the Alma-Atastroy and the Turksibstroy, are in charge of most of the housing development, but actual building is behind schedule and work on many sites is abandoned before completion; one building has been under construction since 1952. There are complaints that the "rich national inheritance of popular Kazakh art" has not been used by architects and the domestic building styles of other parts of the USSR have been copied instead.

In Karaganda living accommodation has more than doubled in the last fifteen years and a new city is gradually being built to meet the needs of the ever-growing population. Development has been planned for twenty to twenty-five years ahead; the central part of the town and its main streets are being preserved at any rate for this period. The new housing consists mainly of blocks of flats, but individual houses are also being built and spilling over into the areas earmarked for flats. KAZAKHSTAN-SKAYA PRAVDA of the 30th July 1955 criticises the standardization of style which predominates in the new buildings of recent years and says that individual architectural styles should be encouraged.

In Aktyubinsk development has followed the wrong lines: a new town has grown up near the ferro-alloys works and the oblast administration centre has remained in the old town with no modern amenities. The new town is separated from the old by seven kilometres of open land which is now being built over with stores and depots but no domestic housing. A secondary school for nearly a thousand children, a day-nursery and hospital have been built, there is a good drainage system, main water supply and asphalted roads; a railway line is being laid linking the new town with the airport. Here again areas originally chosen for the construction of flats are being built over with small houses.

The old town of Ust-Kamenogorsk lies on the left bank of the Ulba

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

river; the industries and areas allocated for new housing are on the right bank. The old town is not to be expanded and practically no domestic building is taking place, though it contains the administrative centre of the East-Kazakhstan oblast. Building in the new town, the Zaulbinskiy district, is progressing fast; there have been newspaper complaints, however, that soot from the factories pollutes the air and kills the vegetation; and there is the familiar plea for better and quicker repair work to existing houses.

Pavlodar has a new residential district to the north-east with its own railway station. Originally factories were built a great distance from the old town and it was planned to construct a housing estate in the same area; later it was decided that new factories should be built nearer the existing town and an entirely new and purely residential district should be created nearby. The interested authorities held a joint conference at which no unanimous decision was reached and the lack of a general plan has made the task of domestic building more difficult.

Sources

1. Razvitie Zhilishchnoge Stroitel'stva v SSSR. A.F. Sharov. Moscow, 1954.
2. Pravo Lichnoy Sobstvennosti na Zhiloy Dom v Gorode i Rabochem Poselke. V.F. Maslov. Moscow, 1954.
3. Sbornyy Zhelezobeton v pro myshlennom i Zhilishchno-grazhdanskom Stroitel'stve. N.I. Lukashkin. Moscow, 1955.
4. Akademiya Arkhitektury SSSR. Arkhitektura Respublik Sredney Azii. Moscow, 1951.
5. 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

1955 - 1956

The present article should be read in conjunction with the article on Central Asian Budgets 1953 - 1955 in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.III, No.4, p.323. The comment made there holds good for the 1956 budgets.

The Union budget for 1956 was: revenue, 453,120,655,000 rubles and expenditure, 429,994,471,000 rubles. The total for revenue and expenditure of the constituent republics was 139,640,501,000 rubles, of which the Central Asian republics accounted for 17,081,624,000 rubles.

The percentages assigned to the Central Asian republics for the retention of revenue from taxes were:

	Uzbekistan	Tadzhikistan	Kirgizia	Turkmenistan	Kazakhstan
Turnover tax	13.7	44.5	36.2	34.1	51.3
MTS earnings	10	10	25	10	25
Kolkhoz income tax	25	25	40	80 *	40

The percentage retained from personal income tax was 25; from the tax on bachelors, spinsters, small families, income from forestry and the State Loans, 40; and from the agricultural tax 75.

The above figures are all taken from the Budget Law reproduced in PRAVDA on 29th December 1955. All figures in the tables of revenue and expenditure that follow are in thousands of rubles; asterisked figures are calculated in percentages. The figures of budget fulfilment for 1955 are in all cases provisional.

FINANCE

1955
actual

UZBEKISTAN

Revenue

Turnover tax	-
Profits	1,228,342
Total given:	3,936,179 (1)

Expenditure

National economy	1,034,056
Education	1,643,811 +
Health	717,890 +
Insurance	183,352 +
Administration	-
Total given:	3,904,102 (1)

TADZHIKISTAN

Revenue

Turnover tax	-
Profits	223,569
Income tax	-
State loans	-
Total given:	1,367,700

Expenditure

National economy	-
Education	-
Health	-
Insurance	-
Administration	103,070
Total given:	1,352,700

FINANCE

1955 actual		1956 planned
-		-
341,050	+	387,092
-		98,215
-		106,200
1,274,281	(2)	1,351,119
336,046		409,312
506,915		518,915
176,200		216,200
-		57,335
-		110,203
1,249,025	(2)	1,351,119
-		520,445
-		262,145
-		91,652
1,178,747	+	1,272,949
-		442,714
394,904	+	436,654
187,365	+	222,169
43,152	+	48,244
1,165,264	+	1,269,985

FINANCE

	1954 (3) actual	1955 actual	1956 planned
KAZAKHSTAN			
<u>Revenue</u>			
Turnover tax	-	-	-
Profits	-	2,278,000	3,721,000
MTS earnings	-	165,000	239,000
Income tax	-	-	545,000
State loans	-	-	444,000
Total given:	7,008,762	10,834,000	8,867,369
<u>Expenditure</u>			
National economy	-	6,438,000	4,837,930
Education	-	1,890,000	1,980,000
Health	-	914,000	1,145,000
Insurance	-	307,000	349,000
Administration	-	-	346,065
Total given:	6,758,559	10,294,000	8,766,410

Notes

- (1) The 1955 revenue and expenditure represent 99.4 and 99.5 per cent respectively of the final planned version of the 1955 budget.
- (2) The revenue and expenditure for 1955 were, according to the final version of the budget, both to be 1,248,973,000 rubles.
- (3) Only provisional figures were given in 1955 of the fulfilment of the Kazakh Budget of 1954. These figures were presented for the approval of the Supreme Soviet in 1956.

The following tables show the distribution of expenditure under the head of "National Economy", where information has been given:

	budget	<u>1 9 5 6</u>	external
UZBEKISTAN			
<u>Total</u>	1,147,343		1,224,644
Industry including:	252,569		519,669
Textile industry	140,760		-
Building materials	38,550		-
Building	38,210		-
Consumer goods industry	21,749		-
Agriculture including:	536,223		390,240
Irrigation	310,531		-
Sovkhozes	120,090		-
Other measures	98,406		-
Transport	114,588		-
Domestic building	162,450		59,574
TADZHIKISTAN			
<u>Total</u>	473,190		274,900
Industry	122,822		117,800
Agriculture	201,439		82,200
Transport	51,256		50,800
Housing	54,667		8,700
KIRGIZIA			
<u>Total</u>	409,312		207,565
TURKMENISTAN			
<u>Total</u>	442,714		206,209
Industry	74,518		101,701
Agriculture including:	235,684		60,570
Sovkhozes	25,043		31,195
Transport	27,400		26,959

FINANCE

	budget	<u>1 9 5 6</u>	external
KAZAKHSTAN			
<u>Total</u>	4,837,930		3,060,164
Industry	1,235,000		1,493,000
Agriculture		4,262,000	
Transport		527,000	

Expenditure on various branches of education in Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan was as follows:

	TADZHIKISTAN	TURKMENISTAN
<u>Total</u>	568,647	436,654
Schools including:	285,782	186,205
Boarding schools	10,700	-
Factory schools	9,000	-
Kindergartens	36,440	-
Higher education	105,866	74,452
Research including the	26,411	28,764
Academy of Sciences	20,149	-

The proportions for republican and local budgets planned for 1956 were:

	Republican	Local
<u>Revenue</u>		
Uzbekistan	1,657,842	2,618,063
Tadzhikistan	-	683,188
Kirgizia	637,801	713,318
Turkmenistan	1,144,499	439,967
Kazakhstan	7,772,575	3,215,102
<u>Expenditure</u>		
Uzbekistan	1,657,842	2,618,063
Tadzhikistan	-	683,188
Kirgizia	637,801	713,318
Turkmenistan	701,568	437,003
Kazakhstan	7,671,616	3,087,750

These figures again show, if compared with the State budget figures, that considerable subvention from the Union budget is concealed under them. An interesting, but isolated, piece of information given by U.D. Atambayev, the Kazakh Finance Minister, in his speech was that the amount granted from the Union budget for the financing of the Kazakhstan MTS would in 1956 be more than 3,500m. rubles. In 1955 a grant for expenditure on adding to the personnel of sovkhozes, and on developing, extending, and meeting production outlay in MTS, amounted to "more than 2,500m. rubles". The increase in subvention from the Union Budget may explain the apparent decline in the amount of the Kazakh Budget 1955-6.

Sources

The relevant issues of Central Asian newspapers from which the above statistics have been drawn are:

- PV 25th and 26th January 1956.
- SK 28th and 29th January 1956.
- KT 24th January 1956.
- TI 25th, 26th and 27th January 1956.
- KP 21st and 22nd January 1956.

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

T H E C U L T U R A L H E R I T A G E O F U Z B E K I S T A N

Part II

The following is the concluding part of the summary of OCHERKI ISTORII KUL'TURY SOVETSKOGO UZBEKISTANA (Outline of the History of the Culture of Soviet Uzbekistan) by T.N. Kary-Niyazov, the first part of which appeared in the last issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW. The second part of the summary deals with Uzbek culture in the post-Revolutionary period up to 1953. The opinions expressed in the article are either those of the author or of writers and others whom he quotes.

Chapter V

Uzbek Language and Literature

The question of the creation of a national literary Uzbek language arose after the Revolution and was related to the establishment of an Uzbek alphabet. Attempts were made in the years immediately following the Revolution to form an alphabet by reforming the Arabic script, i.e. by the removal of diacritical marks denoting the absence in the Uzbek language of certain Arabic consonants and by the addition of supplementary marks for vowels. This reformed alphabet was easier to use but the limitations inherent in the Arabic language were not entirely removed. The latinization of the alphabet was consequently proposed.

In 1926 the Central Executive Committee of the Uzbek SSR passed a resolution establishing a Central Committee of the New Uzbek Alphabet under the direction of Yu. Akhunbabayev, ⁽¹⁾ chairman of the Central Executive Committee. From January 1928 the committee began to issue magazines and newspapers in latin characters. This was violently opposed by the reactionary clergy who regarded this change as heresy, since the Koran was written in Arabic. In spite of the opposition, the latinized script gained ground and the Soviet-international and Russian vocabulary increasingly penetrated the Uzbek language, which was enriched with such words as kolkhoz, sovkhov, diesel, motor, tractor, and various mathematical and scientific terms.

The revolutionary and cultural transformations resulted not merely in

the enrichment of the language, but in the elimination of such words as were used only by the upper crust of feudal society and were not understood by the rank and file.

In the late thirties a movement began for the adoption of the Cyrillic script. On the 8th May 1940 the Supreme Soviet of the USSR adopted a resolution authorizing the change, which was completed by the beginning of 1942. The new alphabet retained all the Russian letters except 'shcha' and 'yery', but with the addition of supplementary signs to designate certain Uzbek sounds.

In May 1952 a republican conference was held in Tashkent to consider the problem of developing Uzbek linguistics within the framework of Stalin's teaching. A number of recommendations were adopted, one of the main being the inclusion into the Uzbek alphabet of the letters 'shcha' and 'yery'. Still more recently, considerable work has been done in the systematization of Uzbek grammar by A.K. Borovkov and Z.M. Margupov, in Uzbek dialectology by V.V. Reshetov, and in orthography by F.K. Kamalov, R.N. Dzhumaniyazov, A. Azizov and Shaabdurakhmanov. Even so, certain problems have received little attention, among these being the teaching of Russian in Uzbek schools, and the study of the basic vocabulary of the Uzbek language.

Chapter VI

Uzbek Soviet Literature

The founder of Uzbek literature is the poet and playwright Khamza Khakim Zoda Niyazi (Hamzeh Hakimzadeh Niyazi), who from the very start of his career fought against religious prejudice and ignorance, and at a later date championed the Revolution and campaigned for the emancipation of Uzbek women.

With the formation of the Uzbek Republic in 1924 Gafur Gulyam (Ghafur Ghulam), Aybek and Uigun began to publish their work, and shortly afterwards Kakhkhar, Pulat, Umari and Timur Fattakh appeared on the literary scene. At first the work of these authors showed traces of nationalist ideology but they quickly rid themselves of this, and in the inter-war years wrote about the heavy lot of the Uzbeks before the Revolution, contrasting it with the advantages of kolkhoz life. The best work of this period is Aybek's PRECIOUS BLOOD. Together with prose, poetry continued to develop and new songs were written by Gulyam, Fazyl Yuldash and Pulkan which celebrated peace, friendship among peoples and the Soviet achievements in Uzbekistan. A number of these are quoted in Russian translations in the book.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

Post-war Uzbek literature reflects Soviet reality in its various aspects: kolkhoz construction, the liquidation of the kulaks as a class, "transformation of nature" and so forth. At the last Writers' Congress however it was stated that the creative stress had slackened and that many Uzbek writers had not yet fully mastered their craft. Only very recently have really interesting and satisfactory works appeared, among them Mukhtar's novel THE SISTERS and a new poem by Mirmukhsin.

Chapter VII

The Press

Following the press decree of the Soviet government in 1918, all the existing non-Soviet newspapers in Turkestan were shut down and 11 new papers in the Uzbek language appeared in their stead.

After the establishment of the Uzbek SSR and during the period of the land reforms in 1924, the number of newspapers steadily increased. By 1932 there were 205 newspapers of which 132 were in Uzbek. At the same time new magazines of a political and theoretical character began to appear, among them the anti-religious monthly KHUDOSILAR (The Atheist). By 1932 the number of magazines had risen to 56, of which 35 were in Uzbek.

As a direct consequence of compulsory education the publication of books was considerably extended and by 1928 had quadrupled the 1924 figure. Between 1929-32, 6,207 titles were published with a print order of 38,909,000 copies.

In 1934 there were 6 state publishing houses and 28 departmental (vedomstvennykh) publishers in the Republic, comprising 50 printing presses, 43 linotypes, 5 rotary and 48 flat-bed presses, and a processing plant altogether employing 2,000 workmen. (2)

In the period 1938-41, 6,500 titles were published with a print order of 52m. copies. During the war book printing had of necessity to be curtailed and in the years 1942-45 only 17m. copies were printed.

The following table shows the number of books published during the Five-Year Plan period: (3)

	No. of separately published items	No. of copies
Classics of Marxism- Leninism	100	1,722,000
Social-political literature	591	11,675,000
Scientific literature including popular works	811	13,970,000
Agricultural literature	522	5,928,000
School textbooks	450	19,487,500
Art	350	3,485,200
Children's literature	117	1,793,000
Medical literature	173	2,087,000

The total number of copies of books printed from the inception of the Soviet regime to the beginning of 1953 was 290m. (4)

In 1952 the number of newspapers in the Republic was 165; of these 8 were republican, 19 oblast, 117 town and rayon, and 21 local papers (gazety nizovoy pechati). In 1953 there were 182 newspapers(5) and 45 journals, of which 15 were scientific and literary.

Chapter VIII

Drama and the Stage

Most of the material in this chapter has already appeared in the article "The Stage in Central Asia" (CAR, Vol.III, No.2). Here it is only worth noting that the author gives the number of theatres in Uzbekistan as twenty-six.

Chapter IX

Music and the Musical Theatre

This chapter consists of information already covered in the article "The Stage in Central Asia".

Chapter X

Fine Arts and Cinematography

The Muslim religion forbids the representation of the human form; this circumstance accounts for the low level of development of the fine arts in Turkestan before the Revolution. It is true that Russian painters such as Goronovich, Leman, Chernichev and Vereshchagin painted scenes of Turkestan life, but native painting was primitive and sculpture non-existent. Only since the Revolution, in the progressive conditions of the Soviet regime, did the fine arts of Uzbekistan experience full development.

In 1919 the first art school was started in Tashkent and three years later an art "tekhnicum" was opened in Samarkand; thereafter a series of studios was established where such Russian painters as Bure, Kazakov, Tatevosyan, Nikifrova, Ufimtsev, Rozhdestvenskiy and others, held important positions. Although of varied talents and styles, they nevertheless succeeded by the total effect of their work in widening the perspective of the local artists, and in laying the foundations of a native art that was "national in form and socialist in content".

In the first years of the post-Revolutionary period attention was concentrated on the production of revolutionary posters⁽⁶⁾ and political placards, but with the setting up in 1926 of a branch of the Union of Soviet Painters in Tashkent the work assumed a more comprehensive and organized character. By the early thirties a number of paintings had appeared with subjects taken from contemporary life, among these was Tatevosyan's RED TRANSPORT showing a chain of waggons, and Bure's FIRST OF MAY DEMONSTRATION.

The Union of Uzbek Painters was founded in 1932 and shortly afterwards their work began to appear alongside that of Russian artists. Of the works mentioned are COTTON HARVEST by L. Abdullayev, EMANCIPATED WOMAN by U. Tansykbayev⁽⁷⁾, SCHOOL CHILDREN by Ch. Akhmarov, and WOMEN'S SHOCK BRIGADE by N. Karakhan. It is admitted that the artistic level of these paintings was low, the painters having manifested traces of formalism, naturalism, and decoration, and having shown little understanding of their subjects.

The industrialization of the Republic is considered to be a source of endless and brilliant possibilities for the artist and the first Five-Year Plan provided the painters with many new subjects; soon such works as ON THE SELMASH by B. Khamdami and CHIRCHIKSTROI by L. Abdullayev began to appear. Of particular significance is Benkov's

DEMONSTRATION OF WOMEN IN THE REGISTAN ON THE 8TH MARCH, which shows a triumphal procession of unveiled Uzbek women. In spite of its theatricality the painting has an intrinsic value. At this time a number of portraits were painted, mostly of Alisher Navoi in his various roles.

In 1936-37 Tatevosyan's large canvas THE KOLKHOZ FEAST was exhibited in Tashkent and Moscow. The painter, in brilliant colours portrayed the many wonderful gifts of nature, and the fruits of the labours of farm workers in sunny Uzbekistan. The canvas seems to contain everything: a crowd of happy people, cotton plants, piles of fruit, dancers in national costume, an old man, and musicians playing traditional instruments. On the fifteenth anniversary of the creation of the Uzbek Republic, an exhibition was held in Tashkent at which over 500 paintings were shown; these were distinguished by their variety. In the same year the first congress of Uzbek painters took place, at which a number of pronouncements were made on the attainments of Soviet art.

During the war painters turned to the production of patriotic banners and posters. The best of these were Kaydalov's VICTORY FOR US; Ufintsev's HANDS OFF, THE SOVIET BROOM, and THE CANAL FOR US - THE GRAVE FOR THE ENEMY. All these were distinguished by a keen political sense, expressiveness and profound patriotism.⁽⁸⁾ Although the exhibitions of 1947-51 testified to the progress of Uzbek painting, there were certain shortcomings, notably the presence in some of the works of the elements of impressionism, a poor sense of colour and unimaginative design.⁽⁹⁾

Since 1945, book illustration has been practised in Uzbekistan. Utilizing the patterns of folk decoration, the painters Ikramov, Benediktov and Israilov have produced illustrations of outstanding merit for Navoy's poems and the books of Rashidov.

In the thirties Ivanov, Kuchis and Strazdin provided sculptures for public buildings, the Katta-Kurgan reservoir, and the Fergana and Tashkent canals. These works are said to have laid the foundations of Uzbek sculpture and to have given the native sculptors a standard by which to assess their work. Of recent works the busts of Ubaydullayeva, Yuldasheva and Mutalova are said to be worthy of note.⁽¹⁰⁾

Applied arts and crafts have been successfully developed since the Revolution, and wood carving, metal chasing, embroidery and ceramic work are all extensively practised today.

The material on the cinema has already been treated in the article "The Film Industry in Central Asia" (CAR, Vol.II, No.3). Kary-Niyazov gives the following figures for the number of film projectors in the

Republic: 1926: 37; 1933: 469; 1941: 667. By the end of 1953 there were 954 projectors, of these 122 were in the towns and 832 in the country districts. Trade-union organizations had 248 projectors.

Chapter XI

The Radical Transformation of the Appearance of Uzbekistan

In this, the final chapter of the book, the author briefly describes the socialist reconstruction, planning and organization of the towns, the socialist reconstruction of the villages, the organization of public health and sport, the transformation of the Uzbek people and their efforts for peace.

Attention is drawn to the contrast between the new towns and the old, and the author claims that in 1953 there were in Tashkent 16 higher educational establishments, 35 tekhniums, 124 schools, 7 theatres, 109 film projectors, 56 clubs, 3 museums, 74 libraries, and a philharmonic orchestra. There were also 31 hospitals, 7 maternity homes, 93 dispensaries, and 62 kindergartens.

Great transformations have also taken place in the villages; in the period of Soviet rule 830 irrigation systems have been built covering an area of 160,000 kilometres. In 1953 there were 92 sovkhozes, 2,523 kolkhozes, of which 2136 were cotton kolkhozes. The Republic also has 251 MT stations and 16 MZh stations with a total of 40,652 tractors.

In 1914 in the territory of present-day Uzbekistan there were 102 doctors, 65 dispensaries, 23 of which were in the rural districts, and 39 hospitals with 997 beds. By 1924 these numbers had risen to 333 doctors, 145 dispensaries, 53 hospitals with 2,135 beds, as well as 293 feldshers, 119 midwives, and 38 dentists. In 1953 the figures were, 6,500 doctors, 16,000 feldshers, and 37,100 hospital beds. In the same year the physical training organizations had 500,000 members and the rural sporting organization Pakhtkor numbered 200,000 kolkhozniks.

Notes

- (1) Omerkhan maintains that Akhunbabayev was only a figurehead, being himself illiterate, and that the people who actually undertook the work of latinization were Prof. Atodzhan Khashim, the linguist and literateur Ashur-Ali, Prof. A. Fitrat, the poet

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

Cholpan, and Profs. G. Alym, A. Sadi and S. Suleyman, all of whom, with the exception of Prof. Sadi, were liquidated in 1937.

According to a press report of 16th September 1955 in PRAVDA VOSTOKA, printing processes are still antiquated in some places.

A press report of 24th March 1955 in PRAVDA VOSTOKA states that the quality of books published is highly unsatisfactory. The print is grey and uneven, and the bindings unattractive and impracticable, made of poor quality cardboard and stained with glue. They come to pieces after six months. Sometimes books are simply stapled like notebooks. School textbooks are rarely ready on time (August-September) and often do not appear until late November. Spelling mistakes in the text are not uncommon.

PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 16th September 1955 reports that the plans for the publication of books in Kara-Kalpakia are rarely fulfilled.

PRAVDA VOSTOKA gives the following additional information:

5th May 1955: There are 207 newspapers in the Republic.

8th September 1955: Newspapers and magazines criticized for their uninteresting and unimaginative presentation of news and for insufficiently reflecting the life of the Republic. A number of journalists theorize from their office chairs and concoct articles on the basis of photographs, figures and several surnames. Certain magazines, such as the monthly SOTSIALISTICHESKII UZBEKISTAN, have been monopolized by a small group of writers who appear in every issue.

1st October 1955: In 1956 it is planned to distribute 56m. copies of newspapers and magazines.

The author quotes Kalinin's distinction: "a painting is propaganda, a placard is agitatsiya".

Born in 1904 Tansykbayev studied with Rozanov, a pupil of Repin, and at the Penzensk art school. His most important work is the RISING OF 1916, completed in 1940. With Karakhan he is considered to be the leading landscape painter in the Republic today. Has been recently criticized in the press for not using his landscapes as settings in which to depict the typical features of present day reality.

According to a recent press report, poster design appears to be the most popular and widely practised art form today. The posters are said to have a monumental quality, to be emotionally satisfying

and to be distinguished by the originality of their design. Some of the best are those by Kaydalov. His HOW MUCH HAVE YOU GATHERED TODAY? has received special praise. This poster shows a group of kolkhozniks standing before the results board, a young man with a proud smile, obviously a cotton-grower, stands with his back to the group and directs an enquiring glance at the spectator.

- (9) Judging by press reports the recent exhibitions have also been unsatisfactory. The range of subjects is very narrow, and there are still too few paintings on contemporary themes. The painters seem to concentrate on the portrayal of meetings, demonstrations and discussions with Party officials in factories and fields, but it is pointed out that the life of the Soviet man is not circumscribed by these events. Industrial and agricultural subjects are unpopular, and such paintings of this type that do exist are unsatisfactory. Even such a master as Tansykbayev could not create an original design with cotton, and Abdullayev who painted a splendid study of Tamara Khanoum, suffered a failure with his portrait of a cotton cultivator. Portraiture is on the whole very poor and characterization is said to be indifferent. Instead of revealing the psychological qualities of the sitters, the painters concentrate on a meticulous rendering of details of costume and background. Altogether there seems to be a kind of petty attention to detail and an avoidance of large-scale works.

The painters are reminded that it is not so much technical skill as a depth and breadth of conception, the ability to penetrate beyond appearances, and to depict the essence of reality that matter and make for greater professional mastery. The painters must be able to notice the distinctive marks of novelty in the life and culture of the people. They are urged to select subjects which are understandable to the people and to produce more epic pictures which would not be mere reproductions of some particular scene. Finally, more attention must be paid in the future to composition.

- (10) Judging by press reports the sole medium of sculpture appears to be gypsum. The works are said to be limp and flabby.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

THE YEAR'S WORK IN CENTRAL ASIAN
ARCHAEOLOGY, 1954 - 1955

Stone Age - Bronze Age - Before the Arab conquest - Pendzhikent -
Later sites (Khorezm).

Short notices of work in the field of archaeology in the Central Asian republics are published in the press at fairly frequent intervals. They are sometimes expanded into longer summaries with comment designed to adduce from the discoveries proof that the culture of a certain republic is native to it, or that there was in primitive times a cultural, if not a racial, unity binding together the inhabitants of certain areas such as northern Kazakhstan or the southern parts of Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan. Examples of such comment are given in the descriptions which follow. They have been grouped under the periods assigned to them by the authors of the notices, that is Stone Age, Bronze Age, the First Centuries A.D., and the Middle Ages. The Marxist terms sometimes employed ("primitive-communal, slave-owning, feudal structure") have been disregarded.

Stone Age

Since 1945 an expedition from the USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of the History of Material Culture, under the leadership of S. Chernikov, has been at work in eastern Kazakhstan. During the last five years they have found traces of Palaeolithic habitation (15-20,000 B.C.) in three sites in the upper reaches of the Irtysh, near the villages of Peshchera and Novo-Nikol'skaya and the aul of Kanay.⁽¹⁾ In 1955 these discoveries were confirmed by further finds of Old Stone Age implements at these same sites. Thus, at Peshchera flint tools have been found, and bison bones and bones carved with human figures discovered in burials.⁽²⁾ Palaeolithic implements have also been discovered by expeditions from the Kazakh Academy Institute of History, Archaeology and Ethnography in the valley of the river Kurtozek (Pavlodar oblast), in the valley of the Karasu (Akmo-
linsk oblast) and on the right bank of the Ulenty (Karaganda oblast).⁽³⁾

Neolithic sites have as yet been little investigated in Kazakhstan, although many are known. The most important discovery in 1955 was made

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by Chernikov's expedition in the area to be covered by the Bukhtarma reservoir (East-Kazakhstan oblast). At Ust-Narym they excavated a fishing and hunting settlement of about the fourth millenium B.C. Among the finds was a dagger of bone with a flint blade.⁽⁴⁾ Finds of the same period at Lake Teke, Lake Selety-Tengiz and Alabota (Kokchetav oblast) have already been published in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1955, No.5. It is now supposed that at this period a single culture was common to the inhabitants of most of northern Kazakhstan.

In Tadzhikistan another expedition from the same Institute of the USSR Academy of Sciences under A.P. Okladnikov has in 1955 been studying settlements on both banks of the Syr-Dar'ya near Kanibadam in the area of the new Kayrakum hydroelectric power station. On the left bank, on the land of the Lenin kolkhoz (Leninabad rayon), implements were found later established as being of the Mesolithic period. These implements, of which there were a considerable number, forming one of the richest Stone Age finds in Central Asia, had been washed down from the now partially destroyed upper river terraces. They include arrow-heads made from hard igneous rock, scrapers, large paltes with the edges trimmed, and the stone matrices from which these paltes were chipped out. This is the most easterly Saint-Achelle Moustier (Lower Palaeolithic) site found in the USSR, and the first to be found in Tadzhikistan. Stone Age finds were also made near the Khodzhi-Yagon mazar (tomb) on the right bank of the river which prove that the inhabitants of Tadzhikistan, Southern Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan were at that time the same. Especially interesting among the finds are an arrow-head made from a broad triangular piece of jasper, very similar in shape and workmanship to the classical examples of Moustier implements (c. 100,000 B.C. (sic)) and implements from other periods of the Stone Age; a leaf-shaped flint arrow-head exquisitely worked by one of the late methods of stone-working - was among them.⁽⁵⁾

Bronze Age

The East-Kazakhstan expedition already mentioned has been most successful in its examination of Bronze Age sites; they have noted four settlements and 400 tumuli. The most valuable finds made were near the village of Trushnikovo. It had earlier been thought that agriculture was not practised in east Kazakhstan at this time; but finding of a stone plough and hoe prove otherwise. Stone implements and workings also attest that these people dug for copper and refined it.⁽⁶⁾ A note of similar workings at Tisektas, near Lake Balkhash, appeared in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1955, No.8.

One of the Kazakh expeditions named, excavated a cemetery of this

period by the river Taldy (Karaganda oblast). Of such cemeteries K. Akishev, the director of the archaeological section of the Kazakh Institute, said: "Bronze Age monuments speak of the incipient disintegration of the primitive communal structure and the division of a formerly monolithic tribe into great patriarchal families. These families attempted to make themselves separate from the tribe and rivalled each other in the size of their households. Because of such tendencies some families tried to mark out family plots and even tombs in the once common tribal cemetery." The Taldy cemetery is a large enclosure set about with granite slabs placed on edge. In it were found seven burials in stone coffins.

From 1951 to 1955 monuments of this period have been studied in many parts of Kazakhstan - Alma-Ata, South-Kazakhstan, Pavlodar and West-Kazakhstan oblasts. Bronze mirrors belt-plates, and ornamented fibulae, stone mills, clay vessels, iron (sic) knives and daggers various iron and bone arrow-heads, iron stirrups, bone harness decorations and glass beads have been among the objects found.(7)

A team from the Uzbek Academy Institute of History and the Uzbek History Museum has in recent years been examining a Bronze Age settlement near Chust (Namangan oblast). A full account of the work done in 1953 has been published in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA, 1954, No.3. In 1955 a stratum of 1-2.5 metres over an area of 500 square metres was examined. The settlement had previously been established as of the Bronze Age, and it had been suggested that the community was agricultural. The date of the settlement and the occupations of the inhabitants have now been established beyond doubt. The inhabitants made, without a wheel, twenty-five different types of vessel; pottery has been found covered with a solution of red clay and decorated in black and brown. The discovery of half-fired vessels shows beyond doubt that the pottery was made on the spot. Another occupation of the inhabitants was metal casting. Bronze tools and other objects were found in 1953, as well as fragments of a stone mould for the casting of spear heads, and many pieces of slag. Another occupation was confirmed by the finding in 1954 of several three or four-toothed double-edged combs, many loom-weights and some coarsely shaped clay distaffs. A particularly interesting 1954 find was of grains of wheat, barley and millet. The discovery in 1955 of long grain-pestles of stone and of grain older than any yet found in Uzbekistan is a clear proof of the familiarity of the settlers with agriculture. They also used the bones of wild and domestic animals for awls and gimlets, often decorated. Some bones are hollow and may have served as musical instruments.(8)

In 1955 Ya. Gulyam continued the work of the Uzbek Academy expedition to the Bronze Age site near the Makhan-Dar'ya, a dry tributary of the Zeravshan. Many interesting catacomb burials were found on the shores of

Lake Zaman-Baba. Particularly interesting was a second burial-ground found in a still more remote part of the Karakul' rayon, where undisturbed burials were found. The remains were buried in the foetal position in pit graves. At their heads were decorated vessels; they wore heavy bronze earrings, necklaces of precious stones, bronze bracelets and anklets of bronze beads. Excavation of this site is still in progress. (9)

Okladnikov's expedition in Tadzhikistan found more than twenty Bronze Age sites with stone hearths and ashpits, many potsherds, bronze knives and arrowheads, and in one case the remains of a smelting furnace, with lumps of unused ore and stone hammers.

Before the Arab conquest

During the year 1954-55 tumuli of the first centuries A.D. were investigated in many parts of Central Asia. Some of the most interesting were near the Kara-Bulak ail (village) (Batken rayon, Osh oblast, Kirgizia) in what is known as the "burial-ground of the Magi". The burials were made in coffins of wood, and the coffins were surrounded with objects, including wooden dishes, clay bowls and candlesticks. One coffin contained the skeleton of a young girl. She had worn silk and wool clothing, and with her in the coffin were a wooden comb, crystal and glass beads, and a remarkably fine bronze mirror-frame with a long handle made in the form of a female figure. This mirror is thought to have been an importation from India or Bactria. It has now been placed in the oblast museum at Osh. These tumuli have been given a date between the second and fourth centuries A.D. (10)

At Aruk-Tau in the Bishkent valley (Tadzhikistan) twenty-two tumuli were opened in 1955. The tumuli were all from five to six metres in diameter; some were round, others were oval. The finds - two vases, a jug, iron fibulae, rings and beads, and bone shuttles - indicate a date between 250 and 500 A.D. (11) Other tumuli of the first centuries A.D. have been opened in the Isfara rayon; no details of finds have been given.

In 1955 the Uzbek Academy sent an expedition to the Kamashi rayon (Kashka-Dar'ya oblast). Most of the excavation done was at Kendylyk-tepe, near Bayli, a settlement which lasted from the first centuries B.C. to the fourth or fifth A.D. In strata of the middle of the inhabited period were found the walls - of beaten clay and two metres high - of a curious round building with an oval room in the centre. Another building of an unusual shape of the fourth-fifth centuries A.D. was found at Aul-tepe, where a steep-sided tumulus was excavated. Walls 2.6 metres high were discovered. This building had in its centre a square room surrounded by a corridor from which access was had to the central room and to other rooms along the outer walls. The doorways were made with semi-circular arches of adobe

brick. The expedition also examined some remains of small adobe buildings with a water outlet at Tash-tepe of the third-sixth centuries A.D. (12)

A Turkmen expedition in the summer of 1955 investigated a monument in the neighbourhood of the Merv (Mary) ruins, but no results have appeared. The only published work in the period seems to have been on the excavation of a burial-ground of the fifth-seventh centuries found on derelict land in the Bayram-Ali rayon by a kolkhoz worker who had been told to plough it. One thousand square metres have been excavated. The burials are in three strata; two of the strata have already been examined and the third was determined by trial diggings. 800 ossuaries have been found and with them pythos vases, amphorae, rectangular boxes with domed lids, stone beads and gem seals engraved with representations of men and animals. A hundred skulls have been sent to the capital for examination; from them and from the finds it is hoped that it will be possible to determine who were the original inhabitants of southern Turkmenia.

The southern team of the Kirgiz 1955 archaeological expedition examined two sites of this period. Shurabashat, on the river Yassy north-west of Uzgen, is mentioned in Chinese records and was inhabited during the last four centuries B.C. 25 different kinds of brightly decorated pottery were found, including a water jar larger than a man, beads, bone facing on a bow, grain mills and shuttles. A burial ground which should yield much information about the inhabitants was also found. Fifty tumuli in the Chatkal valley were opened by the team. One grave contained the remains of a warrior with an iron sword, dagger, two knives, arrow heads and a clay vessel. The tumuli are thought to have been constructed by the nomadic Turkic population of the sixth-eighth centuries A.D. (14)

A Tadzhik expedition in 1954 examined nomadic tumuli at the kishlak of Varukh (Isfara rayon). The burial pits - of various forms - were covered by thin beams of wood and a heap of stones was piled above. Some of the tumuli contained as many as nine burials in one pit; the skeletons were not placed in any particular direction. Over fifty intact pottery vessels were recovered, some of them holding as much as three litres. There were several types of iron dagger with bone handles and wooden sheaths, straight and curved iron knives, part of an iron sickle and large arrow heads. Particularly interesting was an iron dagger with a bronze handle inlaid with bone or perhaps wood, a bronze bowl, iron fibulae, bronze rings and bracelets and bronze mirrors. A rare find was that of woven baskets with wooden lids, and delicately-made wooden vessels. Two types of cloth were found, a leather wine-skin, and cherry and walnut seeds. (15)

Pendzhikent

The most important site of the pre-Arab period examined in 1954-5 has undoubtedly been Pendzhikent (Pyandzhikent). Excavation began in 1934. Much of the citadel has been uncovered in the intervening years, and on the basis of the work of the late A.Yu. Yakubovskiy the volume ZHIVOPIS' DREVNEGO PYANDZHIKENTA (The Painting of Ancient Pyandzhikent) was published in 1954.

In 1954 excavations were made on the site of an artisan's dwelling. In one room four pits were found in the floor for storing grain, oil or perhaps wine. In another room decomposed millet was found on the bottom of two large pits. In the same house grain-mill handles, fragments of a loom, many distaffs and pieces of iron objects and potsherds were found.

The year was marked by the discovery of very many coins, among them 300 new types. Other finds have been of bronze rings, mirrors, bells, fibulae and belt ornaments, dress ornaments, harness and fragments of a cast bronze horse, and of iron axes, adzes, sickles, knives, nails, harness buckles, and a finely made gold earring. Pottery found seemed to imitate already familiar metal vessels; a pitcher found had a man's head stamped on it in relief. Grains of wheat, barley, millet and bean plants, fruit stones - plum, almond and peach - and nut shells found show the level of development of agriculture.

Evidence of the religious beliefs of the inhabitants may be gained from frescoes discovered representing a man holding a blue disc in his right hand and a golden disc in his left, evidently the sun and moon. The inhabitants, it is concluded, worshipped the heavenly bodies (sic). About forty examples of wood carving were found, among them a very fine representation of a vine. The most interesting discovery in this sphere was that of three stone figures, two of dancing-girls and the third of a head alone.

Of the seventy houses excavated, twenty were excavated in 1955. The buildings seem to have been of the ayvan (veranda) type (see "Central Asian Town Planning", CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW Vol.IV, No.1) with wooden columns and superstructures. These were burnt when the Arab invaders took the city, but enough has remained to show that the columns at least were covered with intricate carving. Many of the houses were of two, or even three storeys. Sogdian coins were found in all these houses, and in one of them a ring of gold set with a Badakhshan ruby engraved with the figure of a horse. A hundred square metres of wall painting was exposed in 1955; the subjects include Sogdian warriors, vases filled with the branches of trees, and pomegranates - a symbol of fertility - and a

trident hung with bells, evidently used in some temple ceremony. All these finds are of the seventh-eighth centuries A.D.

In the courtyards of the artisans' quarter of the city many examples of non-local pottery were found; in one digging alone there were 120 vessels, 50 of them undamaged. These finds show that the stratum in which they were found is of the fifth and sixth centuries; the history of Pendzhikent has been moved back another hundred years. Figures in terracotta, metalware, and glass bottles were also found in this layer; one potsherd bore an inscription in Sogdian.(16)

Later sites - Khorezm

Varakhsha - 50 km. west of Bukhara - has been called by Professor N. Leonov the link between Pendzhikent and the Khorezm. It was discovered in 1954 that in the first centuries A.D. the city was surrounded by an adobe wall two metres wide with corner towers, one of which has remained. It is in the shape of a horse-shoe and has two rows of loop-lights. The city's later walls, provisionally dated as seventh or eighth century, had traces of two smaller walls within them. This shows the existence of an as yet unknown period in the life of the city, when it was divided up by interior, smaller walls; perhaps the sixth century. Work in the centre of the city was concentrated on exposing the strata of the city down from the latest layer (tenth or eleventh centuries). Excavation was continued on the site of the seventh (or eighth) century palace, and alabaster sculptures and wall-paintings uncovered. The paintings depicted a hunt, with hunders mounted on elephants. Part of the paintings has been sent to the Lenin-grad Hermitage.(17)

In 1955 the Khorezm expedition examined the site of the fortress-town Koy-Krylgan-Kala and the old bed of the Amu-Dar'ya, where in 1954 forty Bronze Age burials were found. No results have yet been described; they will appear in the next volume of the published series TRUDY KHOREZMSKOY EKSPEDITSII.

There has been some investigation of mediaeval and later sites. In 1954 work on the site of Bab-Ata (Suzak rayon, South-Kazakhstan oblast) begun in 1953, was continued. The earliest stratum is of the eighth-ninth centuries, and the latest of the fourteenth century, when the fortress was destroyed in the fighting between the successors of the Khan Dzhatagay. In Tadzhikistan the mihrab (prayer niche) of Asht has been excavated, and trial diggings made in Leninabad (Khodzhent) where the lines of the town walls in the last century have been finally established. Many late mediaeval monuments have been charted by a team which went up the valley of the Surkhob. A survey is being begun of mediaeval and earlier mine-workings.

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It is disquieting to learn that in Kazakhstan at least, many monuments are in a bad state of preservation. It is said that Taraz, a site near Dzhambul, is being destroyed by earth works in process of construction; that Talgar (near Antonovka, Taldy-Kurgan oblast) is being gradually worn away by agricultural operations; and that the monuments near Dzhezkazgan are decaying because of weathering. It seems, however, that the more interesting sites of Central Asia proper are not in so bad a case.

The sites and discoveries described above are of undoubted importance. The value of the conclusions so far drawn from them is, however, lessened by the fact that they have only been subjected to scrutiny and study from the Marxist historical point of view. It is probable that if non-Marxist archaeologists ever have the opportunity of studying them at first hand they would draw different conclusions. It is, indeed, regrettable that most of the archaeological sites in Central Asia which are officially reported to confirm Marxist historical theory, have not yet been submitted to impartial examination.

Notes

- (1) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 14th September 1954.
- (2) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 28th December 1955.
- (3) idem.
- (4) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 2nd October 1955.
- (5) Kommunist Tadzhikistana, 25th December 1954, 26th November 1955.
- (6) Kazakhstanskaya Pravda, 28th December 1955.
- (7) idem.
- (8) Pravda Vostoka, 22nd September 1955.
- (9) Pravda Vostoka, 3rd November 1955.
- (10) Sovetskaya Kirgiziya, 12th December 1954.
- (11) Kommunist Tadzhikistana, 13th November 1955.
- (12) Pravda Vostoka, 6th September 1955.
- (13) Turkmenskaya Iskra, 12th November 1954.
- (14) Sovetskaya Kirgiziya, 1st October 1955.
- (15) Kommunist Tadzhikistana, 26th October 1954.
- (16) Kommunist Tadzhikistana, 7th & 26th October 1954, 24th November 1955.
- (17) Pravda Vostoka, 17th November 1954.

THE BORDERLANDS OF
SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA

AFGHANISTAN

I History - II Current Affairs - III Literature and Linguistics

The present survey is the first of a series designed to afford some insight into Soviet writing on the limitrophe countries of Soviet Central Asia. Soviet attitude towards these countries is affected by practical as well as by ideological considerations, and the resulting changes of attitude are reflected to an important extent in Soviet publications. The significance of the changes which have taken place so far, and even of those which may take place in the future, can be to some extent gauged by a comparative study of past and current Soviet writings.

The following study relating to Afghanistan is divided into three main sections. The first deals with Soviet treatment of certain episodes in Afghan history; the second with Soviet writing on current Afghan affairs; and the third with Soviet writing on Afghan literature and linguistics. Owing to considerations of space and also to the difficulty of obtaining some of the earlier source material, the survey cannot claim to be in any sense exhaustive.

I HISTORY

Introduction - The first encounter: Lieutenant Vitkevich - The Stoletov Mission and the Second Afghan War - The Panjdeh incident - Afghanistan and the Basmachis - The island of Urta-Tugay - The fall of Amanullah and Soviet intervention.

Since 1878, when the Tsarist government reduced the khanates of Khiva and Bukhara to vassalage, Russia has had a common frontier with Afghanis-

tan. In spite of this, however, until the last few years Russian interest in Afghan affairs has been episodic rather than constant. Soviet treatment of Afghan history is affected by both practical and ideological considerations, the former including politics, trade and military strategy, and the latter Marxism and Greater Russian patriotism. As in all Russian historiography the broad dividing line is the final abandonment in 1937 of the Pokrovskiy theory. Before then the tendency was to condemn all imperialism, foreign or Russian; subsequently, and particularly since 1945, the tendency has been to condone Tsarist imperialism on the ground of the good it eventually brought to its conquered peoples (the Russian conquest of Central Asia is now always referred to as "incorporation"), and at the same time to lay far more emphasis on the evils of foreign imperialism. In the case of Afghanistan this has resulted in many recent Soviet accounts of Afghan history being strikingly similar to certain pre-revolutionary accounts; in both, the villain of the piece is Britain and British imperialism, and in both the conception of Afghanistan as the gateway to India and Central Asia is given prominence.

Typical of the earlier Soviet attitude is the introduction to AFGANISTAN I YEGO VOORUZHENNIYE SILY (Afghanistan and her armed forces), a book which appeared in 1928. The writer sums up Afghanistan's position as follows: "Afghanistan is a poor, sparsely populated country stretching between the USSR, Persia and India. For long she was a lure for such great plunderers as Tsarist Russia and capitalist Britain, since it was through Afghanistan that Tsarist Russia planned to seize India. But Tsarist power in Russia has been replaced by the power of the workers and peasants, and this new power has concluded a series of friendly agreements with Afghanistan which are hateful to the British capitalists, as to all capitalism." A similar view is given in the first edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (article AFGANISTAN, 1926) where Afghan nineteenth-century history is characterized as follows: "From the beginning of the nineteenth century until very recently the history of Afghanistan was determined by the role which she had to play in the struggle between British and Russian imperialism. . . . British imperialism, in its efforts to stop the Russian advance towards India, succeeded by means of a series of wars, complicated diplomatic intrigues, bribes and the like, in turning Afghanistan into a buffer state, a role which she played until 1919. It was in order to create this buffer. . . . that Britain, by diplomatic and military pressure on Tsarist Russia, managed to achieve the accession to the original Afghan provinces, i.e. Kandahar and Kabul, of a series of regions north of the Hindukush, which were neither ethnically nor economically linked with Afghanistan proper. . . . In the course of decades Tsarist policy was unable to stop the growing dependence of Afghanistan on Britain. Afghanistan, while preserving her outward independence, became in fact a colony of Britain."

BORDERLANDS

The present review of the Soviet treatment of certain episodes in Afghan history has been based chiefly on the following books: firstly, AFGANISTAN I ANGLIYSKIY UL'TIMATUM, a brief review of Afghan history from the beginning of the nineteenth century until 1924, written by Raskol'nikov (who was Ambassador in Kabul from August 1921) and published in 1924. As might be expected it is violently anti-Tsarist; secondly, I.M. Reysner's two books AFGANISTAN and NEZAVISIMYY AFGANISTAN (the former is a slightly expanded version of the latter) both published in 1929. Both these works are general surveys of Afghanistan but include long chapters on her history which are well annotated and documented; and thirdly, the relevant chapters in NOVAYA ISTORIYA STRAN ZARUBEZHNOGO VOSTOKA and NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA STRAN ZARUBEZHNOGO VOSTOKA which appeared respectively in 1952 and 1954. In both these works the chapters on Afghanistan are written by I.M. Reysner though the style and approach to his subject differ so strikingly from those of his earlier works that it is difficult to recognize the same hand. In these two latest books no reference is made to contemporary sources, nor is there any bibliography or mention of sources. They consist of interpretations of social tendencies from the Marxist viewpoint rather than of accounts of events. Recourse has also been had to the relevant articles in both editions of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (in the later edition the historical section of the article on Afghanistan is written by Reysner).

A preliminary paragraph giving a brief background and account of the events dealt with in the generally accepted western version is given at the beginning of most sections.

The first encounter: Lieutenant Vitkevich and the events leading up to the First Afghan War

In 1837 the Persian Shah Muhammed invaded Afghanistan and attacked the independent principality of Herat. Dost Muhammad was at this time ruler of Kabul and favoured the Persians against Herat since there was a blood feud between his family and that of the ruler of Herat. The Persian siege of Herat appears to have been undertaken with the encouragement and support of the Russian Ambassador in Persia, Count Simonich, and was consequently viewed with alarm by the British. The defence of Herat was organized by a British officer and during the same year both the British and Russian governments sent emissaries to Kabul to try to win the favour of Dost Muhammad, the most powerful of the Afghan rulers. Burnes, who arrived first, was charged with the difficult task of winning the friendship of Dost Muhammad without conceding his right to Peshawar, which had earlier been conquered by the Sikhs from the Afghans. Dost Muhammad was well-disposed to the British and consulted Burnes before receiv-

ing the Russian emissary, Vitkevich. When, however, Burnes's talks were broken off, Vitkevich was left with a clear field. Whatever Vitkevich's successes with Dost Muhammad may have been, they eventually came to nothing since he was later repudiated by the Tsarist government and on returning to St. Petersburg committed suicide. The failure of the British to make Dost Muhammad agree to their terms eventually resulted in the First Afghan War.

Early Soviet historians writing of these events, while blaming "British imperialism", are no less critical of the Tsarist government. Raskol'nikov writing in 1924 (1) says: ". . . Nicholas I's diplomacy succeeded in setting the Persians on the Afghans, behind whose backs stood the British, and. . . the town of Herat was besieged. . . About this time a certain Lieutenant Vitkevich was sent to Afghanistan as Russian representative in Kabul at the court of the Amir Dost Muhammad. Having lost hope in the. . . British, the Amir fell into the embraces of the Russian Ambassador. . . Vitkevich refused him nothing. . . Tsarist Russia quite unexpectedly, and in truth quite undeservedly, gained great popularity in Afghanistan. But the talentless Tsarist diplomacy was not able to consolidate the results of its own victory. . . At the critical moment Tsarist Russia shamefully betrayed Afghanistan. . . and threw her into the jaws of the British. For the sole fact of his rapprochement with Russia the British government decided to depose the Amir Dost Muhammad. . ."

Reysner writing in 1929 (2) takes much the same line. He speaks of "the increase of Russian influence in Persia, and the advance of the Persians on Herat at the instigation of Russian diplomacy. . ." He then quoted one of Palmerston's despatches which emphasizes the need for the British government to "interfere in Afghan affairs in order to counter the spread of Persian conquests. . . and to create a barrier against Russian influence". Reysner then goes on to describe Alexander Burnes' mission to Kabul, which failed through the reluctance of the British to concede Dost Muhammad's claim to Peshawar. "In these circumstances", continues Reysner, "the semi-official agent of the Tsarist government, Lieutenant Vitkevich, who had come to Kabul in 1837, was able to achieve great success. He promised the Afghans Peshawar, which did not belong to Russia, and offered them generous military and financial help. British diplomacy managed to get Vitkevich withdrawn; but as a result of all these events the First Afghan War began in 1839."

Strikingly different is Reysner's account of these same events as written in 1952 (3). Here it is the British alone who are to blame; Russia is presented as concerned for her eastern trade, but there is no mention of her military expansion towards the east. Russian instigation

of the seige of Herat by the Persians is not mentioned, nor are any reasons given for the Persian advance into Afghanistan. On the other hand, emphasis is laid on the part played by the British in defending Herat. Reysner then describes Burnes' mission to Kabul: Burnes, now described as "an experienced intelligence officer" was given the task "of drawing the Amir Dost Muhammad to the British side and of signing an alliance with him against Persia and Russia. The British wanted much without giving anything in return. They categorically refused the basic demand of Dost Muhammad that Peshawar and the other Afghan lands conquered by the Sikhs should be returned to Afghanistan." In these circumstances, Reysner goes on, "the Amir joyfully received Vitkevich. . . Vitkevich's mission to Kabul and Kandahar was crowned with complete success." There is no mention here of Vitkevich's somewhat foolhardy promises to the Amir which were described by Reysner in his earlier work (see above). The subsequent repudiation of Vitkevich by his government is now explained by the fact that "at this time Tsarism needed British help in the Near East (in the struggle against the Egyptian Muhammad Ali)". To illustrate this, reference is given to the description earlier in the book (4) of the London Convention of 1840. By 1840, however, the First Afghan War had already begun, and Vitkevich appears to have left Kabul in disgrace in 1838.

An interesting new note in Reysner's 1952 account is the emphasis he now gives to the threat to the peoples of Russian Central Asia which arose from British intervention in Afghanistan. At the same time he makes no attempt to relate British intervention in Afghanistan to Russian advances in Central Asia - as he did in his earlier work (see above). While the British were preparing for the First Afghan War, he writes, "numerous agents and spies were sent to Khiva, Bukhara and Kokand. . . in order to prepare the ground for the future expansion of British influence from Afghanistan into the Central Asian khanates. There is no doubt that the conquest of Afghanistan by the British would have created an immediate threat to the independence of the peoples of Central Asia".

While early Soviet writers acknowledge that Britain undertook the First Afghan War partly to offset growing Russian influence in Central Asia, the most recent Soviet version ascribes the war solely to the greed of British imperialism. The Soviet Encyclopaedia (1950) thus describes the war: "The First Afghan War was started by the East India Company with the aim of turning Afghanistan into a dependent country and in this way to gain a bridgehead for the further expansion of the British into Persia and Central Asia." (5)

The Stoletov mission and the Second Afghan War

Forty years after Lieutenant Vitkevich's mission to Kabul the position in Asia had greatly changed. Russia, steadily advancing southwards into Central Asia during the sixties and seventies of the last century, by 1878 had reduced the khanates of Khiva and Bukhara to vassalage and thus had a common frontier with Afghanistan. By Prince Gorchakov's memorandum of 1864 and by the frontier agreement of 1873, Russia acknowledged that Afghanistan was "beyond the sphere of her influence". Afghanistan, since about 1869, had been ruled by Dost Muhammad's son, Shir 'Ali, who had had little to do with the British Indian government. By 1876, however, when Lord Lytton, an exponent of the "forward policy" for India's frontiers, became Viceroy, Shir 'Ali's relations with Britain had become strained over a number of small points, not the least of which was the fact that he was in correspondence with General Kaufman, governor of the Russian province of Turkestan. Although Shir 'Ali sent one of Kaufman's letters to Lord Lytton in the spring of 1876, he refused to receive a British representative in Kabul on account of widespread anti-British feeling in Afghanistan - a relic of the First Afghan War. The following year British fear of Russia was intensified by the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war. War between Britain and Russia appeared imminent. After the end of the Russo-Turkish war, the powers agreed to settle their differences at the Congress of Berlin, held in July 1878. On the eve of the Congress, Russia, in order apparently to strengthen her bargaining power, carried out a military demonstration in Central Asia along the northern frontier of Afghanistan and about the same time sent General Stoletov to Kabul to negotiate a treaty of friendship between Russia and Afghanistan. On Stoletov's advice, the Amir refused to receive the British Mission which had been sent to Afghanistan as soon as news had come of the Russian mission. This resulted in a British ultimatum to Shir 'Ali and subsequently in the Second Afghan War. Shir 'Ali, in defying the British had relied on the promised Russian help (indeed, the Russian mission stayed on in Kabul after the start of the war) but by this time the Congress of Berlin was over, Anglo-Russian differences were resolved and the promised help was therefore not forthcoming.

The new edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (6) describes these events as follows: "In the circumstances arising during the Russo-Turkish war (1877-78), the Russian government, foreseeing the possibility of war with Britain, decided to enter into friendly relations with Afghanistan. In 1878, on the eve of the Congress of Berlin, the Russian envoy, Stoletov arrived in Kabul and negotiated with the Afghan rulers a Russo-Afghan treaty of friendship. Meanwhile Anglo-Russian disagreements were resolved

and the Tsarist government rejected the proposed Russo-Afghan alliance. Then, with the aim of subjugating Afghanistan in the quickest possible manner, Britain started a new war against her." This description is typical of recent Soviet interpretations of this period, namely that Britain had long since been preparing to invade Afghanistan and would have done so even without the presence of a Russian envoy in Kabul. Reysner writing in 1952 (7) explains: "The fact that the Amir received the Russian mission in Kabul and refused at the same time to receive the British mission was not, of course, the reason but the excuse for beginning the predatory war against Afghanistan which had long been prepared by the British colonizers."

Very different is Raskol'nikov's interpretation as expounded in 1924 (1). According to him, it was the Tsarist government who was solely responsible for setting off the Second Afghan War: "On the basis of available material it must be acknowledged that the objective of Russian imperialism in Afghanistan was one of provocation. Tsarist Russia took the initiative in offering Afghanistan support, promised her considerable military help and encouraged her to take anti-British action; and when finally Afghanistan, yielding to the advice and promises of her great and powerful neighbour, put into practice a pro-Russian policy in her foreign affairs, Tsarism cold-bloodedly betrayed her to. . . British imperialism." Raskol'nikov, in his zeal against Tsarism, makes no attempt to explain the change in the Russian government's attitude, which was caused by the Congress of Berlin; indeed he barely mentions the Congress. He gives an interesting account of the Russian mission in Kabul and, quoting extensively from Doctor Yavorskiy who accompanied the mission (8), gives many details which appear to have been ignored or glossed over by later writers. Thus Raskol'nikov affirms that Stoletov arrived in Kabul on 11th August (New Style), that is almost a month after the end of the Congress of Berlin. Other writers put his arrival at the end of July (9) and the Soviet Encyclopaedia (quoted above) says he arrived on the eve of the Congress (i.e. in June). Raskol'nikov then says that after news of the despatch of the British mission to Kabul was received by the Amir on 14th August, "the mere possibility of the arrival of the British so alarmed 'the brave general' that on 24th August Stoletov hurriedly left Kabul, in other words, he fled. . . As an excuse for leaving his mission in Kabul he explained that it was necessary to accompany the Afghan envoy whom Shir 'Ali apparently intended to send to Russia. However, it soon turned out that there was no question of any Afghan envoy. It appeared to be nothing but a fantasy of Stoletov's to enable him to escape from the burder of his mission and to reach the safety of the Russian frontier as soon as possible." Reysner, however, may be confirming that the Afghan envoy was not "pure fantasy" when he writes rather am-

biguously (7): "Stoletov brought Alexander II a project for a Russo-Afghan treaty of friendship which had received the full support of the Amir (August 1878)".⁷ Raskol'nikov then goes on to describe the activities of the mission after the departure of Stoletov: Razgonov, Stoletov's deputy, continued to promise the Amir military help right up to the end of November when British troops had invaded Afghanistan. According to Raskol'nikov the final refusal of Russian military aid did not come until January 1879, when Kaufman wrote to the Amir "Having received the definite command of the great Hazret, His Majesty the Emperor, I cannot send Your Highness our army". Raskol'nikov then quotes Shir 'Ali (presumably from Yavorskiy) as saying: "When General Stoletov came to Kabul. . . I gave him my right hand and said: 'Has he not brought fire once more to Afghanistan as Vitkevich did before him?' To this General Stoletov answered that he had come to protect Afghanistan from the insults of the British. And what happened? For the second time Afghanistan is being destroyed as a result of the promises of Russian Ambassadors. . . "

Recent Soviet writers in laying all responsibility for the Second Afghan War on the British - and consequently glossing over some episodes of the Stoletov mission in Kabul - repeatedly emphasize Britain's predatory designs on Central Asia as well as on Afghanistan. The British, they insist, would have invaded Afghanistan whether the Russians had appeared there or not, and "British imperialists thought not only of Afghanistan. Having conquered that country they hoped then to wrest Central Asia from Russia. In the opinion of the Prime Minister Disraeli, Queen Victoria had only 'to give the signal for her army to rid Central Asia of the Muscovites and chase them into the Caspian Sea. For this aim', Disraeli wrote to the Queen, 'we have a suitable exponent in Lord Lytton'" (7).

The Panjdeh incident

In February 1884, the Russians, still advancing southwards, took the Merv oasis, a move of which the British took a grave view. In the spring of the same year, the Russian and British governments agreed to the setting up of a frontier commission to demarcate the Russo-Afghan frontier. In the delay before the commission could begin work, the Russians moved south from Merv along the Hari Rud and Murgab rivers into territory inhabited by Turkmen tribes who were nominally vassals of the Amir of Afghanistan. Tension between the Russians and Afghans mounted, and finally in March 1885, the Russians engaged and defeated the Afghan forces and occupied the Panjdeh oasis. British "Mervousness" and the threat of war with Russia were, however, dispelled by the agreement of September 1885 by which the Russians retained Panjdeh in return for ceding Zulfiqar on the Hari Rud river to the Afghans, an agreement which proved

satisfactory to the three powers concerned.

All Soviet writers make much of the fact that Abdur Rahman, at this period Amir of Afghanistan, was subsidized and armed by the British. Indeed, Abdur Rahman is a sore point with Russian writers, both Tsarist and Soviet, since in spite of having lived in exile in Russian Central Asia for several years during the reign of his uncle Shir 'Ali, when in 1880, he came to the throne, he threw in his lot with the British. As one Tsarist writer put it (10) "It is shameful, bitter and painful that we nourished a viper in our bosom. . . ." Much the same line is taken by Soviet writers, even by one so violently anti-Tsarist as Raskol'nikov, who writes of Abdur Rahman's return in these terms: "Having learnt of the situation, he at once forgot Russian hospitality and put his money on the British." (1)

Reysner, writing in 1929 (11), describes the Panjdeh incident as follows: ". . . The only armed conflict took place in 1885 at Tash-Kepri, when Tsarist Russia seized by force the Panjdeh oasis. . . after having driven out the Afghan army. The incident resulted in extreme tension in Anglo-Russian relations and even at one time threatened the peace of Europe; but it was finally resolved by diplomatic means."

The Soviet Encyclopaedia (1950) describes the incident as follows: "After the conquest of Turkmenia by Russia (1884), Afghanistan's frontier with Russia was still further extended. The British rulers in India provoked Abdur Rahman to seize the Turkmen lands, and this resulted in 1885 in a conflict between Afghan and Russian forces at Tash-Kepri. By the peaceful demarcation of 1886-87, the disputed lands were almost entirely left to Russia." The same events are thus described in 1952 (12): ". . . After the annexation of Merv (1884) the Tsarist army began to move into the southern Turkmen lands and towards the areas under Afghan rule. Between the Turkmen and Afghan areas. . . there was as yet no frontier. Making use of the uncertainty of this part of the frontier, the British incited the Afghans to seize the Turkmen lands lying to the south of Merv. . . British officers started to fortify Herat, to stir up intrigues among the Turkmen leaders, and above all to incite the Afghans against the Russians. This resulted in a conflict with the Tsarist army. In the struggle at Tash-Kepri (1885) the Afghan army was utterly defeated by General Komarov. The British agents provocateurs took no part in the battle and were the first to flee. . . The British tried to make use of these events and to force Abdur Rahman into a war with Russia. . . , but the Amir's policy was one of caution and he understood perfectly what the British wanted. For this reason he did not support the British. . . Thus the British, who began by rattling the sabre, were later forced to withdraw and to agree entirely with the

Russian proposals for the frontier line. In 1887 the frontier from the Amu-Dar'ya to Zulfiqar on the Hari Rud river was settled."

Afghanistan and the Basmachis

The young Amir Amanullah came to the throne of Afghanistan in the spring of 1919 after the assassination of his father the Amir Habibullah. Amanullah was fired with ideas of independence and progress and one of his first actions was to address a letter to Lenin suggesting the establishment of diplomatic relations between the Soviet government and Afghanistan. In the autumn of 1919 representatives were exchanged. At the same time as his first overtures to the Soviet government, Amanullah declared himself free to conduct his foreign affairs without the consent of the British government and this was in fact conceded by the British at the Treaty of Rawalpindi of July 1919 at the end of the Third Afghan War. The rise of a new young nationalist government in Afghanistan so soon after the Russian Revolution, and the fact that the first state to recognize the independence of Afghanistan was Soviet Russia, have been hailed by all Soviet writers as proof both of the powerful effect of the October Revolution on peoples of the East and of the true friendship of Russia for Afghanistan. As E.H. Carr has pointed out (13): "Soviet relations with Afghanistan were the least complicated since no local communist movement existed or was likely to exist, and single-minded support could be given from Moscow to the national government."

A Soviet-Afghan treaty was apparently signed in Kabul on 13th September 1920 (14), but it was not ratified until February 1921 by the Soviet Government, nor until August of that year by the Afghan Government (15). In the meantime relations between Afghanistan and the Soviet government were strained by events then taking place in Central Asia, and particularly in Bukhara. Amanullah, as ruler of the first Muslim state to declare its independence, was sensible of his position in the Muslim world. As one Soviet writer put it in 1922 (16): "The Turkey of Istanbul had ceased to exist, and while Ankara was still in the throes of a desperate struggle for its existence, the Afghan government considered itself heir to the Caliphate and directed its foreign policy accordingly." As guardian of the Muslim world, Amanullah also had an interest in Russian Central Asia. Until September 1920, Soviet rule, centred on Tashkent, was nominally in control of all Russian Central Asia with the exception of the states of Khiva and Bukhara. After the destruction of the Turkic nationalist government of Kokand by the Red Army in February 1918, an anti-Soviet partisan movement, known as the Basmachi movement, had sprung up in Fergana. Bukhara was still ruled by the Emir Abdul Said Mir Alim, who, in March 1918, had successfully repulsed a Red Army attack against him. Reysner (17) describes in

considerable detail Afghanistan's attitude at this time. "The ruler of Afghanistan appeared in the role of supreme protector of all Muslims, equally interested in the result of Greco-Turkish relations, in the rising in Egypt, and in the fate of Bukhara. . . ." Reysner, moreover, points out that Afghanistan was economically interested in Bukhara: "In 1920 the bazaars of Bukhara were filled with Anglo-Indian goods. These goods came through Afghanistan. On the closing of the outlet to the Russian market, Bukharan karakul, Bukharan wool, and at times Bukharan cotton, found other outlets. These were the reasons for the temporary revival of the ancient trade route through the Hindukush. . . We have no exact details of the Afghan budget, but in all probability during the period 1920 and later, duties on transit goods, and especially on such highly priced raw materials as karakul, made up an important part of the revenues of Afghanistan. Politically this was expressed in Afghanistan's attempts to have the most friendly relations with royal Bukhara." Reysner then goes on to describe the assistance given by Afghanistan to Bukhara: "Afghanistan entered into official relations with royal Bukhara. . . In spite of the great lack of arms and equipment from which the Afghan army suffered in the winter 1919-20, a battery accompanied by Afghan instructors was sent as a gift to Bukhara. . . Besides artillery, infantry detachments numbering in all 500 men were sent to the service of Bukhara (17)."

Again, according to Reysner (17) (who quotes from Ginsburg (18) and Zuyev (19)), as early as 1919 the Afghans were also in contact with the anti-Soviet Fergana Basmachis. "As S. Ginsburg writes. . . 'in the first half of December 1919 an Afghan delegation visited Mamed Amin (20) after having reconciled him with Irgach (20) and the other leaders. The same delegation had talks about setting up in Fergana a constituent assembly with the co-operation of Afghanistan, and for this the Afghans promised financial and military help'. R.R. Zuyev gives a somewhat different version of this event 'The Afghan representative insisted. . . on Mamed Amin giving him a letter for the Amir of Afghanistan with the request that the Amir should receive Turkestan, and in particular Fergana, under his mighty hand. For this he promised 500 rifles and 1,800,000 cartridges.'" Reysner ascribes these overtures to the Basmachis to the fact that "certain strata of the Afghan ruling class had dreams of creating a Central Asian Muslim federation from Transcaspia to Fergana in which Afghanistan would take first place". Another reason given by Reysner was that "the possibility of extending their territory. . . appeared as the simplest way out of their internal economic difficulties". Reysner, however, remarks that these were "very feeble attempts" and that "in fact Afghan policy was limited. . . by the weakness of her material resources". Indeed, no other reference to Afghan help to the Basmachis in the period 1919-20 has been found in any of the Russian and

Western books consulted. But events at this time were exceptionally confused, and there was moreover as yet no firm contact between the Soviet government and Afghanistan. Bravin, the first Soviet Ambassador to Kabul seems to have been coolly received (21) by the Amir and not long afterwards he was assassinated. Communications between Kabul and Moscow in the conditions of the Civil War were difficult in the extreme.

In the spring of 1920 Bravin was succeeded as Ambassador by Surits; and in October 1920 Jemal Pasha, a former "Young Turk" leader, arrived in Kabul probably at the instigation of Moscow (13). Jemal appears to have had considerable influence on Afghan policy both internal and foreign, and Nikulin (16) writing of him in 1922 says: "It must be acknowledged that the very noticeable successes of the Afghans in the field of reforms, and the whole epoch of enlightened absolutism in Afghanistan would not have come to pass in such a comparatively short time had it not been for the first lessons in enlightened statesmanship given by the mission led by Jemal Pasha." And of his influence in foreign affairs, Nikulin writes: "The awakening of the all-Muslim national idea. . . had a clear reflection in Afghanistan's foreign policy; consequently in this too the national ideas of the first Turkish mission in independent Afghanistan played a considerable part." Moreover Jemal appears to have had a still more important task namely, that of "dispelling Afghan suspicions of Moscow" (13). Recent Soviet works, however, scarcely mention Jemal Pasha's work in Afghanistan; in the Soviet Encyclopaedia he is described as "a reactionary" and his Afghan activities are given tersely in one sentence: "From 1920 he was military adviser in Afghanistan." (22) Reysner writing on Afghanistan in 1954 (23) does not mention him in connection with Afghanistan at all.

Another and more notorious "Young Turk" leader who was to cause the Soviet government much embarrassment arrived on the Central Asian scene in 1921. Enver Pasha, who had won fame throughout the Muslim world for his part in the 1908 revolution in Turkey, had come to Moscow in the summer of 1920 where he was apparently well-received by Lenin. At the end of 1921 he appeared in Bukhara. In September 1920 Bukhara had been captured by the Red Army and the Emir, with a small band of supporters, had fled to the mountains. Hard pressed by the Bolshevik forces, early in 1921 he took refuge in Afghan territory, and by May 1921 was in Kabul where he appears to have been kept in semi-confinement. At the demand of the Russian Ambassador in Kabul his personal guard was reduced to 300 men (24). He appears, however, to have taken an active interest in the fate of his former kingdom.

After the Bolshevik seizure of power in Bukhara the Basmachi movement acquired new vigour and by the end of 1921 controlled the whole of

eastern Bukhara. "The Basmachi movement", writes Soloveychik in 1922 (25), "was subsidized by the Emir and the Bukharan emigres who were on Afghan territory." Tension between the Afghan and Soviet governments was inevitable. When in December 1921 Enver Pasha joined the Basmachis and became their leader, events took a still more decisive turn. It is a debatable point whether Enver Pasha was in fact sent to Central Asia by the Soviet government to combat the Basmachis. The Bashkir nationalist leader, Togan, affirms that he was; so does Agabekov (26) and Castagne (20) and these three writers were in Central Asia in or around this period. On the other hand there is no direct reference to Enver being sponsored by the Bolsheviks in any Soviet book - as might be expected. Reysner (27) says of him: "In 1920 Enver found a temporary refuge in the RSFSR and hastened to thank the Soviet government by treacherously going over to the side of the Basmachis." Soloveychik (25) says that he came to Bukhara "as a guest". With the presence of Enver Pasha as leader of the anti-Soviet forces and in close communication with the former Emir, who was then in Afghanistan, the Afghan government came out more strongly against the Bolsheviks. Frazer-Tytler (28) says that Amanullah, "his head filled with dreams of a Central Asian confederacy under his own leadership, concentrated his forces under some of his ablest commanders along the northern frontiers; and, without definitely committing himself, entered into correspondence with Enver Pasha and awaited results." Reysner (29) bears this out: ". . . certain Afghan groups did not wish to accept the Soviet revolution in Bukhara and tried to give support to the Basmachis and to Enver. . . As Mayskiy. . . says. . . 'Enver was supported by certain representatives of the Afghan government and in particular by the Afghan Ambassador in Bukhara. When it was confirmed that the latter had a part in a conspiracy against the Bukharan government he was expelled from the Bukharan republic.' . . . It is enough to say that when drawing up their plans, our command 'did not exclude the possibility of Afghanistan's active intervention on the side of Bukharan counter-revolution.' (30). . . Enver had up to a thousand Afghan volunteers. . . and the supply of the Basmachi forces with firearms was in part carried out from Afghanistan. . . Allowing for the obvious exaggeration of the possibility of Afghanistan's open military intervention it must be admitted that at this time a certain tension was created in Soviet-Afghan relations, which returned to their normal course only after the final defeat of the Basmachi movement and the start of peaceful construction in Bukhara." Enver had received the Afghan title of Sirdar at the beginning of 1921 (27) and his popularity with the Afghans, as indeed with the whole Muslim world, is well brought out by Raskol'nikov (1) who was himself Ambassador in Kabul in succession to Surits from the summer of 1921. Raskol'nikov writes: ". . . Enver enjoyed authority in the Muslim world. His name, linked with the Young Turk revolution of 1908 in Constantinople, was, in the eyes of the Muslims, surrounded with a special halo. To illustrate this it is enough to remember that when, for example, at one con-

ference of Indian Muslims the question arose as to who was in fact to command the Indian army once India had won her independence, the almost unanimous answer was heard: 'Of course, Enver Pasha'. It was natural that in Afghanistan too Enver was at times popular. For this reason the fact of his joining the counter-revolutionary camp of the Basmachis, the accomplices of the deposed Emir of Bukhara, made a great impression in Afghanistan." In 1922 the Soviet government apparently demanded the withdrawal of Afghan troops and a proclamation of Afghan neutrality. This demand does not appear to be mentioned in Soviet writings on Afghanistan. It was, however, evidently agreed to by Amanullah who in November 1922 abandoned his project of armed intervention (see Frazer-Tytler op.cit. (28) p.203). In the meantime Enver Pasha had been killed by Bolshevik troops in August 1922 and the Basmachis, left without a unified command, gradually dispersed.

Of these events, which took place in the period 1919-22, the only mention made in the most recent work on Afghanistan consulted (23) is the following: "The struggle for Afghanistan's independence against imperialism roused the government of Afghan landowners to enter into friendly relations with Soviet Russia, because the preservation and consolidation of these relations would be decisive factors in the independent existence of Afghanistan. The foreign policy of every state, however, is always an extension of its internal policy and expresses the interests of the ruling class. As feudal exploiters of their own people and as exponents of a policy of oppression and assimilation towards the non-Afghan peoples, the landowner government of Amanullah could not be consistent in the struggle against imperialism; the government combined the struggle against it with an attempt to strengthen the power of the landowners over the Afghan and non-Afghan peoples; it obscured the growing consciousness of the people with the reactionary preaching of pan-Islamism, and it feared the political awakening of the popular masses of Afghanistan. Hence the second, reactionary, tendency in the Young Afghan government's foreign policy, a tendency which confused Soviet-Afghan relations and undermined the struggle of Afghanistan for independence.

"This second tendency, which was not, however, the dominant one in the period under review (i.e. presumably 1919-22), consisted in the aggressive attempts of the Afghan landowners to expand their dominion at the expenses of foreign countries, to seize part of Central Asia and turn it into their feudal colony. . . The anti-Soviet intrigues of the ruling circles of Afghanistan in Central Asia suited the British and American (sic) imperialists, who appeared as the basic organizers and inspirers of the forces of local counter-revolution. The driving out of the British interventionists from Transcaspia, the strengthening of Soviet power in Turkestan, the defeat of the Basmachi bands in Fergana and finally, the

victorious rising of the people of Bukhara, which in August 1920 drove out the hated power of the Emir with the brotherly help of the Red Army, were a decisive blow to the forces of local counter-revolution and the imperialists who stood behind them. These events had a sobering effect on the Afghan landowners, made possible the consolidation of Soviet-Afghan relations, and by the same token strengthened the position of Afghanistan in her struggle for independence."

The island of Urta-Tugay

The question of the Basmachis, however, again arose at the end of 1925 over a frontier incident which for a short while caused tension between the Soviet and Afghan governments. The frontier agreement of 1873 had not made it plain whether Afghanistan's northern boundary was the thalweg or one of the banks of the Amu-Dar'ya river. In November 1925 the island of Urta Tugay (S.W. of Kulyab) was occupied by Soviet troops, who drove out the Afghan garrison. The dispute was resolved when agreement was reached between the two governments to set up a mixed Soviet-Afghan commission; this finally awarded the island to Afghanistan.

The incident is not mentioned in either edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia nor in NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA STRAN ZARUBEZHNOGO VOSTOKA. Reysner in 1929 describes it as follows: "A frontier incident of 1st December 1925 caused by the dispute over the ownership of the island of Urta-Tugay. . . was amicably settled by the work of a mixed Soviet-Afghan commission, which gave this island back to Afghanistan 'in view of the overwhelming economic interests of the latter'. . ." Contemporary Soviet newspapers give an interesting, if somewhat contradictory, account of how the incident arose. The official version, as published in IZVESTIYA of 5th March 1926 (31) said that Urta-Tugay had belonged to the emirate of Bukhara and ought to be part of the newly formed Tadzhik autonomous region. Occupied by the Afghans during the civil war in Bukhara, the island had become a haunt of brigands. The previous November a group of 300 Tadzhik refugees returning home had landed on the island and had come in conflict with the Afghan post. Having disarmed the post the Tadzhiks had driven out the Afghans, and, with the object of restoring order, the Russian post on the other side of the river had intervened and occupied the island. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 10th June 1926 reported a speech made by Faizulla Khodzhayev, who gave a different version. According to him, the island had been the subject of an exchange of notes between the governments of Afghanistan and of the republic of Bukhara; but nothing had resulted from this. With the development of military operations against the Basmachis, however, the island had become a strategic point of the first order for the provisioning of the Basmachis and as a passage into Tadzhikistan. During one of these operations detachments of

the Red Army assisted by local volunteers had pursued the Basmachis on to the island and had occupied it. PRAVDA VOSTOKA during March 1926 produced a series of editorials blaming the Afghan government for not dealing with the Basmachis who were still troubling Soviet territory. On 10th March the editorial said: "It seems to us that the Afghan government knows as well as we do what the Emir of Bukhara is doing at present. . . If they do not, we can tell them that the Basmachi bands are pillaging the peasants and sending the fruits of their pillage to Kabul where the Emir lives, in order to help in the upkeep of his harem." The amicable settlement of the Urta-Tugay incident was held up as an object lesson to the Afghan government: "If the little incident over the question of the ownership of a little island in the Amu-Dar'ya shows our pacifism and our desire to maintain friendly relations with the Afghan people, it seems to us that the Afghan government should draw conclusions from it." (31)

In August 1926 the Treaty of Paghman concluded between the Soviet Union and Afghanistan stipulated in one of its clauses that neither party would tolerate on its territory the activity of elements hostile to the other.

The fall of Amanullah and Soviet intervention

Amanullah returned from his tour of the western world in July 1928 with the determination to modernize Afghanistan, and he forthwith introduced a series of reforms. Dissatisfaction was widespread and in November 1928 a rebellion broke out among the Shinwari tribe of eastern Afghanistan. The rising spread, and in December a bandit leader from northern Afghanistan, Bachcha-i-Saqao (Son of the Water-carrier), led a force against Kabul which he captured in January and proclaimed himself Amir. A month or two later Amanullah's Ambassador in Moscow staged an abortive incursion across the frontier with an armed detachment; but in the meanwhile Amanullah fled to Kandahar and thence to India. Bachcha-i-Saqao's reign, however, was short, for in October 1929 he was driven out by Nadir Khan, a relative of Amanullah and the father of the present ruler of Afghanistan. With Nadir Khan's coming to power Afghanistan was gradually restored to order.

The Soviet government and press followed these events with the closest attention and all Soviet versions are unanimous in laying the blame for the overthrow of Amanullah in part at least on the British. Particular emphasis is laid on the part allegedly played by T.E. Lawrence in instigating the revolt. PRAVDA of 20th December 1928 (31) said: "Official Afghan sources of information. . . categorically confirm that a very suspicious role has been played by the famous British 'specialist' on oriental affairs, the adventurer Lawrence. This person has for some reason

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come to Afghanistan and his journey has brought him to the very region today occupied by the rebels. British imperialism cannot admit that between subject India and the USSR an independent state should exist which would not let itself be dragged into. . . an anti-Soviet policy." IZVESTIYA of the same date said: ". . . A certain Colonel Lawrence, who naturally acts 'in a private capacity', has appeared among the Shinwari tribe. . ." The charge against Lawrence (who never, it seems, in fact set foot in Afghanistan) is repeated in the second edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (6). Reysner writing in 1929 takes a rather more cautious line over Lawrence (32): "Wide publicity has been given to the activity of the famous agent of the British 'Intelligence Service', Colonel Lawrence. The Indian, French and German press affirm that Lawrence, under the name of Tom Shaw, a mechanic of the Royal Air Force, is on the Afghan frontier, that he lives in a style clearly inconsistent with his humble position and that he has at his disposal large sums of money. The Afghan government has given orders for the arrest of Lawrence should he appear on the territory of the Amirate. Influenced by these discoveries the British government recalled Lawrence from India." (According to Chambers Encyclopaedia, Lawrence left India at the end of 1929.)

In all Soviet writing Bachcha-i-Saqao's rising is described as reactionary and anti-Soviet; his support for the Basmachis and the former Emir of Bukhara is repeatedly emphasized. It is only in the most recent books, however, that Bachcha is described as a tool of Britain. Reysner in 1929 (32) says that Britain "supported all movements directed against a centralized government" (i.e. against Amanullah's government) and thus entered into negotiations with Bachcha; but he goes on to point out that Bachcha's movement was a peasant rising and that "peasant risings even though developing under the leadership of reactionary clergy would be a danger to their neighbour, colonial India". Reysner in 1954 (23), however, writes of Bachcha hiding "his close links with the British imperialists from the people" and the handbook on Afghanistan published in 1953 (33) describes Bachcha simply as "the stooge of the British".

Thus from the outset the Soviet government backed Amanullah, even, when his case looked desperate, to the extent of armed intervention. Frazer-Tytler (28) writes: "Shortly before (Amanullah's) final defeat his Ambassador in Moscow, Ghulam Nabi. . . crossed the Oxus at the head of a small force, almost certainly equipped and reinforced by the Soviet Government. But the north was bitterly hostile to Amanullah and the Soviet government were not prepared to back their fancy very far. In consequence Ghulam Nabi could get no further than Mazar-i-Sherif." Ghulam Nabi's force is not mentioned in any recent Soviet books consulted: it is, however, mentioned in contemporary Soviet accounts of

the civil war in Afghanistan. Reysner in 1929 (32) says: "In northern Afghanistan the attempt by General Ghulam Nabi, the former Afghan Ambassador in Moscow, to hold the Mazar province for Amanullah. . . ended unsuccessfully. After a series of successes at the beginning of June, Ghulam Nabi was forced to evacuate Northern Afghanistan, and separate detachments of his army who crossed over to the territory of the USSR were disarmed by the Soviet authorities." This version is repeated by Gurevich in 1930 (34) who says: "The struggle of General Ghulam Nabi (former Ambassador in Moscow) in northern Afghanistan was also unsuccessful; his detachments, unable to resist attacks, fled (some of them crossed over to the territory of the USSR and were interned) and the province fell into the hands of the supporters of the Kabul monarch." PRAVDA of 8th May 1929 announced that Ghulam Nabi and his force were besieged in the town of Mazar-i-Sherif and that they were directing their artillery on the positions held by the partisans of Bachcha-i-Saqao and their aerial bombardment on the fort of Deidadi (31). The mention of "aerial bombardment" is of interest since the Afghan air force (consisting, according to one Soviet source (35), of about fifteen aeroplanes in 1928) was very largely equipped, manned and trained by Russians. The same issue of PRAVDA, however, published a statement by the Afghan Embassy in Paris which said: "The Mission affirms that the USSR has never interfered in the internal affairs of Afghanistan." (31)

During the months of April and May 1929 the Soviet press repeatedly emphasized the threats to Soviet territory from Basmachi bands based on Afghanistan and several raids were described. PRAVDA of 10th May reported that Bachcha-i-Saqao had held a national assembly at which were present the ex-Emir of Bukhara, the Basmachi chief Ibrahim Bek and a certain number of Turkmen chiefs hostile to the Soviet Union. IZVESTIYA of the same date published the rumour that Bachcha-i-Saqao had promised the Emir his complete support for an offensive against Tadzhikistan (31). PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 26th May carried a report of a meeting at Kabul at the end of February between the ex-Emir of Bukhara and the former Basmachi chiefs. Bachcha-i-Saqao's collaboration with the Basmachi is summarized by Reysner in 1954 as follows (23): "The foreign policy of the newly created regime was decidedly hostile to the USSR. Southern Turkestan was turned into a counter-revolutionary bridgehead on the frontiers of the Soviet Union. Over this area bands of Basmachis held sway. . . The British imperialists generously supplied the Basmachi bands with money and weapons. But the Red Army vigilantly defended the frontiers of the USSR, and certain Basmachi bands, trying to make their way on to Soviet territory, were swiftly defeated by the local efforts of the workers. . . and detachments of the Red Army." Commenting on Soviet press reports during 1929, the Russian emigre newspaper, RUL, in April 1929 made the point that Dybenko (the Soviet military commander in Central Asia) had in-

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vented these incursions in order to have an excuse for intervention in Afghanistan (31). Indeed, another emigre Russian source, POSLEDNIYA NOVOSTI of 26th January 1929 (31) gives a detailed account of a conference allegedly held in Tashkent earlier the same month between Dybenko, commanding the forces in Central Asia, Bulin, representative of the chief of the political direction of the Red Army (who was sent specially from Moscow) and other local military and political leaders, at which political and military intervention in Afghanistan was discussed. It was apparently decided to organize a communist party in Afghanistan which would proclaim a Soviet regime in the country and which would be backed by military force from the Soviet Union. For this purpose military preparations in Central Asia would have to be greatly increased. In April 1929 Russian emigre papers continued to describe Soviet military preparations along the Afghan frontier, mentioning in particular air force reinforcements (31), and PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 24th April quoted a speech by Dybenko which may support this. Dybenko said: "We must not for a single moment forget this danger, especially here on the frontier and in the immediate neighbourhood of a country where Britain is setting one tribe against another. The aim of the British lords is to transform Afghanistan into a spearhead for a future offensive against our Union. This menace obliges us to reorganize our industry and our rural economy. . . This will make it possible to increase to proportions infinitely greater the defensive qualities of our country in view of the inevitable conflict with imperialism." (31)

As might be expected, details of Soviet implication in Ghulam Nabi's force are to be found only in non-Soviet sources. Agabekov (26) devotes a chapter of his memoirs to the Soviet intervention. He says that the Soviet government decided to support Amanullah against the advice of the GPU who believed that "Bachcha-i-Saqao. . . was supported by the peasantry whose interests he defended" and that "by supporting him it would be possible gradually to sovietize Afghanistan". Agabekov then mentions a conference between Stalin, Ghulam Jelani (Afghan Minister of Foreign Affairs and brother of the Afghan Ambassador in Moscow Ghulam Nabi), and Primakov, the former Soviet Military Attache at Kabul, at which it was decided "to organize a shock group from the Red Army, to dress the Red Army soldiers as Afghans and to send them. . . into Afghanistan to march on Kabul. The expedition was to be led politically by the Ambassador in Moscow Ghulam Nabi." Agabekov goes on to describe how after Soviet planes had bombed the Afghan frontier post of Patta-Hissar, the infantry crossed the Amu-Dar'ya and captured Mazar-i-Sherif and then Tash-Kurgan. He goes on: "At the same time news was received in Moscow that Amanullah, for whose sake the expedition had been undertaken and in whose name Ghulam Nabi had captured the Afghan towns, had fled from Kandahar to India. . . Ghulam Nabi, having lost the possibility of acting in the name

of Amanullah had to return. By an order from Moscow the Soviet army hurriedly retired and three days later returned to Soviet territory. The recall of the Soviet army was caused by the fact that its penetration into Afghanistan had begun to be noticed not only by foreign missions in Kabul but even in the European press." (The latter remark seems to be borne out by Gurevich (34) who says: ". . . The British press showed the greatest hospitality to all sorts of fables and insinuations about Soviet intrigues in Afghanistan, about a Soviet ultimatum to Bachcha-i-Saqao, and so on") (36.)

. . .

During the period of strong and stable government which ensued in Afghanistan from 1929 onwards, relations between Afghanistan and the USSR have been more or less normal. Direct intervention in Afghan affairs by the Soviet government or its armed forces ceased after the ill-starred attempt of 1929, a phenomenon which was later to find its counterpart in the change of Soviet attitude towards Persia after the failure of the Azerbaydzhani venture in 1946.

II CURRENT AFFAIRS

Introduction - Soviet-Afghan treaties and agreements - Education in Afghanistan - The handicraft industry; carpets and weaving - Ethnography - Pakhtunistan.

The visit of Marshal Bulganin and Mr. Khrushchev to Kabul last December brought Afghanistan into the news for the Soviet public. Not since the late twenties has similar publicity been given to Afghanistan. The Paghman pact of non-aggression in 1926, the visit of King Amanullah to Moscow in 1928 and his subsequent defeat and deposition drew considerable attention from the Soviet press, but apart from this period, until last year, Afghanistan, in spite of its long frontier with the USSR, and in spite of the fairly continuous trading activities between the two countries, received scant mention in the Soviet daily press. Descriptions of Afghanistan were confined to the more specialized periodicals, and when mention was made of Afghanistan in literature it was to underline the hard plight of the Afghan peasantry and to compare it with the high standard of material well-being of the Central Asia peasantry across the border. (See, for example, the Turkmen writer Ata Kaushutov's short story "The return of Sakhi" in his anthology SEM'YA OKHOTNIKA KANDYMA.) With the visit of the Soviet leaders to Afghanistan, however, both the central and local daily press have devoted articles to Afghanistan giving short accounts of how the country is governed, of her economy, and especially of her relations with the Soviet Union. Articles giving the impressions of Soviet visitors to Afghanistan have also appeared in such weekly journals as OGONEK and NOVOYE VREMYA.

Soviet-Afghan treaties and agreements

The Soviet government's active interest in Afghanistan has steadily increased since the end of the war, and particularly since 1953. The various treaties and agreements between the two countries since the war can be summarized as follows:

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| June | 1946 | Frontier agreement signed in Moscow. By this Afghanistan's northern frontier was to be the thalweg rather than the south bank of the Amu-Dar'ya river. |
| | 1950 | Agreement on trade and payments on an annual basis. |
| April | 1953 | Technical aid mission sent to Kabul. |

- January 1954 Credit agreement signed in Kabul under which Afghanistan received \$3.5 million.
- October 1954 Credit and assistance agreement signed under which the Soviet Union gave Afghanistan credit \$5.6 million.
- June 1955 Transit agreement signed in Moscow granting both sides free transit through the other's territory.
- August 1955 Trade agreement on annual basis signed in Kabul.
- December 1955 Protocol prolonging the 1931 Soviet-Afghan Treaty of Non-Agression for a further ten years.
- December 1955 Credit agreement signed in Kabul under which Afghanistan received \$100 million.
- March 1956 Agreement on technical aid for Afghanistan signed in Kabul.

Russian achievements in Afghanistan were summarized in an article entitled "A long-standing and durable friendship" which appeared in PRAVDA on 17th December 1955: "As Afghanistan has neither sufficient experience nor the necessary technicians, she gratefully makes use of the services of qualified Soviet specialists. . . Thus several years ago the Kunduz cotton-cleaning plant was equipped with Soviet machines. With the help of Soviet specialists eight petrol stores were constructed and the preliminary work of selecting sites for the construction of three more was carried out. As part of their technical aid Soviet specialists have carried out preliminary prospecting for the locating of industrial resources of sulphur in the Mazar-i-Sherif area and preliminary work for the construction of a wharf at Kizil-Kalal. . . on the river Pyandzh (Amu-Dar'ya). . . Of particular importance. . . is the construction now under way in Kabul of an elevator, and of a mill and a bread factory. . . Construction is advancing and twenty-eight Soviet specialists are engaged on it. In June of this year (i.e. 1955) work was started on the construction of an elevator at Pul-i-Khumri. . ." Frequent mention is also made in the Soviet press of the asphalt factory built by the Russians in Kabul and of the recent asphaltting of the streets of Kabul which was carried out under Russian supervision.

It is significant that in all Soviet reporting on Afghanistan so far seen no mention at all is made of any projects carried out by any country other than the USSR. Of the German hydroelectric project at Sarobi, the American hydroelectric irrigation schemes in the Helmand and Kandahar

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valleys, or of the American-built airport at Kandahar there is not a word. Still more striking is the omission of any reference to the work of the various United Nations organizations in Afghanistan, with one exception which is discussed below. In general the impression put across in current Soviet articles is that Russia is the one true friend of Afghanistan and (by omission) that she is the one country who is offering Afghanistan any assistance; Afghanistan is shown as turning to Russia because her western and southern neighbours are hostile to her: Pakistan has refused transit of Afghan goods through her territory because of the dispute over Pakhtunistan (see below) and Persia has taken up an uncompromising attitude over the utilization of the waters of the Helmand river. Both these countries are incited by the imperialist powers who aim at exploiting Afghanistan.

Education in Afghanistan

The only reference to the work of any United Nations organization in Afghanistan that has been found in Soviet publications is a review by R.T. Akhramovich of the Report of the UNESCO mission to Afghanistan (published in Paris in 1952). Akhramovich's review appeared in KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA No. XIV of 1955 and consists largely of a resume of the Report, together with a few comments.

Akhramovich begins: ". . . The Report of the mission. . . in spite of the attempt of its authors to limit themselves to 'pedagogic problems' contains many very significant facts which throw light not only on the level of popular education but also on the conditions of life of the workers (in particular the working intelligentsia) in modern Afghanistan.

". . . The members of the mission emphasize the exceptional economic backwardness of the country. . . Ignoring the real causes of backwardness in rural districts which are exploited not only by local land-owners and traders but also by the imperialist monopolies, the authors of the Report . . . try to lay all the blame on the 'people's ignorance' of contemporary methods of mechanized agriculture, irrigation and cheap hydroelectric energy which leads to the 'unproductive waste of existing manpower'(!)"

Akhramovich then quotes the Report on the very poor attendance in schools, the bad conditions in them and the very low level of education. He criticizes the Report for not mentioning that "the most important reason why the vast majority of children in Afghanistan do not receive any education is the absence in the country of a minimum number of schools" and to prove this quotes an official Afghan report that in 1949 there were only 279 schools with 76,000 pupils out of a total population of about ten million.

He then discusses the position of teachers in Afghanistan and quotes

the Report which says that teachers are badly trained and extremely poorly paid: many receive no more than 200 afghanis a month [$\pounds 1 = 47.04$ afghanis] while books cost from 20 to 50 afghanis each. "The material position of teachers in Afghanistan is described by the Report as 'tragic'."

Akhramovich goes on to discuss government expenditure on education. He notes that 18 per cent of the Afghan budget is spent on education (40 per cent is allocated to the army and the police) and that 70 per cent of the budget of the Ministry of Education goes on middle and higher educational establishments. However, in 1952 the total number of those completing courses at the lycees and professional schools was 349; from this Akhramovich concludes that "the overwhelming part of the allocation for education is spent on the education of the children of the ruling classes".

The review concludes by saying that the Report mentions the financial difficulties of the Afghan government. "In fact since the war Afghanistan has suffered from acute economic difficulties which are connected with the active penetration of imperialist monopolies into the economy of the country. . . It is well known that imperialism. . . brings the people only greater poverty and the preservation of backwardness. One of the proofs of this is the pitiful situation in popular education in Afghanistan of today."

A somewhat different impression of Afghan education is given in an article by Velichkovskiy (Director of the Moscow Institute for the Advanced Training of Teachers) which appeared in NEW TIMES No.5 of January 1955. Velichkovskiy was a member of a Soviet cultural delegation who visited Kabul in December 1954. Describing a visit to an elementary school he writes: "We were taken over the school and shown samples of the pupils' handiwork. . . Everywhere we saw evidence of the boundless devotion of the Afghan schoolteacher to his calling. . . On the whole the standard of teaching in elementary schools, the quality of the textbooks and the teaching staffs make a most favourable impression." He notes also: "We were told that the number of schools is being expanded."

Another member of the same delegation to Kabul, Professor Talyzin, in an article which appeared in OGONEK No.22 of May 1955, echoes Velichkovskiy's somewhat uncritical approach in his description of Kabul University, and, like Velichkovskiy, emphasizes the warmth of the delegation's welcome from the Afghan students. Both writers mention that there are 750 students at Kabul University (Akhramovich quotes the UNESCO Report as saying that about sixty students are accepted yearly) and Velichkovskiy concludes: "Our visit to Kabul University convinced us that Afghanistan is equipped to train its own scientific cadres." Akhramovich, however, in his review,

indicated that the University and the professional schools were lacking in equipment and had many foreign teachers; but there is no mention of foreign instructors or of lack of equipment in either the OGONEK or the NEW TIMES articles, the difference perhaps being that whereas the latter periodicals have a wide circulation in the USSR and abroad, the KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA in which Akhramovich published his review is destined for a small and specialized home public.

The handicraft industry: carpets and weaving

R.T. Akhramovich is the author of another detailed study on contemporary Afghanistan: his article "On the position of artisan production in contemporary Afghanistan" appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDIENIYE No.4 of 1955.

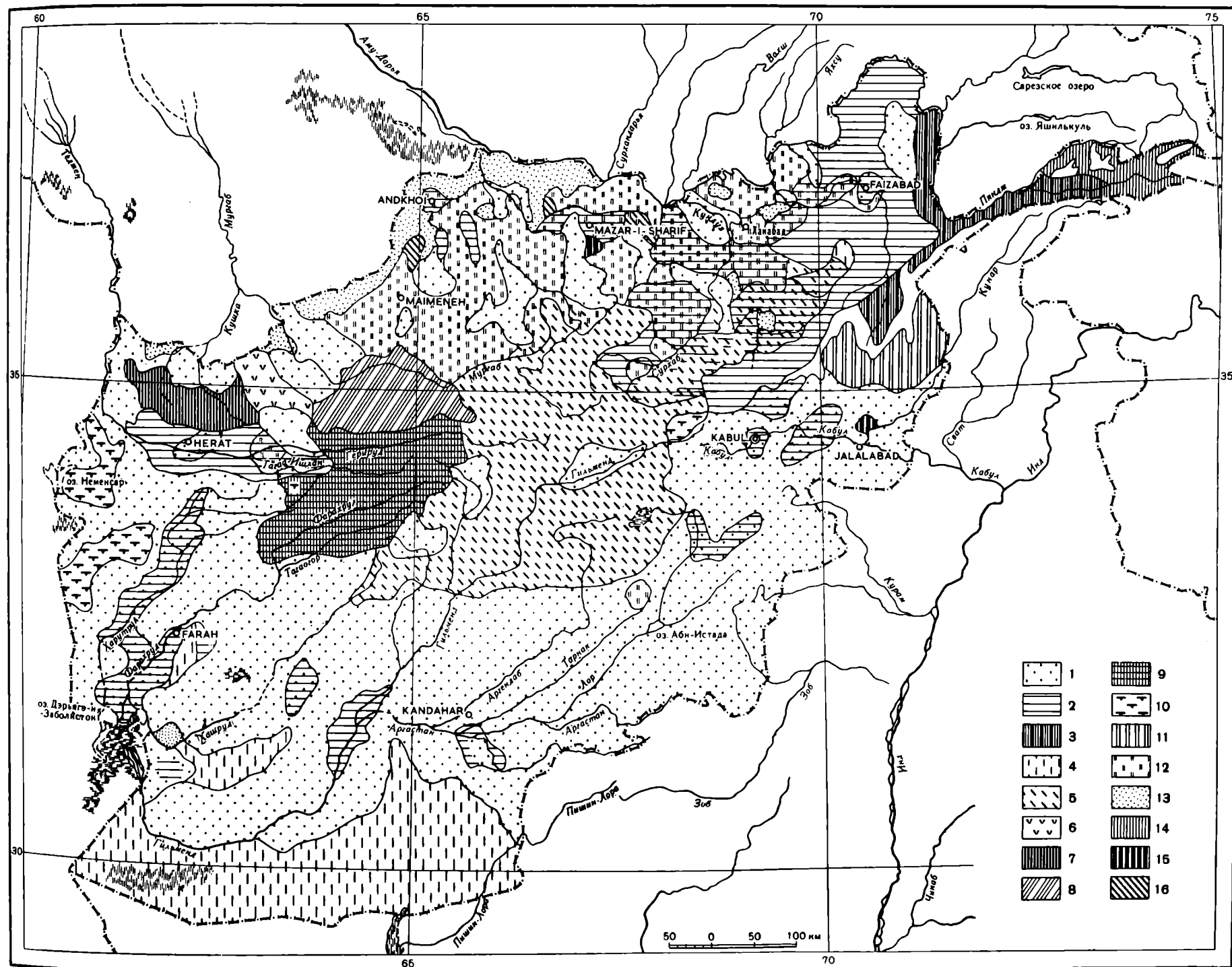
The theme of the article is firstly that "the flooding of Afghanistan with foreign consumer goods by large-scale capitalist industry is having a destructive effect on Afghan artisan production, in which a significant part of the population (about 150,000 families) is engaged," and secondly that "the majority of 'artisans' are capitalistically exploited workers," in some form or another. Akhramovich quotes extensively from contemporary Afghan sources, including "A Short Report on the Condition of the Handicraft Industry", which was compiled by an official of the Afghan Ministry of National Economy in 1952, to prove his case.

The article shows that the artisans engaged in the traditional trades of carpet-making and weaving are increasingly dependent on the one hand on merchants and middlemen, and on the other hand on the textile factories for the supply of the necessary raw materials. Quoting from the "Short Report" Akhramovich shows that under present conditions the carpet-makers receive no profit from their work: "All profit goes into the pockets of the workshop owners and merchants. . . The earnings of one carpet-maker do not exceed four afghanis a day." With regard to the weaving trade the monopoly of the Nasaji company in the processing of cotton has resulted in the fact that "today all weavers in Afghanistan are completely dependent for the supply of yarn on the factories at Pul-i-Khumri and Jabal-us-Siraj". In the areas near the factories the company creates hand-weaving workshops "which the artisan enters as a hired labourer to work the factory's yarn on a loom belonging to the factory". In the more remote areas the weavers receive the yarn indirectly from the factory through various middlemen, who not only take large profits from their transactions but also act as money-lenders to the artisans: "The producer takes the material as a loan and pays it back in the finished product."

The dependence of Afghanistan on foreign trade is having two results:

ETHNOGRAPHICAL MAP OF AFGHANISTAN.

(Reproduced from *SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA*, No. 2, 1955.)



1. Afghans. 2. Tajiks. 3. Cis-Pamir Tajiks. 4. Baluchis. 5. Berberi Hazaras. 6. Deh-i-Zainat Hazaras. 7. Jamshedis. 8. Firuzkuhis.
9. Taimenis. 10. Taimuris. 11. Nuristanis. 12. Uzbeks. 13. Turkmens. 14. Kirgiz. 15. Karakalpaks. 16. Arabs.

firstly, the import of foreign goods "results in the fact that the artisan meets with growing difficulties in marketing his goods and consequently also in buying the raw material necessary to him"; and secondly, the need to export (particularly in the carpet making industry, "60 per cent of whose products are exported") is stimulating the development of capitalist relations. "In contemporary Afghan conditions," comments Akhramovich, "the capitalist organization of branches of the artisan industry which are orientated on the internal market is progressive"; but those orientated on the foreign market make the country dependent on imperialism "and whole branches of Afghan artisan industry have become defenceless before the fluctuations in prices of its products on foreign markets." Akhramovich's final conclusion is that "destroyed by foreign imports, the artisan industry of Afghanistan is in dire straits and, in the final analysis, is preserved at the cost of the forced exploitation of the artisan."

The ethnography of Afghanistan

An article entitled "The ethnic composition of the countries of Western Asia" by S.I. Bruk appeared in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA No.2 of 1955 and included a study of Afghanistan. The author describes as follows the source material used:

The work of the Afghan scholar Burhaneddin on Badakhshan and Kattagan provides almost exhaustive material on these two northern provinces. The works of Ignatiyev and Bellew, and the GEOGRAPHY OF AFGHANISTAN (Tashkent, 1929) provide details of the distribution of the Afghan tribes. A concise description of the Turkic peoples of Afghanistan is given in Gunnar Jarring's ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF TURK TRIBES IN AFGHANISTAN. Changes in the distribution of peoples in Afghan Turkestan as the result of the infiltration of Afghans are given in Alekseyenkov's AGRARIAN QUESTION IN AFGHAN TURKESTAN (Moscow 1933). The important work AGRICULTURAL AFGHANISTAN by Vavilov and Bukinich (Leningrad, 1929) contains important ethnographical material and a number of maps and drawings showing the distribution of population as well as a detailed description of the Nuristanis (Kafirs).

The article brings together most of the available material on the peoples of Afghanistan. It is not possible to say how far the numbers given of each people are accurate today but the ethnographic map accompanying the article, which is reproduced here, is useful.

Pakhtunistan

Comprehension of the Soviet treatment of the Pakhtunistan question

is complicated by the widely different conceptions held by both Soviet and Afghan writers of the extent and population of the proposed new state. The official Afghan point of view appears to be that Pakhtunistan should occupy the whole of the former North-West Frontier Province, i.e. both the tribal territory, inhabited by the independent tribes, and the settled administered districts. The demand for a state for the Pakhtuns (or Pathans) first arose in 1947 at the time of the partition of India. It was instigated on the one hand by the Red Shirt organization, a political party which, in this predominantly Muslim area, orientated itself on the Indian Congress Party rather than on the Muslim League of Pakistan, and on the other hand by the Afghan government. The two sponsors, however, were animated by differing ideals. The Afghans, with memories of the Durrani Empire which in the eighteenth century ruled by the Punjab, had irredentist dreams, and although they now appear to have abandoned the idea of annexing the disputed territory, they lay stress on their kinship with the Pathans and on the Pathans' right to self-determination. (It should be noted, however, that the Afghans do not include in this the Pathan tribes on their side of the frontier.) The Red Shirt movement on the other hand, is actuated by quite different motives, including those of class-revolution and personal aggrandizement of its leaders.

Recent Russian statements appear to regard Pakhtunistan as covering only the area of the independent tribes. At the time of the partition of India the independent tribes were not subject to the Referendum which was held to determine to which state they were to belong; but tribal Jirgas in the tribal territory fully confirmed in written agreements that they wished to remain part of Pakistan and continue in the same relationship which they had enjoyed with the British.

Matters came to a head in April of last year when the Pakistan government abolished the provincial boundaries in Western Pakistan and set up a single Western Unit, a move which did not change the status of the independent tribes; the Afghan government, however, protested and the note was followed by attacks and demonstrations against the respective embassies and consulates. In July, however, three representatives from tribal territory were included in the Pakistan Constituent Assembly and, as a recent article in *WORLD TODAY* put it: "With direct tribal identification with the Central Legislature the chances of Afghanistan ever being able to assume the mantle of benevolent nation-builder would seem remote." (37)

When Marshal Bulganin addressed the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on his return with Mr. Khrushchev from their Asian tour he made the following statement: "In our speeches at Kabul we set forth our views regarding the

Pakhtunistan issue which greatly worries the Afghan people. Pakhtunistan is a region inhabited by 'independent Afghan tribes'. In 1893 the region was included in the British Empire, and in 1947, contrary to the interests of the tribes inhabiting it, Pakhtunistan was incorporated in Pakistan.

"We think the demand of Afghanistan that the population of neighbouring Pakhtunistan should be given an opportunity of freely expressing their will is justified and well grounded. The people of this region have the same right to national self-determination as any other people. There can be no justification for the stand made by those who do not want to reckon with, and who disregard, the lawful national interests of the people of Pakhtunistan."

On 31st December 1955, two days after Marshal Bulganin's speech, TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA reproduced without comment an article from the Afghan newspaper ISLAH on the subject of Pakhtunistan: "For an explanation of the true position in the Pakhtunistan issue, a plebiscite under the control of a neutral international commission must be held there. . . The people and government of Afghanistan desire to have simple, friendly and brotherly relations with the people of Pakistan. But the Pakistan authorities, in spite of these kind wishes. . . are trying at the instigation of their landlord colonizers to encroach on the rights of the Pakhtuns and so stir up unrest in this region of the East in order that their landlords can fish in troubled waters. If the Pakistan authorities . . . consider themselves bound by international law and agreements why do they not agree to the holding of a free plebiscite? Afghanistan desires nothing. She only supports the legal demands of the Pakhtuns because she is guided by her cultural and brotherly links with them and so yields to their request. If as a result of an impartial plebiscite the people of Pakhtunistan decide in favour of Pakistan, the whole question will be settled by peaceful means and the war of nerves between the two countries will be ended. . . If a free plebiscite is not held the Pakhtuns will not cease in their struggle and will achieve their legal rights by any available means. . ."

Russian support for Pakhtunistan, even though appearing as it does to be somewhat qualified, is perhaps surprising in view of the Soviet attitude to the Red Shirt movement, one of the chief inspirers of the idea.

The first edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia in the article "Pathans" (1939) gives the Red Shirts a definitely progressive character: "The long struggle of the Pathans against British imperialism which was carried out by separate patriarchal tribes led by the council of leaders, has, since 1930, taken on not only an anti-imperialist but also a class character

(the so-called "red shirt" movement)."

For subsequent Soviet writers, however, the common front of the Red Shirts with the Indian Congress Party (until recently castigated by the Soviet Union as "bourgeois") has been difficult to explain. The second edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia in the article "Afghanistan" (Vol.3, 1950) does not mention the Red Shirts when discussing the Pakhtunistan question (N.B. In this article both Afghans and Pathans are described as "Afghans"): "After the division of India into the dominions of India and Pakistan the question of the fate of 5,415,000 Afghans (i.e. Pathans), torn from Afghanistan by the British in 1849 and 1893, assumed serious importance in the policy of the Afghan government. The Afghans included in Pakistan by force found no opportunity there to realize their national aspirations; the North-West Frontier Province where Afghans from the vast majority remained in fact under the power of British militarism. In these circumstances, the government of Afghanistan, a nationalist, bourgeois land-owners government, while denying the right of the non-Afghan peoples of Afghanistan to self-determination, supports the movement of the Indian (sic) Afghans for such self-determination. . . The ruling circles of Afghanistan emphasize the national unity of the Afghans on both sides of the frontier. At the same time the ruling circles of Kabul do all they can to deprive the Afghan national movement abroad of its revolutionary anti-feudal and anti-imperialist character."

The whole subject of Pakhtunistan and the Red Shirts is fully dealt with by A.M. D'yakov in his book INDIA DURING AND AFTER THE SECOND WORLD WAR which was published in 1952. After saying that the Pathans had been hostile to Britain ever since their inclusion in the British Indian Empire, he goes on: "In 1919 during the war waged by Afghanistan against Britain for her independence, fellow-feeling for Afghanistan grew among the Indian Afghans, but after the establishment of a reactionary regime in Afghanistan in 1929 which sought an understanding with the British imperialists, the Afghans of India began to look for other allies in their struggle against the yoke of colonialism. It is by the anti-British direction of the national movement of the Indian Afghans, and not by their sympathy for Indian bourgeois nationalism, and a fortiori for Gandhism, that the bond between the Afghan (i.e. Pathan) national movement and the National Congress is to be explained." D'yakov then goes on to speak of the Red Shirt movement: "Only the leading lights of the Red Shirts, Abdul Ghaffar Khan, Khan Sahib and others, who were for the most part landowners, were actually Congressmen and followers of Gandhi. Most of the Red Shirts who followed them had little in common with the Congress and still less with Gandhism. They were Afghan peasants who aimed at independence from Britain and who formed a bloc with the Congress merely because the Congress had also made public its aim of attaining India's

full independence from Britain. The Muslim League, always closely connected with British ruling circles, for this very reason never had any influence over such fanatical Muslims as the Indian Afghan-Pathans; and when the question of the inclusion of the Afghan territories of India in Pakistan was raised, most of the Afghans were against it. A party headed by Abdul Ghaffar was formed in Pakistan which announced as its aim the conversion of Pakistan into a federation of 'socialist' republics. This programme was manifestly demagogic. Abdul Ghaffar Khan never had anything in common with socialism; but he continued the fight against the government of Pakistan and soon he and those others who thought like him, the Afghan nationalists, were put in prison. Even after this the Pakhtunistan movement continued, but as a result of repressive measures its centre moved to the area of the frontier tribes and in particular to Waziristan. The notorious Fakir of Ipi came out actively for the creation of Pakhtunistan. In 1951 the Pathan problem remained one of the most serious confronting Pakistan." D'yakov, however, appears to blame the Indian Communist Party for not supporting the Pakhtunistan movement and for allowing the Pathans to be included in Pakistan; he writes: "When the movement for the creation of Pakhtunistan began in the North-West Frontier Province, a movement against the Mountbatten Plan, the Communists (although they revealed that the leaders of the Muslim League there were in one way or another bound up with the British authorities) maintained a passive attitude over this question. When, in consequence of British manoeuvring, the results of the referendum came out in favour of the inclusion of the province in Pakistan, the PEOPLE'S AGE exposed the machinations of the British very weakly and did not demand the nullification of the faked referendum."

The somewhat ambiguous attitude taken by D'yakov to the Red Shirt movement is echoed by the Soviet Encyclopaedia in the article "Red Shirts" (Vol.23, 1955). Here the movement is described as "anti-imperialist" and of the party's programme the article says: "The programme. . . contained a demand for the complete independence of the Pathans from British imperialism and vague pronouncements about the equality of all Pathans." The article continues: "The slogans (of the party) attracted to the ranks of the Red Shirts peasants and impoverished artisans. Towards the end of 1931 the Red Shirts numbered about 300,000, the majority of whom were peasants who were also the chief motivating force of the national liberation movement of the Pathans. In 1931-32 in certain areas the Red Shirt movement took the form of an armed struggle and acquired not only an anti-imperialist but also an anti-feudal character, the peasants putting forward leaders from their own milieu. However, on the whole the leadership of the Red Shirt movement in 1930-32 remained in the hands of the upper crust of the Pathan bourgeois land-owners who attempted to deprive the movement of its revolutionary

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character and restrain it with Gandhist methods of non-violence. . . In August 1931. . . the Red Shirts were proclaimed an auxiliary organization of the Congress Party. By the end of 1933 the Red Shirt organization. . . had lost its mass character and had become a. . . nationalist party of the Pathan liberal land-owners and bourgeois nationalists. In 1947 after the division of India and the inclusion of the North-West Frontier Province in Pakistan the Red Shirt organization led by Abdul Ghaffar left the National Congress and put forward the slogan of the formation of a Pathan state - Pakhtunistan."

The most recent Soviet pronouncement on Pakhtunistan before Marshal Bulganin's speech is the article "Pathanistan" in Vol.32 of the Soviet Encyclopaedia which was published in March 1955. The article reads: "Pathanistan. . . is the name of a state, the creation of which is demanded by the Afghan tribes inhabiting the North-West Frontier Province of Pakistan. The demand for the creation of Pathanistan was first put forward in 1947 by the political organizations of the North-West Frontier Province of India (for example, by the organization of Red Shirts) who objected to the inclusion of this province in Pakistan. The movement for the creation of Pathanistan has received support in Afghanistan."

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It should be noted that while D'yakov and earlier writers appear to regard Pakhtunistan as including the whole of the North-West Frontier Province (i.e. the official Afghan view), Marshal Bulganin and the most recent article in the Soviet Encyclopaedia (given above) seem to limit Pakhtunistan to the independent tribal area. It is interesting that in these most recent views there is no mention of the independent tribes on the Afghan side of the frontier. That Marshal Bulganin's attitude to Pakhtunistan is somewhat qualified is evident from the fact that soon after his reference to Pakhtunistan in his speech to the Supreme Soviet he said: "The Soviet Union wants to maintain equally friendly relations with Pakistan as with India, Burma and Afghanistan, and we are not to blame if these are so far lacking. The Soviet government has exerted and will continue to exert efforts to improve our relations with Pakistan."

III LINGUISTICS AND LITERATURE

Of the limited amount of writing which has been done on Afghan, or Pashto, literature and language a large, if not the largest, part is from the hand of Russian and Soviet orientalists. Both editions of the Soviet Encyclopaedia deal with Afghan literature much more fully than any western reference book and it is noticeable that whereas the bibliographical note to the article on the subject in the 1926-30 edition consists mostly of references to western works, that appended to the analogous article in the 1950 edition refers to Soviet sources only.

Soviet orientalists have considerably developed the generally accepted view that Afghan literature had its origin in the polemics arising out of the Raushani movement of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (see below). The latest edition of the Encyclopaedia is critical of the poor quality of modern Afghan literature, which it attributes to "the general backwardness of the country, the unfavourable conditions for the development of democratic literature, and the predominance of reactionary clericalism".

Soviet works on the Pashto language are limited in number but of great importance and seem to be well in advance of those produced in any western country. In addition to Bertels' STROY YAZYKA PUSHTU (Structure of the Pashto language. Leningrad, 1936), there is P.B. Zudin's SHORT AFGHAN-RUSSIAN DICTIONARY (Moscow, 1950), which is based on Afghan lexicographical works and is naturally of far greater practical value than the dictionaries of Raverty (1860) and Bellew (1901). An even more comprehensive work is Zudin's RUSSIAN-AFGHAN DICTIONARY (Moscow, 1955) which, in addition to a vocabulary of 21,000 words, contains "a brief grammatical survey of the Afghan language" by D.A. Shafeyev. The latter work, while making use of the standard grammars and manuals published in Britain and India, has also profited by such recent Afghan works as those of Sadiqullah Rishtin and Muhammad 'Azam 'Aziz.

The Raushani popular movement

The following is an analysis of an article by M.G. Aslanov entitled "The Raushani popular movement and its reflection in Afghan literature of the XVIth and XVIIth centuries" which appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKO-VEDENIYE No.5 of 1955. M.G. Aslanov is a specialist on Afghan literature and the author of the section on literature in the "Afghanistan" article in the Soviet Encyclopaedia; according to I.M. Reysner, Aslanov first dealt with the Raushani movement in two lectures given in 1947.

The article begins with the proposition that Afghan history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is marked by armed and ideological conflict with the Mogul Empire, and by the conflict between the people and the temporal and spiritual forces of feudalism. Both these conflicts were led by the Raushani sect.

The article examines the treatment of the Raushani sect by western European orientalists, some of whom regard it as a purely religious movement directed against orthodox Islam and others as an Afghan political movement entirely directed against the Mogul conquerors.

Aslanov gives a sketch of the life of Bayazid Ansari, the founder of the sect, and an account of the subsequent history of the movement under his descendants until 1638, when Karamdad, Bayazid's grandson, was finally defeated by the emperor Shahjahan. This account does not differ materially from that contained in the Encyclopaedia of Islam (1936) under "Rawshaniya", being largely derived from the same sources.

In considering the real nature of the movement Aslanov points out that such a widespread and violent movement could hardly have been concerned with such matters as the nature of the universe, reincarnation, and knowledge of the Deity. He quotes Marxist theory that, as in the religious wars in sixteenth-century Germany, it was basically class interests which were at stake. These, however, sheltered under the protection of religion; thus, what were essentially class struggles assumed the character of religious wars. He points out that even those who believe the Raushani movement to be a political one affecting the whole Afghan people have to admit that the khans did not join it and that the adherence of the tribes was by no means uniform. Thus the Wazirs, among whom Bayazid first began to preach, never joined the movement; such tribes as the Afridis, Khalils, and Bangashis were firm adherents whereas others such as the Yusufzais eventually seceded.

Aslanov considers that the Raushani movement can be regarded as a peasant movement directed against the rapid development of feudalism. He produces evidence to show that the Raushanis favoured the system of vesh (or periodical redistribution of land) which was consistently opposed by the tribal leaders. This explains why the Tajiks, who had ceased to practise vesh and among whom feudalism was already established, did not join the movement. The Wazirs did not join it either, because in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries they were nomad herdsmen and not interested in cultivation. Finally, Aslanov quotes two instances in contemporary literature where the movement is qualified by the word rustai or peasant.

According to Aslanov, the democratic tendencies of the Raushani move-

ment did much to stimulate Pashto literature. Bayazid's own preaching is set forth in the work Khair-ul-bayan written in Pashto with interpolations in Arabic and Hindi. The poetical works of other Raushani men of letters such as Mulla Arzani and Daulat Lokhani are extant but have never been published for obvious reasons.

The Raushani heresy evoked bitter literary polemics, the earliest being Makhzan-ul-Islam by Mulla Darvezah (flor. circa 1533-1638). Aslanov criticizes Leyden's translation of a passage in this work where Darvezah is supposed to represent Bayazid as a hermit. In fact, Darvezah frequently comments on the fact that Bayazid addressed himself to the common people. In general, Aslanov condemns Darvezah's opposition to the Raushani sect as reactionary and tendentious.

The most eloquent opponent of the Raushani sect and of the practice of vesh was the famous Khattak tribal leader and poet Khushhal Khan (1613-91) whom Aslanov describes as "a real feudalist". He quotes a number of derogatory references to the sect made by Khushhal in his poetry and also later by his grandson, Afzal Khan.

The article concludes by pointing to the need for the further study of Afghan manuscripts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in order to elucidate further the matter of the Raushani sect and "the process of the feudalization of the Afghans". Aslanov makes no concealment of his sympathy for the Raushani movement as progressive. He seems to infer that western orientalist have tried to prove the contrary. He admits that he has been unable to study the work on the subject published in Kabul in 1954 by K. Halim under the title of BAYAZID RAUSHAN.

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Aslanov's article, although the most recent, is not the only Soviet work on the Raushani movement. It is also fully dealt with by I.M. Reysner in his book THE DEVELOPMENT OF FEUDALISM AND THE FORMATION OF THE STATE AMONG THE AFGHANS (Moscow, 1954) and by K.A. Antonov in his work AN OUTLINE OF THE SOCIAL RELATIONS AND POLITICAL STRUCTURE OF MOGHUL INDIA IN THE TIME OF AKBAR, 1556-1605 (Moscow, 1952). In the introduction to his book (which gives a detailed account of the source material used and of Russian writing on Afghanistan in general), Reysner mentions Aslanov's earlier works on the Raushani movement, some of it unpublished, and says that he disagrees with both Aslanov and Antonov over the Raushani sect: "The author of the present work differs with M.G. Aslanov in evaluating the Raushani movement; he considers that it would be an incorrect view of this movement to connect it only with an attempt to preserve such an

institution. . . as vesh in the form in which **this** custom first arose among the Afghans." Reysner disagrees with Antonov for asserting that the movement consisted only of freemen: "In our opinion, the participation in this movement, besides freemen, of dependents and even of slaves appears indisputable."

According to the News Bulletin of the Soviet Embassy in Kabul (No. 40 of 27th February, 1956) a book entitled FROM AFGHAN POETRY has recently been published in Moscow. Somewhat surprisingly in view of Aslanov's critical attitude to Khushhal, the News Bulletin in describing the new book says: "The book opens with the poems of the remarkable poet Khushhal Khattak. His wonderful verses are remarkable for their artistic execution and for the love of the native land permeating them. They invariably call forth the reader's admiration. Khushhal Khattak is a fighter for his country's independence 'the father of the Pashtu language', and the author of poems admired not only by Afghan but by Soviet readers as well."

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Note: Owing to considerations of space it has not been possible to include a bibliography of Russian works on Afghanistan. This is, however, in preparation and will be available to anyone interested.

Notes

- (1) Afganistan i angliyskiy ul'timatum. F.F. Raskol'nikov. Krasnaya Nov', Moscow, 1924.
- (2) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. Moscow, 1929. p.74.
- (3) Novaya istoriya stran zarubezhnogo vostoka. Ed. I.M. Reysner and B.K. Rubtsov. Moscow, 1952. Vol.I, pp.399-400.
- (4) Idem. p.321.
- (5) Soviet Encyclopaedia, Vol.2, 1950. Article "Anglo-Afghan Wars".
- (6) Idem. Vol.3, 1950. Article "Afghanistan".
- (7) Novaya istoriya stran zarubezhnogo vostoka. Vol.II, pp.303-304.

- (8) Yavorskiy accompanied the Stoletov mission as its doctor. He published his memoirs under the title of Puteshestviye russkago posol'stva po Avganistanu v 1878-79 gg. (St.Petersburg, 1882-83)
- (9) 22nd July (Cambridge Shorter History of India); 26th July (Afghanistan by Sir Kerr Frazer-Tytler)
- (10) Avganskiy vopros. P.A. Rittikh. St.Petersburg, 1905.
- (11) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. Moscow, 1929. p.85.
- (12) Novaya istoriya stran zarubezhnogo vostoka. Vol.II, pp.309-310.
- (13) The Bolshevik Revolution. E.H. Carr. Vol.III, p.290.
- (14) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. 1929. p.207.
- (15) These dates are given in Raskol'nikov op.cit. p.20. The usual date given for the Treaty is 28th February 1921, i.e. the date when it was ratified in Moscow. Recent Soviet writers seem to overlook the fact that it was not ratified by Kabul until August 1921.
- (16) Article by Nikulin entitled "Afganistan i Angora" in Novyy Vostok. No.2, of 1922.
- (17) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. 1929. pp.205-207.
- (18) Basmachestvo v Fergane. S. Ginsburg.
- (19) Vcyenno-istoricheskaya komissiya. Materialy grazhdanskoy voyny. Vol.III.
- (20) Mamed Amin (or Madamin) was one of the most powerful of the Bas-machi leaders. His forces were centred on Margelan in the Fergana Valley. Irgach was a rival and no less powerful Bas-machi chief who had been commander of the troops of the short-lived Kokand government. Both Mamed Amin and Irgach were former convicts. (See Les Basmatchis by Joseph Castagne. Paris, 1925.)
- (21) Lt.Col. F.M. Bailey in his book Mission to Tashkent says of Bravin: "He described his reception in Kabul as 'pompous but without cordiality' and his audience with King Amanullah as 'without interest'. He advised his government to take advantage of the

weakness of Afghanistan after the war with us (i.e. Third Afghan War) and to demand the cession of certain frontier posts and districts which were of strategic advantage to Russia". Nikulin op.cit. (16) writes of the Afghan reaction to the first Soviet advances: "Even in relation to the disinterested moral support of the RSFSR there could be seen suspicion and distrust, the result of centuries of political seclusion and of the aggressive policy of Britain."

- (22) Soviet Encyclopaedia. Article "Dzhemal Pasha".
- (23) Noveyshaya istoriya stran zarubezhnogo vostoka. Vol.I. Moscow, 1954. Chapter on Afghanistan by I.M. Reysner, pp.211-234.
- (24) Bailey op.cit. (21) writes: "The Afghans treated him as a prisoner and censored all his letters but allowed him a sum each month for his expenses." Castagne op.cit. (20) says: "Desarme il se rendit a Kaboul et se fixa definitivement a une dizaine de kilometres de la capitale. . . avec ses partisans. Sur la demande du ministre de Russie, l'escorte de l'Emir Abdoul Seid fut reduite a trois cents hommes qui formaient sa garde personnelle."
- (25) Article by D. Soloveychik entitled "Revolyutsionnaya Bukhara" in Novyy Vostok, No.2, 1922.
- (26) Agabekov was a member of the GPU who defected to the West in 1929. His memoirs appeared in Berlin in 1930 under the title of GPU: zapiski chekista. In them he claims that he was sent to Bukhara in 1922 to capture Enver Pasha of whom he writes: "Enver Pasha . . . by an agreement with Lenin after the first congress of the peoples of the East at Baku was to go to Turkestan to pacify these bands (i.e. the Basmachis), to unite them in one group and, under the slogan of the liberation of the peoples of the East, to advance through Afghanistan to India. . . He asked Lenin to give him the opportunity of rousing the peoples of Turkestan who were kindred (of) the Turks and lead them through Afghanistan to India. Lenin agreed. Each was pursuing his own aim. Enver hoped by organizing the movement to alarm the Allies and to prevent the division of Turkey. Lenin supposed that a rising of eastern peoples would widen the sphere of Bolshevik influence and undermine the power of Britain." Certain of Agabekov's other exploits can be corroborated and his version of Enver Pasha's exploits should thus not be altogether dismissed.
- (27) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. 1929. p.204.

- (28) Afghanistan. Sir Kerr Frazer-Tytler. Oxford University Press, 1953.
- (29) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. 1929. p.208.
- (30) Reysner is here quoting from Boyevyye operatsii v Bukhara v 1922 g. by N. Ye Kakurin.
- (31) Reproduced from Bulletin Periodique de la Presse Russe, 1926-1931. The Bulletin, which gives abstracts and quotations from the Soviet press, was produced by the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- (32) Afganistan. I.M. Reysner. Moscow, 1929. p.235-248.
- (33) Afganistan. P. Bochkarev. In the series "U karty mira". Moscow, 1953.
- (34) Afganistan. A. Gurevich. 2nd edition. Moscow, 1930.
- (35) Afganistan i yego vooruzhennyye sily. A. Vanchenko. Moscow/Leningrad, 1928. Of the Afghan air force he says: "In the Afghan air force there are about fifteen aeroplanes. They are situated in Kabul. The aeroplanes are of foreign origin: they were acquired in our Soviet Union and bought in Italy."
- (36) Frazer-Tytler op.cit. reports that a Soviet force again invaded Afghanistan in June 1930 in order to suppress Ibrahim Bek. According to Bulletin Periodique (31) Ibrahim Bek was captured by the Afghan forces in August 1930 but appears to have escaped by the end of the year and to have attempted to start a revolt against the Afghan government. In February 1931 the Afghan newspaper Islakh published an article under the title of "Where is Ibrahim Bek?" His capture by Soviet forces was finally reported in Pravda Vostoka of 2nd July 1931. According to Posledniya Novosti of 11th July 1931, which reproduced a report of the correspondent of Neues Wiener Journal, Ibrahim Bek had in June prepared an armed force in Kabul to attack Soviet territory under the slogan "A free Bukhara without Communism"; the Soviet government had officially protested to the Afghan authorities but the Basmachi force entered Soviet territory where it was, however, defeated. The north of Afghanistan where Ibrahim Bek was based was one of the last areas of the country to be brought to order by Nadir Khan.

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- (37) See the article "The implications of 'Pakhtunistan': Prospects for Pakistani-Afghan relations". World Today, Vol.11, No.9, September 1955.

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NEWS ITEMS

The following news items refer to the period January-March 1956. Items are arranged by republics, and a list of abbreviations of their sources is given at the end.

GeneralThe Sixth Five-Year Plan in Central Asia

The outlines of the Sixth Five-Year Plan for the Central Asian republics were given in PRAVDA on 15th January 1956. The following table shows the increase in production to be achieved by 1960, over 1955:

	Uzbekistan	Tadzhikistan	Kirgizia	Turkmenistan	Kazakhstan
All industry	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.6	2.2
Republican industry (1)	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7
Electricity	1.6	4	1.8	1.8	2.3
Coal	2.4	-	1.5	-	1.6
Oil	1.5	-	7.8	1.3	1.4
Steel	-	-	-	-	2.1
Copper	-	-	-	-	1.9
Lead	-	-	-	-	1.4
Fertilizer	1.9	-	-	-	2
Cement	3	13	-	7.9	8.8
Footwear	-	2	2.8	2	1.7
Cotton cloth	-	2.1	-	-	-
Cotton	1.5	1.7	1.2	2.1	2.3
Meat	2.4	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.5
Milk	2.3	2.6	1.9	2.2	2.2
Wool	1.9	1.7	2.1	1.3	2.6
Karakul'	1.5	-	-	1.4	-
Silk	1.6	1.6	-	1.5	-
Grain	-	-	2.1	-	5
Sugar Beet	-	-	1.7	-	2.2

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Special targets in the Five-Year Plan are to be:

- Uzbekistan: to begin the building of the Angren nitrogenous fertilizer works;
to open the Fergana oil refinery;
to finish reconstruction of the Kuvasay cement works;
to build a system of irrigation canals over 325,000 hectares and to water by other means 6,800,000 hectares of desert and semi-desert;
to finish the building of the Tyuya-Buguz, Chim-Kurgan and Surkhan-Dar'ya reservoirs.
- Tadzhikistan: to finish building the Kayrak-Kum hydroelectric power-station on the Syr-Dar'ya and the Perepadnaya on the Vakhsh Canal;
to start the building of the Golovnaya power-station on the Vakhsh in 1956;
to open a cement works and the second unit of the Stalinabad cotton kombinat;
to build and open an oil and fats kombinat in Stalinabad;
to water 89,000 hectares by irrigation and at least 2m. hectares by other means.
- Kirgizia: to build the Uch-Kurgan 112,000 kwt. hydroelectric power-station on the Naryn, two on the Chu canal, and a thermal power-station in Frunze;
to build a worsted weaving factory and begin the building of a pharmaceutical supplies factory in Frunze;
to complete the building of the motor road from Frunze to Osh;
to water 115,000 hectares by irrigation and 1m. hectares by other means;
to finish the building of the Orto-Tokoy reservoir and the Great Chu Canal.
- Turkmenistan: to open two twin-turbine power-stations, the Chardzhou super-phosphate works and the new sulphur mine at Gaurdak;
to expand the Bezmein cement works and to build a gas pipeline from Kizyl-Kum to Krasnovodsk;
to water 205,000 hectares by irrigation and 10m. hectares of desert by other means;
to finish the first section of the Kara-Kum Canal, and the Sary-Yazyn and Second Tedzhen reservoirs.

Kazakhstan: to bring into operation at the Karaganda metal works two blast furnaces with a capacity of 1,350,000 tons of iron a year and a sheet-iron rolling mill;

to build an aluminium, an iron smelting and a combined harvester works in Pavlodar, a rolling mill equipment works in Petropavlovsk, a chemical works in Dzhambul, cement works in Semipalatinsk and Chimkent and a cotton kombinat;

to begin the building of two oil refineries;

to open the Bukhtarma hydroelectric power-station, new thermal power-stations and to begin building hydro-electric stations at Shul'ba and Kapchagay;

to develop the Karaganda coal basin and the Ekibastuz field;

to exploit the mineral deposits discovered in the Kustanay oblast;

to build and open the Turgay bauxite mine and the Sokolovka-Sarbay concentration kombinat with a capacity of 10m. tons of ore a year;

to water 214,000 hectares by irrigation and 43m. hectares by other means;

to finish the building of the Arys'-Turkestan Canal (2) and the Bugun' and Kzyl-Orda reservoirs.

- (1) Industry under the control of republican authorities.
- (2) For the Arys'-Turkestan Canal see CAR Vol.III, No.3.

Shake-up (peretryakhvaniye) of Party officials

In the three years from 1953-56 the first secretaries of the Central Committees of the Communist Party were replaced in the Ukrainian, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Georgian, Armenian, Azerbaydzhan, Karelo-Finnish and Moldavian republics. In Uzbekistan nearly all raykom secretaries and directors of MTS were relieved.(1) According to Brezhnev, first secretary of the Central Committee of the Kazakhstan Communist Party (promoted on 6th March 1956 to be a secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union), 1,007 new appointments were made in the last two years; in 1955 alone 19 first secretaries of raykoms were promoted to obkom secretaries and heads of obkom departments.(2) In Turkmenistan out of 38 raykoms in the Ashkhabad oblast, the secretaries of 23 have been replaced in the last two years, and 51 out of 71 raykom instructors. Nearly all presidents of rayispolkoms in the oblast have been relieved.(3) Results of the election campaigns in the republics in the autumn of 1955 have so far been suppressed, except for the Ukraine and Uzbekistan, in the latter of which

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the secretaries of 2,948, out of 8,000 lower-rank Party organizations, were relieved. (1)

(1) PV. 28th January 1956
(2) KP. 26th January 1956
(3) TI. 21st January 1956

Transfer of territory from Kazakhstan to Uzbekistan

At the proposal of the two republican Supreme Soviets, the USSR Supreme Soviet Presidium, by a decree of 13th February 1956, has transferred a large area of the South-Kazakhstan oblast to the Tashkent oblast of Uzbekistan. The area includes 329,000 hectares in the Kzyl-Kum and Pakhta-Aral rayons, which have since 1936 been used as grazing grounds by Uzbek kolkhozes and sovkhozes; 95,000 hectares in the Hungry Steppe which are to be irrigated by the Southern Hungry Steppe Canal, and 75,000 hectares to be watered by the Central Hungry Steppe Canal; and the whole of the Bostandyk rayon, where the Uzbek SSR has already built a series of hydroelectric power-stations, a glass works and several holiday homes.

The transfer of territory was made the occasion for impassioned speeches in both republican Supreme Soviets, affirming the fraternal unity of the peoples of the USSR. The reason given for the transfer is that it will increase the possibilities of a greater harvest of cotton from the areas of the Hungry Steppe to be irrigated by Uzbekistan. The Bostandyk rayon is already economically and geographically connected with Uzbekistan rather than with Kazakhstan. An article, "Using the wealth and natural resources of the Bostandyk rayon for market gardening and viticulture to the full", by I.M. Nazarenko appeared in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, No.11, 1955. It was there said that this rayon was the only part of Kazakhstan where arid sub-tropical crops grew. The main crops grown are cotton and grain; the article proposed that vines and fruit-trees should replace the uneconomic crop of grain wherever possible. No mention was made in connection with the transfer of the ethnic composition of the population of the area.

KP. 22nd January, 18th February 1956
PV. 22nd January 1956

Kirgizia

Dismissals and new appointments

The Kirgiz Ministers of Education and the Food Industry, S.A. Toktogonov and U. Abdygulov, and the Chairman of the State Security Committee, A.V. Tereshchenko, have been dismissed. In their place T. Turgunov, Kh.S. Mamin and N.G. Yermolayev have been appointed.

N.P. Gordeyev has been appointed Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers. SK. 11th, 22nd February 1956

Deputy Minister of Agriculture accused of wasteful spending

SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA reproduced on 11th February 1956 a satirical letter to N.I. Kostyukov, Kirgiz Deputy Minister of Agriculture, which appeared in KROKODIL, No.3, 1956. The letter accused him of ordering over seven million rubles' worth of unnecessary equipment at the expense of the Frunze oblast MTS alone, cotton machinery for areas where cotton is not grown, and similar unsuitable purchases. The same was true of all the oblasts of the republic; KIRGLAVSEL'SNAB (Kirgiz Agricultural Supply Authority) had sent large quantities of expensive machinery to all the areas where it was not needed.

Territorial and administrative changes

On 18th February 1956 the USSR Supreme Soviet confirmed the absorption of the Talass oblast of Kirgizia into the Frunze oblast, and on the same day the Republican Soviet Presidium ordered the elevation of the workers' settlement (rabochiy poselok) of Mayli-Say to the status of a town subordinate directly to the oblast government (gorod oblastnogo podchineniya). On the 17th February the Chatkal and Uch-Terek rayons in the Dzhahalal-Abad oblast, Tuleyken and Chon-Alay rayons in the Osh oblast, the Taldy-Su rayon in the Issyk-Kul' oblast and the Cholpon rayon in the Tyan'-Shan' oblast were abolished. SK. 19th, 22nd February 1956

Archaeological expedition's finds in Saryzhas basin

In the summer of 1955 an expedition mapped the Saryzhas syrts (watersheds) and found over a hundred burial grounds each consisting of from ten to fifty tumuli. The burials are from all periods from the Bronze Age to the ninth or tenth centuries A.D. The first six tumuli excavated in the Ottuk valley show a form of burial unique in Central Asia and previously found only in Siberia. The fourteen burials examined just below the Inyl'chek glacier contained stone beads, bone bow ornaments, bronze and iron needles, a single-edged iron knife and gold discs used as dress ornaments, all, it seems, of the third or fourth centuries A.D. Finally, in the Little Taldy-Su gorge a rock painting of a deer, and stone statues were found. The statues have been placed in the oblast museum in Przheval'sk.

Previous archaeological expeditions to this area include the first expedition to the Saryzhas basin in 1937, when stone statues were found in a circle marked out by river boulders in the Inyl-chek valley. In 1943

CURRENT EVENTS

tombs of a type known only in Central Asia and South Yakutia were found on the slopes of the Kok-Shaal-Tau range, and in 1952 a tumulus of the ninth or tenth century A.D. was excavated in the Saryzhas valley.

SK. 2nd March 1956

New oil-wells at Izbaskent

The first two wells have been sunk at Izbaskent, a new oil-field on the slopes of the Fergana Range (the boundary between the Tyan'-Shan' and Dzhahalal-Abad oblasts of Kirgizia). Exploitation of the oil-field only started this year.

SK. 8th March 1956

Tadzhikistan

Abolition of Ministry of Light Industries

On 7th March 1956 KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA reported that the Ministry of Light Industries, created in November 1955, had been abolished. It did not report to which Ministry the functions of the Ministry of Light Industries had been transferred.

Turkmenistan

Ashkhabad's new theatre

The Ashkhabad Municipal Council has decided to build a new theatre for the Turkmen State Opera and Ballet (now called "The Makhtumkuli State Opera and Ballet"). Land has been assigned for the building itself and for other buildings, to form a new "Theatre Square". The theatre itself, which will have 800 seats and air conditioning, and the square will be designed as a single project by GIPROTEATRE (State Institute of Theatre Design) during 1956.

TI. 11th March 1956

Kazakhstan

Changes in Party officials

On 6th March 1956 I.D. Yakovlev was elected First Secretary of the Kazakh Party in the place of L.I. Brezhnev (see p.203 "Shake-up of Party officials"). N.I. Zhurin was elected Second Secretary.

KP. 7th March 1956

Death of A.S. Orlov

A.S. Orlov, the First Deputy Chairman of the Presidium of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet, died on the 7th March 1956. He was born in 1885, and became a member of the Party in 1919. He was for twenty years director of the Pakhta-Aral sovkhos (South-Kazakhstan oblast) which he had founded, and from 1941 to 1943 Kazakh People's Commissar of the Textile Industry.

KP. 8th March 1956

Wild-horse breeding on Barsa-Kel'mes

In 1953 the wild horse (equus hemionus) was brought to the Barsa-Kel'mes Preserve (in the Aral Sea) for breeding purposes. Forty or fifty years ago the wild horse, or kulan, could still be found in the Ustyurt, on the shores of the Sea of Aral and Lake Balkhash, around Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk and in the Bet-Pak-Dala. It is now found only in China, Mongolia, Afghanistan, Persia and Turkmenistan; the large species is shortly to be introduced to Barsa-Kel'mes from China or Mongolia. When it has been acclimatized, which should be in 1957, the breed will be re-introduced into the republic as a whole.

KP. 4th March 1956

Formation of new coal trust

A new "trust" - SARAN'UGOL' - has been formed in the new town of Saran' in the Karaganda coal basin. Nine new pits are at present being opened.

KP. 6th March 1956

Abbreviations

KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda

PV for Pravda Vostoka

KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana

SK for Sovetskaya Kirgiziya

TI for Turkmenskaya Iskra

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 from 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, cotton, geography and geology, industry, irrigation and linguistics.

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Opyt osvoyeniya tselinnykh zemel'. SOTSIALISTI-
CHESKOYE SEL'SKOYE KHOZYAYSTVO, 1956, No.1, pp.50-55. 2,750 words.
An account of the work of the Ruzayevka MTS (Kustanay oblast,
Kazakhstan) during 1954 and 1955.

VOPROSY OSVOYENIYA ZEMEL' SREDNEY AZII (TURKMENSKAYA SSR I KARA-
KALPAKSKAYA ASSR). TRUDY ARALO-KASPIYSKOY KOMPLEKSNNOY EKSPEDITSII,
VYPUSK IV. An extremely valuable collection of articles based on
the work of the Joint Aral-Caspian Expedition of the USSR Academy of
Sciences' Council for the Study of Production Resources and the
Turkmen Academy of Sciences. The articles are listed below and under
other appropriate headings.

Blinovskiy, K.V. Derev'ya i kustarniki dlya ozeleneniya Severnoy i
Zapadnoy Turkmenii; pp.269-276. 3,000 words.
Afforestation in Turkmenistan.

Bogush, P.P. Voprosy zashchity rasteniy v svyazi s osvoyeniyem
novykh zemel' v Turkmenской SSR; pp.276-283. 3,000 words.
Plant protection and pests on newly cultivated land in Turkmenistan.

Minervin, V.N. Anabazis i ego syr'evyye resursy v Tashauzskoy
oblasti; pp.84-96. 4,000 words.
The plant anabasis in the Tashauz oblast.

Pel't, N.N. Kratkaya kharakteristika pastbishch Zapadnoy i Severnoy Turkmenii. pp.7-72. 20,000 words.
A full account with maps and analytical tables of the grazing lands of western and northern Turkmenistan.

Pel't, N.N. and Rodin, L.E. Karta pastbishch Zapadnoy Turkmenii, privileyushchikh chastey Uzbekistana i Kazakhstana. pp.73-83. 3,000 words.
A map of the grazing grounds of the western half of Central Asia with explanatory notes.

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Chumanova, N. Nekotoryye vyvody iz analiza godovykh otchetov khlopokoseyushchikh kolkhozov Uzbekistana. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956. No.2, pp.17-22. 2,000 words.
An analysis of the accounts of certain kolkhozes in the Tashkent oblast, showing the main items of unproductive expenditure.

Dodkhudoyev, N. Nasushchnyye voprosy dal'neyshego razvitiya khlopkovodstva v Tadjikistane. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956. No.1, pp.8-13. 2,750 words.
An account of the problems involved in meeting the production target of the Sixth Five-Year Plan. Some data of previous performance is given.

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An editorial survey of the prospects for the 1956 season. There are details of the level of mechanization in Uzbekistan and some of the other cotton-growing republics.

Maksimenko, I.K. Osnovnyye itogi i perspektivy razvitiya tonkovoloknisto-togo khlopkovodstva v Yuzhnoy Turkmenii. VOPROSY OSVOYENIYA ZEMEL' SREDNEY AZII (see Agriculture) pp.253-268. 7,500 words.
A very detailed account of the new strains of cotton developed by the author and his colleagues in experiments conducted since 1931 at the Turkmen Republican Experimental Station at Iolatan'.

Sapil'nikov, N. O dal'neyshem povyshenii material'noy zainteresovanosti kolkhozov v proizvodstve khlopka-syrtsa. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956. No.1, pp.14-23. 3,350 words. A discussion of the relation between the methods of cultivation employed by a kolkhoz and the profits made by it; an argument for a new, single-price system of payment to replace the bonus system at present used, with examples taken from

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Ratsional'naya skhema podachi vody iz reki Irtysya v Tsentral'nyy Kazakhstan dlya vodospobzheniya promyshlenno-energeticheskikh uzlov. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKH-SKOY SSR, 1955. No.12, pp.63-84. 9,000 words. An account of a project drawn-up in the Kazakh

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- Kozlovskiy, M. T. Sovmestnaya rabota nauchnykh i proizvodstvennykh laboratoriy. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956. No.1, pp.97-99. 1,100 words.
A notice of the fourth triennial joint conference of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, the Kazakh State University and the D.I. Mendeleev Chemistry Society, held in Alma-Ata in October 1955.

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- Bazilevich, N.I. and Rodin, L.E.

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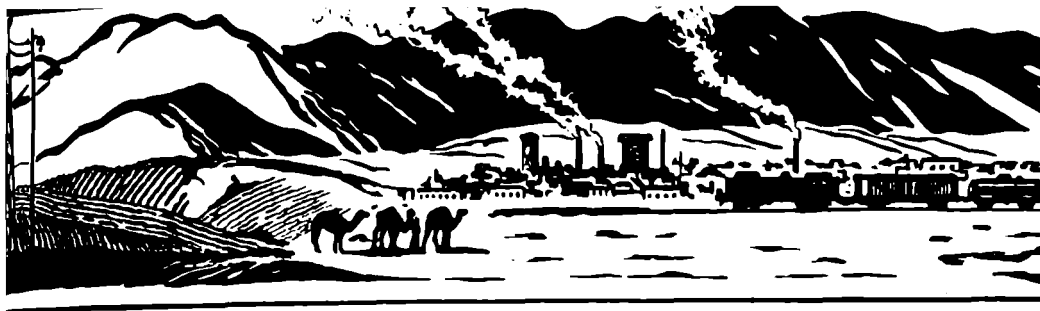
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A report of a conference held in Frunze on the 27th May 1953, which approved a new Dungan alphabet based on the Cyrillic.



CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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

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

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

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. IV. No. 3.

1956

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3, and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as these are reflected in Soviet publications.

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

Distribution Agents:

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

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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Abbreviations used in the Review when referring to newspapers and periodicals employed as sources, are as follows :-

VVS for Vedomosti Verkhovogo Soveta

P for Pravda

KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda

PV for Pravda Vostoka

KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana

SK for Sovetskaya Kirgiziya

TI for Turkmenskaya Iskra

LEAVEN OF THE PHARISEES

The insistence with which Soviet leaders and writers maintain their charges of "colonialism" against the Western powers, and particularly against Britain, suggests that by reason of its own experience and of its success in righting the wrongs of imperialism, the Soviet Union is in a position to moralize to the world at large. The object of the present article is to consider how far this assumption is justified in the light of the facts of history and geography.

In 1917 the Soviet regime succeeded to an empire - a phenomenon which ran counter to the declared principles of Communism. In the face of steady western scepticism the Soviet government has always insisted that Communism eschews the whole concept of empire and imperialism. But since 1937 they have developed a new line about the Tsarist conquest of Asia: whereas they at one time held that this was ethically wrong, they have for many years now expounded the theory that it can be morally justified by the great benefits which it was instrumental in bringing to the peoples of Asia. That the end justifies the means is one of the most common moral evasions advanced by men and states in extenuation of wrong done by their predecessors, and in the instance of the Asian empire of the Tsars, there are grounds for supposing that the rule of law imposed on Central Asia by the Tsars and carried on by their Soviet successors was a vast improvement on what went before. It can also be argued that for the new rulers of Russia to have left the Asian peoples of the former empire entirely to their own devices at the outbreak of the Revolution would simply have resulted in a return of chaos and anarchy. Finally, it must by this time have become clear to readers of this Review that a considerable degree of material progress has been achieved in Central Asia under the Soviet regime, although there is no reason to suppose that a liberalized Tsarist government could not have equalled, if not surpassed, the Soviet achievement.

The Asian empire of the Tsars stretched from the Urals to the Pacific and from the Arctic to the frontiers of China, Afghanistan and Persia. Precisely the same area now forms part of the Soviet Union. The empire to which the Soviet regime succeeded differed from most other empires in several ways. First and foremost it was not an overseas empire but geographically continuous: the Russians thought of it not only as an empire but as a territorial extension of Russia. Secondly, to the Russians the Turkic peoples who made up the bulk of the population of their new lands were Tatars, the descendants of those same Tatars or Mongols under whose domination they had themselves been for 250 years. This meant that feelings of superiority and inferiority, particularly as regards

race and colour, were never so prevalent as in other empires. Finally, the native population which came under Russian domination was far smaller, less heterogeneous and less exposed to cosmopolitan influences than in the empires of western countries.

Whatever the rights or wrongs of the Tsarist conquest and whatever the advantages or disadvantages which it conferred on the peoples of Asia, there is little doubt that it was more complete than, for instance, the British conquest of India and many African and other Asian territories. The British tendency to leave conquered territories as far as possible under the partial control of their traditional rulers was only observed by the Tsarist government in the semi-independent States of Bukhara and Khiva. The result was that the empire inherited by the Soviet regime was to a large extent pre-conditioned for any new system of control which the new rulers might care to introduce. The people of Central Asia had never offered opposition to their conquerors on the same scale as it was offered to Britain by huge native forces often partly trained and armed by western states. Subsequent to the final domination of Central Asia in 1882 there had been little in the way of revolt. Such uprisings as did occur among a population of ten million could be quickly crushed by the Russian forces whose strength seldom, if ever, fell much below that of the British forces in India with its population of 400 million. There was, of course, in Central Asia nothing comparable with the Indian or Egyptian armies. The revolt of 1916 and its suppression were, however, sufficiently serious to ensure the not unfavourable reception of the Russian Revolution, which, at first, seemed to the people of Central Asia to usher in something different from and preferable to Russian rule. The hopes of genuine self-determination and independence which were cherished in the early days of the Revolution by the intelligentsia of the various nationalities of Asia, and to some extent encouraged by the Soviet authorities, were soon dashed to the ground. But it would not be correct to say that the early strivings towards national self-determination were in every instance suppressed by Soviet military forces. Indeed, in so far as it is possible to construct any coherent picture of the civil war in Central Asia, it appears that the fighting was more between hostile Russian factions supported or opposed by mixed hordes of Austrian, German and Turkish prisoners and deserters than between Russian and Central Asian native forces.

At the risk of over-simplification it can perhaps be said that in the early days of the Revolution Communist leaders had some real intention of finishing with the whole conception of empire and of sponsoring some sort of federation which would include at least the Muslim Asian nationalities. A number of considerations including the Basmachi revolts, the presence of at least two million Russian settlers in Central Asia and Kazakhstan,

and perhaps above all the feeling that the whole vast expanse of Siberia and Central Asia was not just an accretion resulting from conquests and annexations but actually russskaya zemlya, an integral part of Russia, militated against this solution. By 1924 the policy of nationalities, the creation, that is, of national political divisions of varying status which would be "national in form and socialist in content", had crystallized and the so-called razmezhevaniya or demarcation of frontiers ostensibly according to race and language had taken place.

The creation of political divisions, which on the one hand emphasize nationality and on the other, by their number and the extent to which they interlace, make central control inevitable, must strike non-marxists as a mere facade designed to delude nationalists into believing that their aspirations have been satisfied. Looked at in the light of an administrative expedient the system may have something to recommend it. But it is a system by no means applicable everywhere, least of all in thickly populated areas which by reason of their resources and geographical location could eventually form viable independent states. The question of viability is a highly important one: it is difficult to see how more than a few of the national areas of the Caucasus and Central Asia could form viable states; certainly none of them have ever been given an opportunity to try. In Tsarist Russia no government ever seriously considered the grant of self-government even to such relatively well-defined national areas as Georgia and Armenia. Under the existing Soviet Constitution it is true that each of the sixteen Soviet Socialist Republics has the right to secede from the Union. No serious person, however, believes that any of them would or could try to do so. Quite apart from anything else the economic consequences to the Union of the secession of the three Republics converging on the Fergana Valley would deprive the Union of about eighty per cent of its supply of cotton. This is not to say that the material benefits which accrue to the various Asian Republics and other national divisions by their association with a paramount power are not valuable. It is, indeed, hard to see what alternative principle of administration or even of existence could at present be found for Central Asia and parts of the Caucasus.

If the Soviet claim were limited to an assertion that in the exceptional circumstances dictated by history and geography they had created a political fabric well suited to Soviet Asia, few could deny its justice although they might query some of the methods adopted and enquire whether within this fabric a greater degree of human liberty might not be practicable. When, however, the claim is extended to the assertion that the Soviet Union of all states in the world eschews any form of colonialism, that is to say the treatment of territorial extensions as proprietary domains, its whole validity must be called in question.

The plain fact is that the Russians in the whole course of their history have had no experience whatever in dealing with an overseas empire or in administering huge areas thickly populated with peoples of primitive culture. They have little or no experience in dealing with communal problems of the kind which dogged British administration in India. The solutions which they have found for their own particular problems are of considerable interest and their achievements in raising the productivity of under-developed peoples are worthy of notice. It is, however, a great mistake to attempt to assess the extent of these achievements without understanding the nature of the problems involved and of the methods used in their solution. It must, for instance, be remembered that the total native population of the whole of Soviet Asia and the Caucasus, areas in which no Russians had settled before the end of the sixteenth century, does not exceed and has probably never exceeded 30 millions, whereas the Russian and Ukrainian settler population of these areas is now considerably over 40 million. Colonization on this vast scale was made possible by a combination of causes not to be found in other empires - over-population in Russia, comparative ease of travel, broad similarity of climate, and last but not least the remarkable adaptability of Russians and particularly Ukrainians, to colonial conditions. The effect of this great influx of permanent settlers into under-populated and under-developed areas has been decisive. It is of course the greatest single cause for the increase in productivity there and need not evoke either condemnation or admiration. This circumstantial advantage, together with the enterprise and industry of the Russian people as colonizers, could be expected to produce good material results; and to it have been added much skill and ingenuity in economic and industrial planning, and great progress in education. All these have contributed to the material welfare of the native peoples, which may not be behind that of the people of the RSFSR.

This material achievement although praiseworthy in many respects would hardly entitle Soviet leaders to criticize the way in which other states have handled colonial problems of far greater complexity in much more difficult circumstances. When, however, it is considered that against the Soviet record of material achievement must be put the treatment meted out to whole nationalities supposed to be enjoying autonomy, the Soviet claims to moral as well as material superiority become unintelligible. Until recently western reports of repression, deportation and the like in Soviet Asia have been dismissed by Soviet leaders as fabrications, and representations made by victims of such excesses at the Bandoeng Conference last year received short shrift. But in the indictment of Stalin now made public the mass deportations of North Caucasian and other Asian peoples to a total of nearly a million have been admitted and denounced as crimes against humanity. What reparation is being made to the surviving victims of this savagery has not yet been announced, but even if it results in the complete rehabilitation in their

homelands of the Chechens, Ingush and Kalmyks, to mention only three of the peoples involved, the continued claim of the Soviet Union to mentorship of the west in the matter of handling under-developed areas and peoples must remain one of the most baffling phenomena of modern times.

Territorial and administrative changes

An area in the south of the Dzhanibek rayon (West-Kazakhstan oblast) has been transferred to the Vladimir rayon (Astrakhan' oblast) of the RSFSR. The Frunze and Kzyl-Kum rayons in the South-Kazakhstan oblast have been incorporated in the Turkestan and Kirov rayons respectively. Sary-Shagan and Kurgasyn (Karaganda oblast), Pavlovsk and the settlement at the Sokolovka-Sarbay kombinat (Kustanay oblast) have been made workers settlements (rabochiy poselok). The Sokolovka-Sarbay settlement is to be called Rudnyy.

The towns of Bayram-Ali (Mary oblast) and Kizyl-Arvat (Ashkhabad oblast) have been transferred from oblast to rayon jurisdiction, and are in future to be administered by the raykoms of the same name. Kizyl-Kaya (Krasnovodsk rayon, Ashkhabad oblast) has been made a "town-type" settlement.

VVS. Nos.9, 11, 12, 13, 1956

Boarding schools for Kirgiz children

Six boarding schools are to be opened in Kirgizia at the beginning of the 1956-7 educational year. They will be in Frunze, Przheval'sk, Bystrovka, Uzgen, Karavan and the Chu rayon (Frunze oblast), and will accommodate 1,350 children. Children will be accepted for them only at their parents' request.

SK. 23rd June 1956

H I S T O R Y

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1905-1907
AND THE AWAKENING OF ASIA

BY I.M. REYSNER

The following is an abridged translation of an article entitled "The Russian Revolution of 1905-1907 and the Awakening of Asia" by I.M. Reysner, published in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE No.2, 1955. Some remarks from "The influence of the 1905-1907 Revolution on the Movement of Peoples of the East Abroad" (VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, No.12, 1955) are appended at the end.

Reysner's article is one of many which appeared during 1955 to mark the 50th Anniversary of the 1905-1907 Russian Revolution. In dealing with the various uprisings in Asia which roughly coincided with the Russian Revolution, Soviet writers invariably describe events in such a way as to make them conform to Marxist historical theory and current political requirements. An example of this can be found in the description of the part played by the Indian National Congress during the disturbances of 1907.

The article begins by quoting Lenin's testimony to the influence that the first Russian Revolution had upon the backward countries of Asia. Even inveterate imperialists could not deny the enormous part played by the 1905 revolution in the awakening of Asia. The English author E.G. Browne, in THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1905-1909 (Cambridge, 1910), wrote: "The Russian Revolution had here its most striking effect. Events in Russia were followed with tremendous interest, and it seemed that a new spirit possessed the people." Chirol, the Indian correspondent of THE TIMES, remarked: "1905 was a great blow to the tsarist autocracy. Indian nationalists constantly compared the Anglo-Indian government with its all-powerful bureaucracy to an autocracy: the British bureaucracy in India was called an incarnation of the tsarist civil servants who ruled Russia and laid that country waste. The argument from this was that Indians must use the same methods which the Russian revolutionaries had successfully set in train against tsarism."

The effects of the 1905-1907 revolution were not equally distributed. The first revolution began in Persia (1905-1911) and there was at the same time a revolutionary uprising in India (1905-1908). In Korea the national liberation movement began in 1906, but did not reach its highest point until 1910-1911. The revolutionary ferment in Turkey began in 1905, but the revolution took place in 1908. In 1908 a revolutionary uprising began in Indonesia and lasted until 1913. The Chinese revolution in 1911 and 1912 had a great effect on the revolutionary movements in Mongolia, Korea and Indonesia.

The author discusses in some detail the general conditions in which these revolutions took place, and the class development of the era. He then treats of each country individually.

The Ottoman Empire

The chief problem of the bourgeois revolution in the Ottoman Empire was the nationalities question in its two aspects; the liberation of all the peoples of this multi-national state - including the Turks themselves - from national oppression and colonial exploitation by foreign imperialists, and the liberation of the non-Turk peoples of the Empire from oppression on the score of nationality by land-owners and by the entrepreneur bourgeoisie of Turkey, who pursued a policy of forcible assimilation of these peoples. By reason of the semi-colonial position of the country the Turkish bourgeoisie was extraordinarily weak. There was no considerable industry; the number of workers engaged in industry and transport did not exceed forty to fifty thousand. The political demands of the Turkish bourgeoisie (the Young Turks) were limited; they aimed at the restoration of the very moderate constitution of 1876, which Sultan Abdul Hamid (1876-1909) had in practice abolished. The Young Turks were a very conspiratorial organization headed by the underground "Union and Progress" committee. This organization had no links with the mass of the Turkish people or with the revolutionary organizations of non-Turk peoples (Macedonians, Armenians and Arabs).

Under the influence of the Russian revolution the revolutionary movement in the Ottoman Empire grew stronger. Its focus was Macedonia, where the peasant partisans were engaged in a wide-spread struggle. Several risings took place in 1906-1907 in Asia Minor. The disturbances affected the Turkish Army, where Young Turk officers were working secretly; the troops called to crush the Erzerum rising in 1906 refused to do so, in 1907 the Skoplje garrison mutinied, and there were risings in the fleet under the direct influence of the Russian Black Sea Fleet risings. A group of Turkish officers sent a letter to the sister of Lieutenant Schmidt saying: "We too swear to the great citizen Schmidt that we will fight to the last

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drop of our blood for our hallowed civil freedom, that we will attempt by every means in our power to familiarize the Turkish people with events in Russia, so that we may by our combined forces win ourselves the right to live as men." The Russian example played a most important part in establishing a common front against the Sultan's autocracy among the Turks and the other peoples of the Ottoman Empire. At the congress of revolutionary organizations in Paris in 1907 a pact was made between the Young Turks and the Armenian bourgeois nationalists (Dashnaktsyutyun) to which the Macedonian revolutionaries later adhered. The decisive event in the Turkish bourgeois revolution was the rising in Macedonia in 1908, in which Turkish military units and partisan detachments both took part.

The Turkish bourgeois revolution was a revolution from the top. It did not shake the people throughout the Ottoman Empire, or move them to independent action. The Young Turks, when they had seized power and restored the 1876 constitution, declared the revolution over and took measures to hold the people in check, directing their efforts principally towards quelling liberation movements of non-Turk peoples and the strike movement among the proletariat. Yet, in spite of its half-heartedness, the Turkish bourgeois revolution had a progressive significance. It strengthened the movement of the Balkan peoples towards autonomy and real democracy, and helped the national liberation movement of the Arabs. For the Turkish people themselves, it was the beginning of their political awakening.

The struggle of the Turkish proletariat began after the revolution of 1908; the first trade unions and workers' political organizations appeared. The blow inflicted on the autocracy of the Sultan by the Turkish bourgeois revolution was a blow inflicted on imperialism. This is why the Young Turk revolution "immediately found opposed to it a counter-revolutionary coalition of powers" (Lenin). The dissolution of the Young Turks' pact with the non-Turkish organizations, their unbridled great-power chauvinist policy of preserving and expanding the many-peopled Ottoman Empire, had fateful consequences for the future of the Turkish revolution.

Persia, China and Korea

The description of the effect of the 1905 revolution on Persia, China and Korea is here omitted. The part on Persia is embodied in the section "The Borderlands of Central Asia: Persia", contained in this issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW.



The Oriental Institute at work.

There is within the fabric of the Academy of Sciences another institute which is concerned with eastern problems. About this, however, it can be said that if in our time the whole East has awoken, this institute is still half-asleep.

(From A. I. Mikoyan's speech at the XXth Party Congress).

Drawing by I. Semenov, reproduced from *Krokodil*, 1956 No. 7.

Mongolia and Afghanistan

Even more so than in Korea, feudal and monarchical nationalism left a clear mark on the Mongolian people's struggle for freedom, which arose under the influence of the Russian revolution of 1905-1907 and the Chinese revolution of 1911, and was directed against the oppression of the Manchu Empire and the intolerable exploitation of Chinese usurers, entrepreneurs and foreign monopolists. The Mongol spiritual and temporal feudal rulers who crushed the anti-feudalist risings of the arats (nomadic herdsmen), such as the rising of Ayusha, at the same time led the struggle for independence of the country in 1912, the year of the supposed independence of Mongolia. They reconstituted what was in fact their former feudal and theocratic state under the suzerainty of Russian tsarism.

In Afghanistan the Russian revolution of 1905-1907 found its reflection in the Young Afghan movement, which was composed of a very narrow circle of progressive Afghan merchants and officials and army officers who had received a modern education. The Young Afghans, who demanded independence for their country and the carrying-out of certain reforms, were a small group of men dissatisfied with the existing regime and the British domination. In 1907 their semi-conspiratorial organization was crushed by the Amir and their activity stopped for some considerable time.

India

In contrast to China, Persia, the Ottoman Empire and other semi-colonial countries, India was a colony where British imperialism held direct and undivided sway. Whereas in the semi-colonial countries the old forms of state and local rulers, such as the Turkish Sultan, the Persian Shah and the Manchu Emperor, were kept in force, in India the movement towards nationhood, freedom and democracy was confronted by the open dictatorship and the centralized military and bureaucratic structure of a foreign occupying power. The colonial enslavement of India and the entire concentration of political power in the hands of imperialism, enabled the British monopolies to make the subjection of India's economy to themselves the more complete.

At the beginning of the twentieth century three currents could be distinguished in India's national liberation movement. There was the movement of the liberal bourgeoisie and of some of the land-owners, centred on the National Congress founded in 1885, whose demands were limited to certain reforms and whose methods were protests and petitions. The democrat B.G. Tilak ironically summed up the passive tactics of the Indian liberals, who had no ties with the common people as the three Ps;

petitions, protests and pliancy. A second current was formed by the petty bourgeois nationalists, who called themselves "extreme" as distinct from the "moderates" or liberals. They put the political struggle first, even before the use of force, in order to overthrow the British mastery in India. For this reason the second current was popular among the people; but they made no sort of demand for land reform, which attested the close ties between the urban petty bourgeoisie and the well-to-do rural classes. (The social stratum meant what Mao Tse Tung has called, with application to China, "kulaks of the old type.") Calling upon workers and peasants to fight imperialism, the "extremists" at the same time tried to impede the growth of the class consciousness of the workers. The Hindu religious colouring which the "extremists" attempted to give to the national liberation movement hindered the cooperation of Hindu and Muslim on grounds of a common struggle against imperialism, and this weakened the movement as a whole. Another weakness of the "extremists" was that they had no political organization of their own and formed an opposition in the National Congress. At the same time the petty bourgeois nationalists had created a chain of educational organizations and sports clubs, had a fairly powerful press at their disposal, and spread disaffection among the workers, peasants and urban poor, using each British act of depredation, outrage or iniquity to make the dire consequences of the country's colonial enslavement clear to the masses. The third current was the toiling masses of India. The fight of the masses of the people (above all, of the peasantry) against imperialism and feudalism at the beginning of the twentieth century still had a mediaeval character and was expressed in elemental upsurges. These disintegrated forces, as they mostly were, of the national liberation movement were opposed by a tightly concentrated camp of reaction: the princes, the land-owners and the bourgeois middlemen, headed by imperialism.

The rise of the Indian national liberation movement occurred under the direct influence of the Russian revolution of 1905-1907, after the partition of Bengal. The revolutionary movement embraced the masses most effectively in Bengal and Bombay, that is, where almost three quarters of the industrial proletariat was concentrated. In contrast to the preceding period, the distinguishing marks of the Indian liberation movement at this time were its mass character, and its conscious democracy. The unification of the forces of the anti-imperialist camp achieved in the first stages of the rising was a great step forward in comparison with the past, and at the same time furthered the differentiation of social classes in the course of the struggle. The common platform of the movement became the demands for the reunification of Bengal, for swaraj (self-government) and swadesh (home production) that is for the political and economic independence of India. The content of these demands was not understood by all alike; the liberal bourgeoisie understood swaraj as very limited self-

government within the limits of the British Empire, and swadesh as protection in favour of the national industry.

The liberal Dadabhai Naoroji, the chairman of the All-India National Congress, said in his presidential address at the Calcutta session of the Congress in 1906; "If the Russian peasants are not only prepared for self-government, but able to wrest it from the hands of the greatest autocracy in the world, if China in the east of Asia and Persia in the west are waking up, if Japan has already awoken, if Russia is fighting heroically for her liberation, how can we, supposedly free citizens of the British Indian Empire, remain the disfranchised subjects of a despotism?" He had a typically liberal modification to make to swadesh; "No one, I suppose, thinks that all the existing machinery of government can be suddenly cast aside, and that the rights which I have defined as constituting self-government for India, can be immediately introduced." Thus, even during the revolutionary uprising, the liberals as before remained law-abiding and confined themselves to protests, resolutions and petitions. The National Congress took part in the boycott campaign against British goods only under the pressure of the masses, and kept its apprehensions that this campaign might grow into a revolutionary struggle. The workers and peasants were not yet able to formulate their own demands, but it was their participation in the movement that gave it its scope and revolutionary character.

As over the question of the meaning of swaraj, so over the methods of attaining it there was disunity in the ranks of the "extremists". The more logical and resolute petty bourgeois nationalists went underground because of the repressive measures taken by the British authorities (as did, for example, the members of the Anushilan Samiti organization) and saw the chief means of overthrowing the colonial regime and attaining independence in an armed rising. But the petty bourgeois nationalists imagined that a rising was the result of the actions of a comparatively small group of hardened conspirators, and it was because of this that nothing came of the preparations for an armed rising made by their underground organizations in Bengal or in other parts of India. The British security police crushed these organizations, and surviving groups began more and more to resort to individual acts of terrorism against British bureaucrats. Tilak, who kept on the right side of the law, acknowledged the use of violence in the struggle against the imperialists, but considered that the conditions were not yet ripe for an armed rising.

Most of the "extremists" did not share his views and even less those of the petty bourgeois nationalists working underground, and, like the liberals, supported the use of peaceful and legal methods of resistance. The expulsion in 1907 of the extremists with Tilak at their head from the

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National Congress, meant that the liberal bourgeoisie had retreated before imperialism. This turn of events was brought about by the growth of the mass peasant revolutionary movement in Bengal and Madras, the peasant rising in the Punjab, in which the insurgents took Rawalpindi, and the beginning of the Indian proletarian strike movement. In 1907 there was a political strike of Punjab railway workers who refused to convey British troops sent to crush the Rawalpindi rising. Also in 1907, the workers struck on the East Bengal railway, in the railway works and in the printing presses of Calcutta. In the summer of the same year there was a wide-spread strike of post and telegraph workers. The retreat of the liberal bourgeoisie from the people in their fright at the upsurge of the revolutionary movement was made the more easy by the policy of the colonial authorities, who promised to carry out certain reforms in the interests of the Indian exploiter classes.

At the same time the colonial authorities took measures to repress the "extremists". Tilak was one of the first to be arrested. In July 1908 he was brought before the Supreme Court in Bombay on the charge of "attempting to stir up hatred and disrespect for authority, discontent against the government and of upholding feelings of hostility among different classes of His Majesty's subjects". Tilak acquitted himself proudly and courageously during the trial and maintained the right of the peoples of India to struggle for their independence with the same methods as those used by the Russians during the 1905-1907 revolution. He was condemned to six years' penal servitude by the votes of seven British jurymen against two Indians. In reply to this sentence the "extremists" called upon the inhabitants of Bombay to make demonstrations of protest in the streets. The petty urban bourgeoisie also took part in the demonstration, but the decisive part played in it was that of the Bombay working class. On the 23rd July there began in Bombay a general political strike lasting for six days, answering to the six years of Tilak's sentence. Over 100,000 took part; in the course of the strike the workers showed great class solidarity, staunchness and courage. Police and troops several times opened fire on the strikers, who built barricades, stoned the police and displayed great ability in using the streets as a battleground. The Bombay strike was the culminating point of the Indian revolutionary wave of 1905-1908 and the most obvious instance of the influence of the Russian revolution of 1905-1907.

The author concludes with Lenin's judgment on the historical significance of the era: "No power in the world can ever restore the old serfdom in Asia, or remove from the face of the earth the heroic democracy of the popular masses in the Asian and semi-Asian countries."

. . .

A report read at a session of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences held to commemorate the fiftieth anniversary of the 1905 revolution, by A.A. Aliyev, has been published in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, No.12, 1955. For the most part it follows the same scheme as Reysner's article; but there is some interesting comment. Aliyev begins with a conventional treatment of the "betrayal" of the ruling classes in Persia, China and Turkey during the nineteenth century, and of the subsequent "betrayal" of the people by the bourgeoisie, implicated with the imperialist powers by ties of trade. But whereas Reysner begins with an exposure of British imperialism in India, Aliyev discusses the imperialist role of the old regime in Russia: "All the revolutionary uprisings of the colonial peoples were crushed with unheard-of cruelty by the troops of the reactionary governments and the foreign imperialists. In this cruel repression Russian Tsarism played a notable part. In the lands of the colonial East its agents followed a policy of terrorizing the enslaved peoples with the might of the Russian 'almighty white Tsar'. In many countries of the East a feeling of fear of the Russian Tsar and a burning hatred of him had become firmly rooted. And when in 1905 the common people of Russia struck a decisive blow at Tsarism by force of arms, all the enslaved people of the East abroad saw that 'the Devil is not so terrible as he is painted'."

For the rest, Aliyev follows exactly Reysner's survey of the revolutionary movement country by country, omitting Mongolia and Afghanistan; the fact that his report is published in a shortened form may account for the crudeness of his summary.

Committee for the Solidarity of Asian Countries

As a result of the conference of representatives of fifteen Asian countries held in Delhi in 1955, a Soviet Committee for the Solidarity of Asian Countries has been formed of representatives from the USSR as a whole, and from Kazakhstan, Kirgizia, Tadzhikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Georgia and Azerbaydzhan. The address of the Committee is in Moscow.

PV. 23rd May 1956

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

S E A S O N A L N O M A D I S M

What follows is an attempt to describe the physical conditions of nomadism. This way of life is now extinct in the Soviet Union - at all events officially - but the seasonal habits persisted over a very long time, and were the basis upon which much of the culture of Central Asia was founded.

It is not the purpose of this article to treat of the Scythians, the ancient nomadic people par excellence (1), whom Herodotus describes so fascinatingly, nor of mass militant migrations nor of conquering khans, for these have their historians; nor to any great extent with social distinctions among nomads (2); but rather to attempt to examine the physical conditions of the life of the nomad, which can have changed very little in the course of thousands of years. The nomad must be defined, for the term is loosely used. When, for instance, Curzon (3) says that "The . . . taste for nomad life . . . disqualifies the Russians for the sedentary and laborious existence of the settler", he does not really mean that the Russian peasant is a nomad, but that he is foot-loose: nor is his statement, quoted thus out of its context, entirely true. And E. Denison Ross, in his lectures to the Royal Society of Arts (4), treats rather of what he calls "wholesale invasions" (Arabs, Turks, Seljuks and Mongols) than of seasonal nomadism. The nomad's wealth, his "instruments of labour", the "conductor of his influence upon the object of his labour" (the soil), (5) is his stock: horses, camels, asses, cattle, sheep and goats; and these feed upon what forage grows wild. (The nomad has, on the whole, little idea of agriculture, or of storing fodder for the winter.) When, therefore, forage grows short in one place, he must move to where it is abundant (this seasonal variation he can, to a certain extent, foresee from experience) and he must have a free scope. The consequences of the cramping of the range of the Inner Bukeyev Horde, and of the Kazakhs in general by the Russian refusal in the middle of the eighteenth century to let them cross the frontier northwards, are described by Tolybekov (6) and Vyatkin (7). Nomads are divided into three classes (8):

1. Meridional: those who travelled north and south according to the season, sometimes for 1000 km. or more; e.g. the Kazakhs.
2. Vertical: those who lived in mountainous regions, and travelled between steppe valley and alpine pastures; e.g. the Kirgiz (9).

3. Those who live in deserts, and move in an enclosed, circuitous course from one well or oasis to another.

Of the third sort the classic writer is C.M. Doughty (10); of the second there is much less written evidence: it is apparently still practised, presumably under strict supervision (11), in Kirgizia, and also in Afghanistan, though the Afghan government has a plan for settling the nomads (12). A good deal can be gleaned about the life of the meridional nomads in the vast area which stretches from Eastern Turkestan, now part of China, to westward of the Black Sea; and especially of Central Asia, of which Curzon (13), writing in 1889, says, "It is only a decade since there was no sedentary population. . ."; and of the inhabitants of that area there is most evidence about the Kazakhs.

Of nomads in general something can be gathered from Marco Polo (14) and Clavijo (15); but one was a merchant going to trade at the Court of Kublai Khan and writes, as is natural, mostly of towns, commerce and industry (though he had his eyes open for the geography and customs of the countries through which he passed); and the other an envoy sent from the King of Castile to Timur, and is more concerned, and who shall blame him? with the glories of the court at Samarkand than with the much less glorious lives of the peoples he travelled among. Moreover, one must be sceptical about Clavijo's tales of things which he has not actually seen: for instance of the Christian Amazons of the Greek Church, who lived fifteen days' journey to the east of Samarkand and were descended from the Amazons who fought at Troy.(16) Neither of these travellers shared to any great extent, or for long, in the life of the nomads. Marco Polo, who is apt to lump all nomads together under the name of "Tartars", writes of the good horses and mules to be found among the "Turcomans" of Asia Minor, who drive their flocks to pasture in the mountains, and live on animal food and manufacture carpets and silks; and of the excellence of the horses and the handsomeness of the asses in Persia, which latter, he says, cover more ground in a day than horses or mules. He writes that the nomads of Persia made money by providing, as they were obliged to do, trusty guides for caravans (17) (this was a staple of income of the desert nomad (18)); and that excellent hawks were found in the mountains round Kerman. Hawking was a means of hunting much used by the nomad (19), and there is a great deal in Marco Polo about hawking and breeds of hawks; and about the qualities of horses.(20) He also writes of hunting with cheetahs. The horses, he says fed on grass alone and did not need barley or other grain.(21) He writes of the yurts, and how they are carried in wagons (22), and says that they are set up with the entrance always towards the south, to avoid the north wind (23), and that the carts had tilts of black felt (24). On a campaign - when, that is to say, they wanted to travel fast and light - they subsisted for the most part

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on (mare's) milk;(25) they each had about eighteen horses, which carried their tents and cooking-pots - though they could travel for ten days without cooked food; they prepared a hard curd (26): when this was mixed with water in a leather bottle the motion of the horse turned it into thin porridge, "upon which they make their dinner". In extremity they drank their horses' blood. "No people on earth can surpass them in fortitude under difficulties, nor show greater patience under wants of every kind." This contrasts strongly with Doughty's opinion of the Bedouin, that "they think themselves always ailing".(27) Of the nomad's diet generally Marco Polo says that they eat horse-meat and mutton. He speaks of the fat-tailed sheep; and of the domestication of what is obviously the yak (apparently he did not see one), and of crossing it with the common cow: he refers to its usefulness as a beast of burden and to the fineness of its hair, but does not say that it was eaten.(28)

Of salt, an important part of man's diet, he has much to say. The purest, it was thought, came from the hills to the south of Taikán, among the sources of the Amu-Dar'ya: it was so hard that it could only be won with iron tools (29), and he speaks of salt produced by boiling water; of water which is so salt as to be nauseous and has the effect of Epsom Salts - he says that bitter water was mixed with flour to make it palatable to cattle - and of the revenue that the Khan draws from salt.

Referring to the "Tartars'" religion, he writes of idols, demons, and magic which he says they learnt in India: by this he clearly means shamanism.(30)

Clavijo says that his party was regularly furnished with meat and horses (31); and speaks of a feast of "horses roasted and their tripes boiled".(32) He says that a high value is set on horses which amble.(33)

Abdykalykov and Pankratova (34) give a reasonable and probable account of the life of the Kazakh nomads in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries: sheep they say, were an important part of the economy of the Kazakhs; mutton was their chief food (though they also ate horse-meat and drank kumys); they made sheepskin clothes and from the wool they made felt, which had numerous uses. All prices were reckoned in terms of numbers of sheep. Equally important was the horse (35), which was the chief means of transport and of which the most valued were those which could find forage under the snow (tebenevat'). They also had camels and goats and, in the southern regions, cattle. They spent the summer and winter in different places, often far from each other. Sometimes they would move to a different area for the autumn. They chose their winter quarters, kystau,(36) carefully - a place in the steppe where there was plenty of grass and where the prevailing north-east and south-west winds swept the

snow away, for only in a place like that could their stock find forage without help. The best places - sheltered from winter storms by sand-dunes and reeds - were found between the Caspian and Aral Seas, in the Barsuki sands and the (Kazakhstan) Kara Kum, and in the lower reaches of the Syr-Dar'ya and Ural rivers.

The average seasonal journey was 700-900 km., but some tribes travelled more than 1000 km. In southern Kazakhstan, where regions of different climate and vegetation are closer (from desert sands to alpine meadows) it might be as little as 200-300 km.(37)

They were in constant danger: predatory beasts threatened their flocks, and they had continual quarrels with their neighbours over rights of pasture and passage. If there was a hard frost after an early thaw, even the Kazakh horses' hoofs could not break the ice, and there was a dzhut (in Kazakh: zhut, perishing of the flocks from a total lack of forage (38)): the animals died off in a few days and rich men became paupers. The same thing would happen if there were deep snow-drifts; hence comes the Kazakh saying "The bogatyr' (warrior-hero) is destroyed by one bullet, and the rich man by one snow-storm."

They stayed in their winter quarters from about November to March. When the spring came the travelling tents were loaded on camels. These tents were an excellent type of portable dwelling, and could be assembled or dismantled in fifteen to thirty minutes. Every effort was made to save weight; to save wear, too, for wood was scarce - dry dung was used for fuel - and felt dear. The average tent weighed no more than 200 kg., and could easily be carried by two camels. (The big, luxurious pavilions of the sultans and rich men needed twenty to thirty camels to carry each of them.) The yurts provided good shelter against the heat of the steppe in the daytime and the cold at night; against wind, rain and dust. The women, gaily dressed, travelled with their children and household goods on camels; then came the flocks and herds, followed by men on horseback. Patrols on horseback went ahead for protection, and for reconnaissance for pasture and suitable stopping-places. This every-day travel was possible only in the spring (39), when there were pools of melted snow and they could easily stop every ten to fifteen kilometres: as the heat grew and the pools disappeared the party was strung out along the track from one well to the next. Scouts went stealthily ahead to a watering-place and, if it was not "taken" they took it by tying knots in the grass round it or marking the ground with the family's tanga (Kaz. tanba)(40), pateran, as it were: the pasture round the watering-place was considered to be "taken", too. All the stock was kept together at the summer quarters (41) while there was enough pasture; but when it was noticed that they had stopped putting on flesh they were dispersed.

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It was chiefly in the autumn that festivals were held (42) and handicraft was carried on. When there was wood the men made kerege - supports for the yurts - and household vessels. They also made pottery; but they did not do much smith's work.(43) They made gunpowder from sulphur mixed with poplar charcoal and, for saltpetre, they used the deposits in old tombs. They also smelted lead (from the Kara-Tau hills) in special pits and mixed it with sheep's tallow and horse-dung and cast bullets. The women (44) made felt (45) from which they constructed the big pieces (koshma) which were used as segments of the walls of the yurt and for other purposes, and coats of camel-hair and woollen carpets. All this was supplementary to the stock-breeding activity of the aul.

Meetings of the headmen were held to discuss plans for the move to winter quarters. The darker nights favoured raids on caravans and on their neighbours, and they would drive off each other's cattle, and sometimes people for slaves in a reprisal-raid (barymta).(46) It was natural enough that there should be collisions and quarrels: "And there was strife between the herdmen of Abram's cattle and the herdmen of Lot's cattle"; and of course the merchants' caravans also, and the settled towns, if they seemed insufficiently protected, were tempting prey. The scattered auls were gathered together and the party set off for the south. Scouts would go ahead to "take" a place for them to winter in.(47)

For their diet, beside the meat (48) that has already been mentioned, they ate fish from rivers and lakes, and even did some primitive agriculture. In the summer-pasture areas millet was sown among the grass and ploughed in shallowly: if there was any rain at all during the summer the harvest showed on the average a thirty-fold increase. This was done two years running, and then the land was left fallow for many years. Even artificial irrigation was used. Sometimes slaves and other dependants would stay at the winter quarters and till the ground. The dependants' stock was driven along with the rest, and they were expected to share their harvest: the slaves' produce belonged to their masters.(49) On the whole, however, the nomads preferred to get their grain from settled people in exchange for sheep.

Slavery among them ranged from the casual prisoners picked up in a barymta, who would be used as servants and agricultural labourers, unless they possessed any special skill, to the wholesale capture and enslavement of artisans by Timur.(50) Fedorovich describes (51) how in 1934 he was told that the Turkmen nomads had been used, either because they were quite incapable of storing enough grain and other necessaries for the winter, or simply out of bravado (udal'stvo) to raid (allamanit') into Persia and Afghanistan and would bring back men and women as slaves, who bore the usual Turkic name for a slave, kul (gul), as distinct from the free-born

Turkmen, the ig. No Turkmen would give his daughter in marriage to one or the descendant of one; they might not be a mullah, cadi or mirab (water-controller). This continued for seven generations, after which they were considered free. When Fedorovich returned eighteen years later, he found that the distinction was still remembered, but that no disability attached to kul descent.

Vyatkin (52) says that the nomads were much attracted by barter. After the Russians advanced to the Orenburg-Semipalatinsk line, trading-stations were set up and barter went on in a small way all along it. Merchants' dealers also went into the steppe with their wares and exchanged them in the auls. The Kazakhs acquired cloth, manufactured metal goods (needles, belts, combs), Siberian furs, foreign textiles and a great deal of bread. For these they exchanged stock - chiefly sheep - lambskins and other products from their stock (especially camel-hair), koshmy and other things made of sheep's wool. The Kazakhs, he says, and it seems very likely, were often given old poor stuff, and articles made in Russia from Kazakh materials.

The Kazakhs' felt yurts, and the koshmy on the ground, with or without carpets over them, which were seldom moved (53) and over which animals moved freely all the winter, must have provided ideal harbourage for vermin. Indeed Littlepage (54), who is sympathetic towards the nomad Kazakhs, says that (in the 1930's) they were prosperous but uncivilized, illiterate, superstitious, dirty, filthily-clothed and verminous. He writes of a village which had an outbreak of typhus where the Kazakhs (now beginning to be settled) amused themselves by flicking off their lice on to the more cleanly Russians.

The search for water in the summer, and for the fodder which depends on it, was a continual preoccupation of the nomad, and nothing has been said about it here. Doughty (55) speaks of water being so scarce among the Bedouin he was living with that there was none even for coffee. For this reason, he says, they seldom wash and have a dispensation from Mahomet to perform the ritual ablutions with sand. They wash their babies in camel's urine, and also the hair of grown-ups, which it has the effect of bleaching. Something of the anxiety of travelling through the Central Asian desert from well to distant well may be gathered from Bailey (56); and his party was a small one and well mounted.

It is clear that the life of the nomad was extremely precarious (57) and, while it may be doubted whether the Soviet government was justified in settling them so arbitrarily (58), yet it seems that it might almost have been of them that Thomas Hobbes (59) was thinking when he wrote of war-time (and the nomads were always actually or potentially at war):

"No Arts; no Letters; no Society; and which is worst of all, continually feare, and danger of violent death; And the life of man, solitary, poore, nasty, brutish, and short."

Notes

- (1) See Encyclopedie d'Islam (Leiden and Paris, 1913), s.v. Türks (article by W. Barthold), Vol.IV, p.947.
- (2) For description and discussion of these see Vestnik Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy SSR (Alma Ata), 1955, No.6 (article by S.E. Tolybekov), pp.43-59; Voprosy Istorii (Moscow), 1956, No.1, pp.75-80; Voprosy Istorii (Moscow), 1956, No.3 (article by O.D. Chekhovich), pp.84-95; M. Abdykalykov and A. Pankratova; Istoriya Kazakhskoy SSR (referred to hereafter as 'Kaz. SSR') (Moscow, 1943), passim; M. Vyatkin: Ocherki po istorii Kazakhskoy SSR (Moscow, 1941), passim; C.M. Doughty: Travels in Arabia Deserta, 2 vols. (London, 1924), passim, esp.Vol.I; Encyclopedie d'Islam, s.v. Arabie, p.377 ff. Kaz. SSR and Vyatkin both give useful accounts of sources.
- (3) G.N. Curzon: Russia in Central Asia in 1899 (London, 1899), p.409.
- (4) Journal of the Royal Society of Arts, Vol.LXXVII, No.4009.
- (5) S.E. Tolybekov, Vestnik A/N Kazakhskoy SSR, 1955, No.8, p.37. (This article is a marxist analysis of nomadism and settled agriculture.) The nomad, then, is dependent on the soil at one remove: so, indeed, is the farmer; but he stays in one place and learns about the soil, and his instruments of labour are for the most part not alive, and therefore more dependable.
- (6) *Ibid.*, p.43.
- (7) Pp.165-6.
- (8) Bol'shaya Sovetskaya Entsiklopedia (B.S.E.), Vol.23 (1953), s.v. Kochevnichestvo, pp.170-1.
- (9) See article by B.D. Isakeyev in Problemy Kirgizskoy SSR (A/N SSR, 1936), pp.15, 20. Some account of the mountain-pasturing of stock in Kirgizia is given also in S.N. Ryazantsev: Kirgizia (Moscow, 1951), pp.69, 73. Cf. T. Wright (ed.): The Travels of Marco Polo the Venetian (London, 1894), ch.XLVII, p.128. Vertical

nomadism was also possible in southern Kazakhstan (Kaz. SSR, p.119).

- (10) Op.cit., esp.Vol.I, chaps.VIII-XII, in which there is much curious lore. See also Encyclopédie d'Islam, s.v. Arabie, Vol.I, pp.377 ff.
- (11) "Dictatorial régimes have a traditional dislike of nomadism, which is hard to organize and eludes the tax-gatherer." (Olaf Caroe: Soviet Empire: The Turks of Central Asia and Stalinism (London, 1953), p.145.
- (12) Royal Central Asian Journal, April 1956, p.123.
- (13) P.385, quoting Sir H. Rawlinson on the benefits which Russian rule has brought to "a large portion of Central Asia".
- (14) Op.cit.
- (15) C.R. Markham (tr.) Narrative of the Embassy of Ruy Gonzalez de Clavijo to the Court of Timur at Samarcand, A.D. 1403-6 (Hakluyt Society, London, 1859).
- (16) Pp.174-5.
- (17) Cf. Vyatkin, p.166.
- (18) Cf. Doughty, Vol.I, pp.4, 10, 235.
- (19) See also B.A. Fedorovich: Lik Pustyni (Moscow, 1954), p.200.
- (20) See e.g. Bk.I, ch.II, pp.140-1. Of hawking by Kublai Khan see Bk.II, ch.15, pp.208 ff. Cf. Encyclopédie d'Islam, Vol.I, p.380, col.I. Clavijo took some gerfalcons with him for Timur (op.cit., p.100). "The breaking in of chariot horses was. . . only the first of two great achievements in the Eurasian Nomad's handling of the horse. The second achievement was to breed a horse with a strong enough backbone to carry a rider in battle instead of merely conveying him to the battlefield on wheels." (A.J. Toynbee: A Study of History (London, 1954), Vol.VII, p.687.
- (21) Clavijo (op.cit., p.107) writes of horses being given barley.
- (22) They were also carried on camels (Kaz. SSR, p.120). John Bell of

Antermony, quoted in Marco Polo (Bk.I, ch.XLVII, p.129, n.1), says in his Travels from St.Petersburg in Russia to divers parts of Asia (Glasgow, 1763), Vol.i, pp.29-30, writing of the tents of the Kalmyks on the Volga, "a camel may carry five or six of them." These would be the summer or travelling yurts. For the 'flitting' tent, or hējra, of the Bedouin see Doughty, Vol.I, p.224. Ibid, p.234, he says that six camels will carry a ton.

- (23) Cf. Doughty (Vol.I, p.221) who says that the Bedouin sheikh's tent is set up with the entrance to the south in order that the heat of the sun may discourage loiterers and would-be-coffee-drinkers.
- (24) Purchas, quoted, says that they rubbed the felt over with tallow or sheep's milk to make it waterproof. Cf. Clavijo, p.107.
- (25) For this and for kumys see also Bk.I, ch.XLVII, p.130; and, of the Kazakhs in the XVI-XVII centuries, Kaz. SSR, p.118.
- (26) Perhaps this is the kurt mentioned by Fedorovich (p.213).
- (27) Vol.I, p.256.
- (28) Photographs of yurts, yaks and hawks may be seen in F.M. Bailey: Mission to Tashkent (London, 1946).
- (29) Cf. the rock-salt which Doughty says (Vol.I, pp.227, 296) came from Teyma. He mentions a crust of salt on the surface of the desert (Vol.II, p.72 and often).
- (30) For shamanism in Central Asia see M.A. Czaplicka: The Turks of Central Asia, etc. (Oxford, 1918), pp.30-3; and Vyatkin, pp.321-5. Islam has always sat lightly on the nomads. Sir Olaf Caroe (op. cit. p.239) quotes a Kazakh at Mecca saying, "Since we have no mosques, no official clergy, and no institution that the Communist can abuse, this means that they can do nothing with us."
- (31) P.85.
- (32) P.100. Cf. Kaz. SSR, p.118.
- (33) P.100. The B.S.E., s.v. Bashkirskaya SSR (Vol.4, 1950), p.342, says that the Bashkir stepnoy inokhodets was specially prized.
- (34) In Kaz. SSR, p.118 ff.

- (35) Doughty has as would be expected, a deal to say about the Arab horse. Among other things he writes (Vol.I, pp.261, 309-10) that the horse drinks a great deal and often (it loses moisture very quickly through its skin), and its water must be carried in skins on camel-back. It is "a brittle possession" and needs much care. Every nomad horse, even when fully grown, has a foster-camel. But they are not groomed.
- (36) Cf. Vyatkin, p.55.
- (37) Doughty says that tribes of the Bedouin range an area "as much as certain of our English counties", three or four thousand square miles (Vol.I, pp.230, 243).
- (38) Vyatkin (p.156), who says that the stock fed on standing pasture all the year round, and were therefore particularly liable to this calamity. He writes (p.206) of a fearful dzhut in the winter of 1795-6, when many small children died of hunger, and the Kazakhs had recourse to barymty (see (46)). E. Konobritskaya, in Karagandinskaya Oblast' (Alma-Ata, 1954), writes (pp.53) of one in 1880 when 819,000 head of stock perished.
- (39) Doughty (Vol.I, pp.218-9) says that at the time of the new spring herbage "the yearly refreshment, nay, the life of the nomads' cattle", the Bedouin moved by riding slowly, widely dispersed, while the beasts grazed: the women would dismount from their camels at noon to milk their few ewes and goats. It is now, he says, that the camels lay up flesh and grease in their humps: they sometimes do not drink for two and a half months.
- (40) See Czaplicka, op.cit., p.81. Marco Polo speaks of stock being marked (? branded) - perhaps with the tanga. Cf. "wasm" in Encyclopédie d'Islam (Vol.I, p.381, col.2, ad fin.).
- (41) They avoided, Vyatkin says (p.155) low-lying, marshy ground, where gadflies and mosquitoes made life impossible for man and beast.
- (42) Vyatkin, p.155.
- (43) Kaz. SSR is quoting F. Skibin, an envoy of Peter I; but Vyatkin (p.156) says that smith's work was done among the Kazakhs.
- (44) All the heavy work was done by women or slaves, except carpentry and smith's work. Cf. Doughty, Vol.I, pp.217, 221.

- (45) A good description of the process is given in G. Lias: Kazak Exodus (London, 1956), pp.60-1. Vyatkin (p.156) says that they cleaned the koshmy and made new ones for the winter yurts, which had two layers. (For details of the setting up of a yurt see E.K. Maillart: Turkestan Solo (New York, n.d.), pp.74-5.) Felt was also used for saddle-pads, boots, under-felts for carpets and sometimes for carpets themselves. He also writes of the women's making felt caps, fur coats and thick cloth robes. They boiled soap, tanned and stained hides, and made leather bottles, and sewing materials out of sinew. There was as yet (eighteenth century) no "division of labour" among them. Of the yurts Fedorovich says (op.cit., pp.214-5) that he remembers spending a winter night in a yurt, when there was a heavy fall of damp snow. The edge was raised fifteen centimetres off the ground so as not to get damp, and wind and snow blew into the tent. There was a blazing fire in the middle (a yurt had an opening in the roof to let out the smoke) and the grown-ups sat facing it with their fur coats round their shoulders to protect their backs from the cold. A small child crawled about in only a short shirt; nobody minded: he could get hardened (zakalyat'sya) or die. This is why, he says, the Soviet government has struggled against the yurt and for the building of houses; but, he goes on, the yurt is not a bad summer dwelling (many people think it better than a canvas tent). All over Turkmenistan and Kara-Kalpakia, even nowadays, people keep their goods in their houses, but from April to November they prefer to rest and sleep in yurts which they have put up in their yards. The yurt appears to preserve, he says, an almost complete evenness of temperature. His two chapters "Chem zhil i zhivët chelovek v pustyne", and "Tak bylo" (op.cit., pp.197-246), are well worth the reading.
- (46) Vyatkin, p.155-6. The B.S.E., Vol.4 (1950) p.342, says that this was known among the Bashkirs; and it mentions also the karymta, the blood-feud. Doughty (Vol.I, p.259) says "The nomad's mind is ever on the ghrazzu" (raid). For the Bedouin blood-feud and blood-money see his index, s.v. Midda.
- (47) In summer, Vyatkin says (p.155) all the auls travelled together: in winter each set up for itself. Life died then, and the Kazakhs seldom visited each other. The rich families lived in yurts with earth heaped round their edges, with the young of the stock; and the children kept themselves warm by lying next the animals when the fires were put out. The poorer people built themselves adobe huts for the winter.

- (48) A diet of nothing but meat does not, as is often supposed, bring on scurvy. Littlepage, John D., and Bess, D. (In Search of Soviet Gold, London, 1939) say (p.110) that when the nomads were forcibly settled and were expected to live on vegetables and bread, they would not eat the vegetables and, being deprived of the meat they were used to, fell ill with scurvy. The Caribou Indians of the Mackenzie area of Canada live on nothing but caribou meat. According to Fedorovich (pp.201-3) there are plenty of edible plants in the deserts of Central Asia. It is doubtful whether the nomads ate them. They apparently knew how to "boucan" meat. See V.N. Kunin: Karakumskiye Zapiski (Moscow, 1950), p.13. N.B. This book is mostly about modern irrigation.
- (49) Cf. Doughty (Vol.I, p.234) The Bedouin "have little or no aversion to take up the settled life. . . In the open nomad country the Beduwy will become half an husbandman where he may have good easy thrift." The best valleys were sown every year by some Arabs and "their harvest up, they strike the hamlets of tents, and with their cattle go forth to wander for a while as the nomads."
- (50) See Clavijo, pp.75-6, 120. For slavery in Arabia see Doughty, Vol.I, pp.554-5; Vol.II, pp.130, 170.
- (51) Pp.239-41.
- (52) Pp.156-8.
- (53) Doughty writes (Vol.I, p.3) of the felt saddle-pads (the Kazakhs also used their koshmy for this) which were put under the saddles at the beginning of the Haj (pilgrimage to Mecca) and were not lifted until the return after four months.
- (54) Pp.54-5; 116-7; 182.
- (55) Vol.I, pp.218, 237.
- (56) Pp.260, ff.
- (57) Cf. Doughty (Vol.I, p.244): The Bedouin "toil not, that is not bodily; but their spirits are made weary with incessant apprehension of their enemies, and their flesh with continual thirst and hunger".

- (58) This process is described with sympathy by Littlepage (pp.107-10); and patronisingly by N. Tikhonov (Kochevniki, Moscow, 1931) passim. See also Caroe, pp.171-88.
- (59) Leviathan, Part I, chap.13.
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Tourists to Central Asia

INTURIST has opened an agency in Alma-Ata to deal with tourists from abroad to Kazakhstan; two of the seventeen routes provided by INTURIST pass through Central Asia. The agency will also provide for the needs of Kazakh tourists, one group of whom has already gone to East Germany; other groups were to tour Rumania and Poland in May. KP. 10th May 1956

The stations called "Friendship"

On the 16th June representatives of the Soviet Union and the Chinese People's Republic met at the frontier to decide the arrangements to be made at the point where the Chinese sector of the Alma-Ata - Urumchi railway meets the Russian. Two stations are to be built, both to be called "Friendship". After the ceremony of connecting the work of the two survey teams, the joint commission left for Peking to discuss further problems. KP. 20th June 1956

POLITICAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

THE REPUBLICS OF TURKESTAN

BY B. HAYIT

The following is a translation of an article by B. Hayit entitled "Die turkestanischen Unionsrepubliken" which appeared in OSTEUROPA (1956, No.2). The word Turkestan is throughout used to refer to the four Central Asian Republics and Kazakhstan.

After Stalin's death various changes in the personnel of the Soviet ruling class followed, even in the Soviet Republics of Turkestan (Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kirgizia and Tadzhikistan). On 12th February 1954 PRAVDA announced that the first secretary of the Central Committee of the Kazakh Communist Party, Shayakhmetov, had been dismissed. The reason given was neglect of agricultural development, and there are many indications that differences of opinion with Krushchev over the programme for reclamation of the new lands are behind the dismissal. Nevertheless, Shayakhmetov was made a member of the Central Committee office in Kazakhstan shortly afterwards (PRAVDA, 22.2.54), and on 23rd February Khrushchev speaking of him, said: "Comrade Shayakhmetov is in my opinion an honourable man, and in this connection no one has reproached him in any way. But for such a large republic he was a weak leader (rukovoditel' slabiy)."

(PRAVDA, 21.3.54.) In his place P.K. Ponomarenko, previously Minister of Culture in the USSR, was appointed, who later, in May 1955, was made Soviet Ambassador in Warsaw (PRAVDA, 8.5.55), and in his place in Kazakhstan L.I. Brezhnev, hitherto second secretary, was nominated.

The Minister of Cotton of the USSR, Usman Yusuf (Yusopov) was demoted to Tashkent on 3rd April 1953 and was then given the post of chairman of the Uzbek Council of Ministers (QIZIL ÖZBEKISTAN, 5.4.53). His cotton ministry, which was only created on 5th April 1950 (IZVESTIA, 6.4.50), was dissolved on 15th March 1953 (PRAVDA, 16.3.53). The Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR took over the control of cotton cultivation.

Beria's fall afforded the occasion for the indictment of authoritative Soviet officials, who had counted as trusted Moscow men in the Stalin era,

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as "Beria supporters". As a consequence of this, as announced in the Soviet Turkestan press, 252 senior officials (of whom 204 were Turkestanis, and 48 Russian as well as other Slavs and Caucasians) were relieved of their offices during the year 1954. With this there began a kind of "purge", which had as its purpose the appointment of State and Party officials in Turkestan who would adapt themselves absolutely to the new Kremlin line. This purpose was achieved with the "election" of the republics of Turkestan to the Supreme Soviet which took place in the spring of 1955 (Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tadzhikistan on 27.2.55, Kazakhstan and Kirgizia on 6.3.55). Prior to this Moscow had dropped several Soviet personalities in Turkestan, for instance the President of the Presidium of the Kazakh Supreme Soviet, T. Undasyn(ov), on 1st March 1955; the president of the Kazakh Council of Ministers, Y. Taybek(ov), on 30th March 1955; the president of the Uzbek Council of Ministers, Usman Yusuf, on 24th November 1954 (QIZIL OSBEKISTAN, 25.11.54); and the president of the Tadzhik Council of Ministers, Dzhabbar Rasul(ov), (KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA, 27.2.55). The results of the elections were as follows:

<u>Republic</u>	<u>Suffrage</u>	<u>Deputies</u>	<u>Of which:</u>	
			<u>Turkestanis</u>	<u>Russians</u>
Kazakhstan	4,456,004	425	191	228
Uzbekistan	3,930,608	424	317	107
Tadzhikistan	964,784	300	249	51
Turkmenistan	780,456	258	194	64
Kirgizia	1,084,816	329	205	124
<hr/>				
Turkestan	11,216,668	1,736	1,156	574

The deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the Republics were composed of 251 workers, 530 kolkhozniks, and 955 intellectuals. From this it appears that in the future the peasantry will form the foundation of the social structure of Turkestan, although the share of the intellectuals, as the privileged element of the working and peasant classes, is considerable. Apparently the Soviet leaders here too are endeavouring to draw more intellectuals into the life of the State so that they may help in guiding the masses. The deputies also include 1,539 members of the Soviet elite (10 Heroes of the Soviet Union, 116 Heroes of socialist work, 32 holders of the Stalin prize and 1,381 holders of decorations). By contrast, the 197 undistinguished members form a large potential of the Soviet (sic). Of the 1,736 deputies, 224 are aged between 21 and 30, and 449 between

31 and 40 years; this means that 673 persons belong to the generation born in the new, Soviet period.

While the election to the republican Supreme Soviets was going on, elections for the soviets of 40 provinces, 515 districts, 29 urban districts, 110 towns, 4,065 villages and 332 settlements, were also taking place. Altogether 146,693 deputies were named for these communities, including 75,821 communists (50.8 per cent). (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 13.3.55; PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 4.3.55; KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA, 3.3.55; TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 4.3.55, SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 11.3.55.)

At present Moscow administers Turkestan with the help of the following five Soviet governments whose formation was announced between the 18th March and 2nd April 1955 (Turkmenistan: TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 20.3.55; Kazakhstan: KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 2.4.55; Kirgizia: SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 6.4.55; Uzbekistan: PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 29.3.55; Tadzhikistan: KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA, 1.4.55):

The Council of Ministers of Uzbekistan

1. Chairman	Nuritdin Mukhitdinov
2. Deputy	+Igor' Vasil'evich Babkov
3. "	+Aleksandr Nikitovich Rudin
4. "	Khabib Maripov
5. "	Kasim Rakhimov
6. "	Dzhatgar Nasritdinov
7. " and Foreign Minister	Gani Sultanov
8. " and President of the State Planning Commission	Abdudzhabar Abdurakhmanov

Ministries:

1. Internal Affairs	Yuldash Babadzhanov
2. Motor Transport and Roads	+Ivan Vasil'evich Strel'tsov
3. Water Economy	+Vasiliy Andreyevich Bylbas
4. Town and Country Construction	Said Ziyadullayev
5. State Control	Rauf Zoatov
6. Municipal Economy	Gafur Aliyev
7. Culture	Anvar Kuchkarov
8. Local and Fuel Industry	+Rodion Mikhaylovich Glukhov
9. Meat and Milk Industry	Zalish Umarov
10. Food Industry	Asam Khodzhayev
11. Building Materials Industry	Mukhamed Yuldashev

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12. Consumer Goods Industry	Fatkhulla Nasyrov
13. Education	Amindzhan Kadirov
14. Agriculture	Mirzaali Mukhamedzhanov
15. State Farms	Khalil Dzhalilov
16. Social Welfare	Abdulla Niyazov
17. Commerce	Siradzh Ziyamov
18. Finance	Mamadzhan Isametdinov
19. Justice	Murad Sheraliyev
20. Communications (Post, Telegraph)	+Mikhail Andreyevich Sharkov
21. President of the Committee for State Security	+Aleksey Petrovich Byzov
22. Health	Madzhid Yuldashev

The Council of Ministers of Kazakhstan

1. Chairman	Dinmukhamed Kuna Kunayev
2. Deputy	+Semen Filipovich Nikolayev
3. "	Mezimshan Beysebayev
4. "	Rakhim Baygaliyev
5. "	+Mikhail Ivanovich Gorbunov
6. "	+Ivan Gavrilovich Slazhnev
7. " and Minister of Culture	Tulegen' Tadzhibayev

Ministries:

1. Internal Affairs	Shiralbek Kabylbayev
2. Motor Transport and Roads	+Leonid Georgiyevich Zhukov
3. Town and Country Construction	+Yevgeniy Ivanovich Konyushevskiy
4. State Control	Abidzhan Zhusopov
5. Meat and Milk Industry	+Alexandr Dement'yevich Karagash
6. Food Industry	+Grigoriy Spiridonovich Galaydin
7. Building Materials Industry	+Filip Prokopovich Minayev
8. Consumer Goods Industry	+Ivan Petrovich Morokin
9. Fisheries	Dzhumagazi Dzhumaliyev
10. Communications (Post, Telegraph)	+Alexandr Alekseyevich Noskov
11. Agriculture	+Grigoriy Andreyevich Mel'nik
12. State Farms	+Mikhail Dmitriyevich Vlasenko
13. Commerce	Uteshkali Atambayev
14. Light Metal Industry	+Alexandr Ivanovich Samokhvalov
15. Justice	Kilich Sultanov
16. Water Economy	Sal'ken Dasulenov
17. Municipal Economy	+Nikolay Nikitovich Gerasimov
18. Local and Fuel Industry	Akhmet Adilov

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| 19. Education | Asker Zakarin |
| 20. Social Welfare | Bal'dzhan Bul'trikova |
| 21. Health | Sibigitulla Karynbayev |
| 22. President of the State Planning
Commission | +Vladimir Vladimirovich Gogosov |
| 23. President of the Committee for
State Security | +Vladimir Vladimirovich Gubin |

The Council of Ministers of Kirgizia

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|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Chairman | Abdy Suerkulov |
| 2. Deputy | +Vasily Ivanovich Grechko |
| 3. " | +Dmitriy Grigoriyevich Bol'shakov |
| 4. " | Moldakun Mambetaliev |
| 5. " | Khasan Maminov |
| 6. " and Foreign Minister | Kulaypa Konduchalova |

Ministries:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Internal Affairs | +Nikolay Andriyevich Moskov |
| 2. Motor Transport and Roads | Khusayn Kol'bayev |
| 3. Water Economy | Bolat Mambetov |
| 4. Town and Country Construction | +Boris Grigoriyevich Lytkin |
| 5. State Control | Sharif Toksunov |
| 6. Health | Fatima Nurgaziyeva |
| 7. Culture | Abdukadyr Kazakbayev |
| 8. Municipal Economy | +Grigoriy Kirilovich Gor'kovoy |
| 9. Local and Fuel Industry | Bekdzhan Dyushaliyev |
| 10. Meat and Milk Industry | Eshan Chertanov |
| 11. Consumer Goods Industry | +Mikhail Nikitovich Yezhov |
| 12. Education | Sultan Toktogunov |
| 13. Food Industry | Urmanbek Abdygulov |
| 14. Building Materials Industry | Suydumaly Sadygaliyev |
| 15. Communications (Post, Telegraph) | +Aleksandr Georgiyevich Toropkin |
| 16. Agriculture | Turdykhodzha Isakov |
| 17. State Farms | Mukash Umuraliyev |
| 18. Social Welfare | Batish Saliyeva |
| 19. Commerce | Chirmibay Chekayev |
| 20. Finance | Akhmet Suyumbayev |
| 21. Justice | Kodzhanali Shamenov |
| 22. President of the State Planning
Commission | +Viktor Fedorovich Pavlenko |
| 23. President of the Committee for
State Security | +Alexandr Vladimirovich Tereshchenko |

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The Council of Ministers of Turkmenistan

1. Chairman Balesh Ovezov
2. Deputy +Georgiy Alexseyevich Khorev
3. " +Leon Grigoriyevich Sevyants
4. " and Foreign Minister Berdy Charyyev
5. " +Konstantin Aleksandrovich Tverdokhlebov

Ministries:

1. Internal Affairs Sadyk Berdyyev
2. Motor Transport and Roads Annadury Gokov
3. Water Economy +Petr Antonovich Berezhev
4. Consumer Goods Industry Babagary Bayramov
5. Food Industry Kurban Redzhebov
6. Meat and Milk Industry Kurban Permanov
7. Agriculture Kara Aliyev
8. Finance +Konstantin Ivanovich Nikitin
9. Commerce Ovez Orazov
10. Justice Ata Aymamedov
11. State Control Dzhumamirad Kurbanov
12. Health Durdy Nepezov
13. Culture Kilich Kuliyeu
14. Local and Fuel Industry +Aleksy Vladimirovich Devyatkin
15. Education Aman Kurbanov
16. Municipal Economy Maktym Charyyev
17. Social Welfare Asya Atanepesova
18. Town and Country Construction +Konstantin Vasil'yevich Tokmachev
19. Communications (Post, Telegraph) +Aleksandr Ivanovich Gus'yev
20. President of the State Planning Commission +Andronik Avanesovich Saakyan
21. President of the Committee for State Security +Vasiliy Timofeyevich Vaskin

The Council of Ministers of Tadzhikistan

1. Chairman and Foreign Minister Tursunbay Ul'dzhabayev
2. Deputy Chairman +Aleksandr Vasil'yevich Mazayev
3. Deputy Dzhurabek Iskandarov
4. " Mirza Rakhmatov

Ministries:

1. Internal Affairs	Bobo Makhkamov
2. Motor Transport and Roads	+Viktor Antonovich Sayko
3. Water Economy	+Aleksandr Arkhipovich Pavlyuchenko
4. Town and Country Construction	Khamra Tairova
5. State Control	Polat Abdullayev
6. Health	Karim Akhmedov
7. Municipal Economy	Nigmat Ashurov
8. Culture	Kasim Khakimzade
9. Local and Fuel Industry	+Ivan Andreyevich Kuznetsov`
10. Meat and Milk Industry	Bobo Dzhabirov
11. Education	Tair Polatov
12. Food Industry	Munavara Kasymova
13. Communications (Post, Telegraph)	+Aleksandr Kharitonovich Khomenko
14. Agriculture	Tair Abdullayev
15. Social Welfare	Mar'yam Bazarbayeva
16. Commerce	Khudayberdy Sharipov
17. Finance	Alikul' Aliyev
18. Justice	Khabibulla Nazarov
19. Consumer Goods Industry	Dadadzhan Kholmatov
20. President of the State Planning Commission	Mulladzhan Sadulayev
21. President of the Committee for State Security	+Dmitriy Dorofeyevich Kochetov

Note: In the original article the names are given in their basic Muslim or Central Asian forms followed by the Russian form, both transliterated according to a German system, e.g. Nuriddin Muhiddin (Muchiddinow). In the interests of consistency, however, they are here given in the form normally found in Soviet publications. The names marked + are of non-Muslims.

From the foregoing composition of the "governments", it is apparent that the Russian or Slav elements have penetrated strongly into the so-called national and independent Soviet Republics of Turkestan. For instance, of the 25 deputy chairmen in the Councils of Ministers, 12 are Russians or nationals of other Slav peoples, as are 34 of the 108 ministers. The leadership of the Security Service (formerly MGB, now "Committee for State Security"), and the Ministry of Communications (Post, Telegraph, Wireless) still remain, as in the old days, completely in the hands of the Russians. Whilst in the Soviet Republics of Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tadzhikistan and Kirgizia "Ministers of Foreign Affairs"

have been appointed - probably to emphasize to the Islamic countries (Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, East-Turkestan etc.), the independence of these Soviet republics - this was not at first done in Kazakhstan. Not until 13th September 1955 was T. Tadzhibayev, formerly Minister of Culture, nominated as Foreign Minister of Kazakhstan (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 22.1.56). The "Defence Ministry" provided for in the constitution of the Soviet republics of Uzbekistan (para.53), Kazakhstan (para.52), Kirgizia (para.52), Turkmenistan (para.49) and Tadzhikistan (para.51) has not been filled. The functions of this ministry are being looked after by Turkestan military circles. All ministries, except water supply, education, communal administration, local and fuel industries and social welfare, count as offices of the Union ministries, while the five ministries mentioned above are directly responsible to the Council of Ministers of the appropriate Soviet Republic.

Since the formation of the "governments" the personnel of the State organs has, from the beginning of 1955 until the present, shown many changes. For example, Mukhitdinov, chairman of the Uzbek Council of Ministers, has become First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Uzbek KP. S. Kamalov has been appointed in his place (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 25.1.56). In the same way, M.D. Vlasenko, Minister of State Farms in Kazakhstan, was dismissed on 27th June 1955 and his office given to Mikhail Georgiyevich Roginets. Amir Kanapin was made Minister of Culture (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 22.1.56).

Owing to political considerations in the East the significance of Turkestan has become more strongly emphasized since Stalin's death. This was particularly clear during the visits of Prime Minister Nehru of India to Ashkhabad and Tashkent on 14th June 1955, to Samarkand on 15th June 1955 and to Alma-Ata on 16th June 1955, and of U Nu, Prime Minister of Burma, to Tashkent on 20th October 1955. Turkestan is the show-room for the non-communist Eastern peoples. Representatives of numerous Eastern peoples are currently being invited to Turkestan by the Soviet Union, so that they can convince themselves of the "gigantic advances" made there. During the years 1953-55 altogether about 850 delegations came to Turkestan (QIZIL OZBEKISTAN, 11.11.55). By this propaganda the Soviet leaders have won for themselves numerous supporters in Asia.

On the economic-political side, Turkestan has experienced three major Soviet acts since Stalin's death:

1. the New Lands campaign since January 1954;
2. intensified colonization measures by the clearing of desert and fallow lands and the building of the Kara-Kum canal; and
3. the construction of the Lanchow- (China), Urumchi- (East Turkestan) Alma-Ata (West Turkestan), railway.

The changes in regard to party politics are not as sweeping as those in the State administration. Of the Party officials brought in for senior appointments since the XIXth Party Congress (1952), Isa Razzakov First Secretary of the Kirgiz KP, Babadshan Gafurov First Secretary of the Tadzhik KP, Suchan Babayev First Secretary of the Turkmen KP, are still in office. On the other hand, as announced by Moscow Radio, Amin Niyazov, First Secretary of the Uzbek KP, was dismissed on 27th December 1955.

Note: According to an announcement made on 3rd June 1956, the transfer to the republican capitals of the functions of a number of ministries is now under active consideration. /Ed. CAR/

Television in Krasnovodsk

By means of special equipment television broadcasts from Baku have been received in Krasnovodsk. It is hoped that regular reception will be ensured before 1960. TI. 27th May 1956

Publication of radio programmes

Details of broadcasts by the republican wireless station are now being published in TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA. Most of the programmes appear to be in the Russian language. TI. 20th June 1956

First "cinemascope" screens in Central Asia

Ashkhabad and Tashkent are to have the first two wide-screen cinemas in Central Asia; six special projectors have already been despatched from the KINODETAL' works in Kiev. The cinemas will have stereophonic sound. TI. 2nd June 1956

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T H E W O R K O F T H E C E N T R A L A S I A N M T S

The general constitution and method of operation of MTS are the same throughout the Soviet Union. Kolkhozes, unlike sovkhoses, do not possess their own agricultural machinery; it is owned and operated for them by the machine-tractor station. (There seems to be an exception in the case of horse-drawn implements which the kolkhoz peasants operate themselves, though whether they own the implements is doubtful.) But the functions of the MTS do not finish here: they were founded in the years of collectivization, and were intended as an instrument of collectivization. When the individual holdings were united to form an area which could economically be cultivated by modern methods, the MTS received the opportunity to supervise the application of these methods, not only in matters directly concerning the use of machines, but in more general ways. Thus, in the MTS of today there are not only mechanical specialists to ensure the right handling and proper upkeep of the machines, but specialists in various branches of agriculture - animal husbandry, crop specialists, irrigation and drainage experts. The kolkhoz will usually possess a general agronomist, but in case of difficulty he is now required to consult the specialists attached to the MTS.

The work of MTS in Central Asia differs from the work of MTS elsewhere because the agriculture of the area has its peculiarities. To demonstrate this, examples in the present article have been taken from the Andizhan oblast of Uzbekistan and the Kustanay oblast of Kazakhstan; the one is distinguished by the intensity of its cotton cultivation, and the other by virtue of the New Lands campaign in progress there. The newspapers supplying the examples are respectively PRAVDA VOSTOKA and KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA.

The Andizhan oblast is the smallest in the Uzbek SSR, being only 3,800 square kilometres in extent. It occupies the most easterly part of the Fergana valley and is watered by the Kara-Dar'ya and the southern branch of the Great Fergana Canal. To the north, east and south it is bounded by the Tien Shan, and to the west by the desert that lies in the middle of the Fergana valley and is being gradually brought under irrigation. There are 383,000 hectares of arable land, sixty per cent of which is under cotton and lucerne, and 5,000 hectares under rice. The agriculture of the oblast is typical of the Central Asian oasis-type of cultivation; the oblast

is untypical only in the density of its population, which is on average (according to the census of 1939) 176.4 persons per square kilometre. Most of the land is in the possession of kolkhozes; there are two cotton-growing sovkhoses. There are thirty machine-tractor stations, Uzbekistan as a whole having 250.

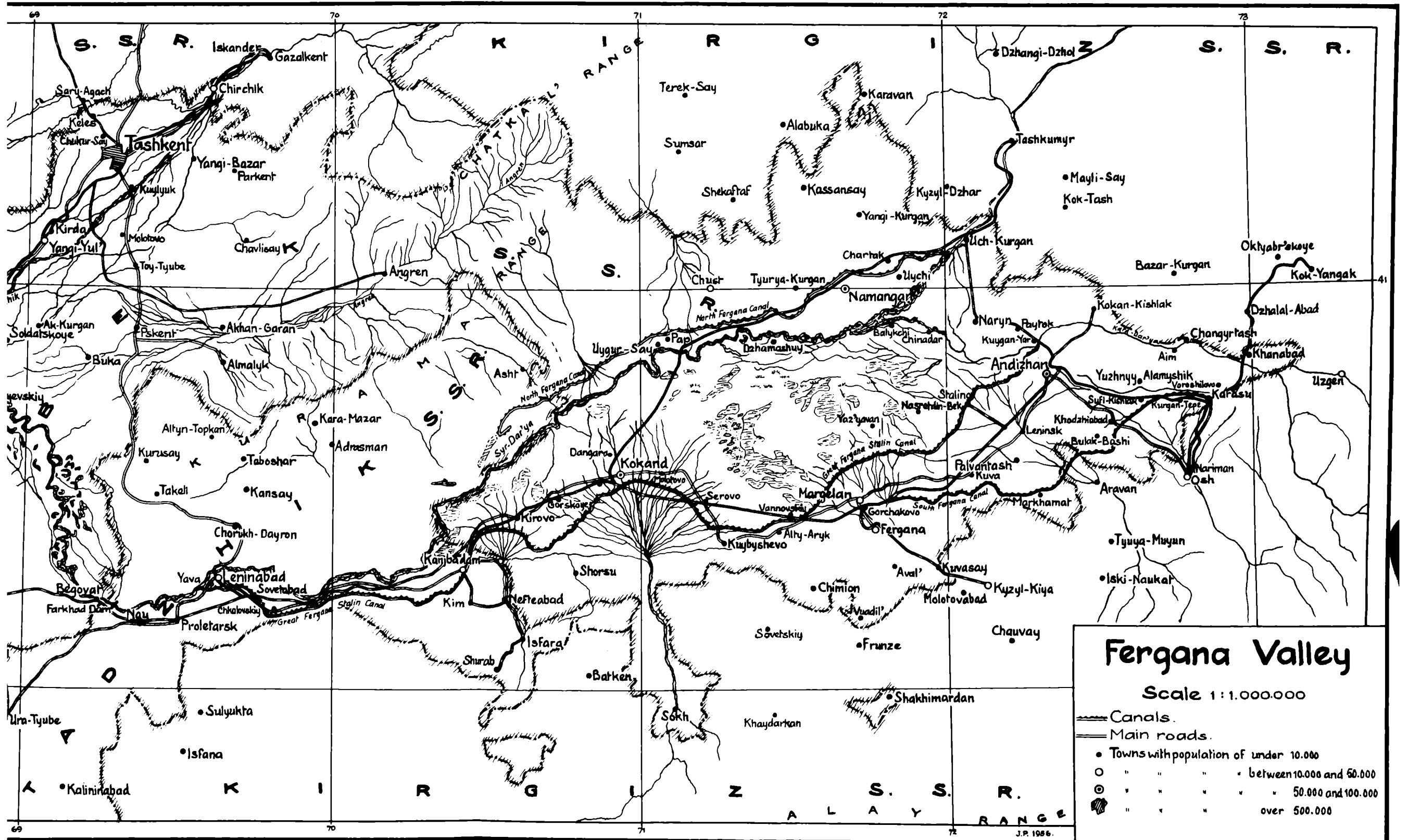
The MTS are to a large extent responsible for the harvest gathered by the kolkhozes under their control. The director of the MTS should spend most of his time in the kolkhozes of his area, not merely to see that his men are doing their work, but to ensure that this work is in accordance with the latest principles laid down by the Ministry of Agriculture. For this purpose he is regarded as the superior of the kolkhoz president; similarly the chief agronomist of the MTS is the superior of the kolkhoz agronomist. The Ministry holds them responsible if the harvest of the area is bad. The MTS has not so great a financial interest in achieving a good harvest as have the kolkhozes. If the harvest is bad, the income of the kolkhoz is low; but if the MTS has done the amount of work specified by the contract drawn up with a kolkhoz, the kolkhoz must pay for this work. Thus the work tends to be assessed by the MTS by quantity, and not by quality. An editorial article in PRAVDA VOSTOKA (5th July 1955) pointed to this fault in the work of the two MTS of the Stalino rayon: "There are MTS directors still living in the old way and considering that they are contractors and not organizers of kolkhoz production. Such directors go for the amount of work done by their tractors in hectares, but not for the quality of the work or the harvest. This explains why the harvest is low in some kolkhozes in the Stalino rayon (Andizhan oblast). In the Kalinin kolkhoz the periods of cultivation are not kept to after irrigation. In the Molotov kolkhoz they water one field time after time without cultivating it, while another field they cultivate time after time without any necessity. It is possible that 'on average' the cultivation plan is fulfilled here, but what use is it for the harvest?"

The solution to the problem of ensuring quality in work done by the MTS is obviously that standards should be specified in the contracts made with the kolkhozes, which have the force of law. Here another problem arises; the kolkhozes themselves, in their position of consumers, are the natural judges of the quality of the work supplied to them by the MTS. But that they should be able so to judge would be against the tendency of the present policy, which is towards the subordination of the kolkhoz to the MTS. The Ministry of Agriculture therefore issues directives to the MTS specifying the number of hectares to be cultivated, the methods to be used and the time to be taken over each operation. These are again specified in the contracts with the kolkhozes, and a view often expressed is that the honourable discharging of these contracts will ensure a good harvest and raise the kolkhoz standard of living. Thus, an article (PV 26th April 1955)

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adduces the example of the Buvayda MTS (Fergana oblast) where the harvest per hectare of cotton rose from 1,990 kg. in 1953 to 3,000 kg. in 1954, and the average money pay per work-day (the unit of labour) from 1.75 to 7.50 rubles. This was because not only the quantity of work, but also the quality, and in particular the time taken, was in accordance with the prescribed standards. The Voroshilov MTS (Andizhan oblast), on the other hand, achieved 41 per cent more than the prescribed quota of field work and took 36-38 days to sow the cotton in its kolkhozes and from 22 to 37 days to carry out the first cultivation. The whole area was ploughed up three times - in one kolkhoz 4.2 times - and cultivated eight times instead of the prescribed five. But the kolkhozes did not fulfil their plan.

The Ministry published its regulations for the conduct of the 1956 season on 12th January. These regulations apply to the square-cluster method of cultivation, on which great reliance has been placed for ensuring the desired quality of work. They are very detailed. In 1956, 11,000 hectares in the Andizhan oblast are to be sown in square-clusters of 45 cm., 73,000 in squares of 50 cm., 23,000 in rectangles of 60 x 45 cm., and 10,000 in squares of 60 cm., making 117,000 hectares in all. These regulations therefore apply to half the cultivable land in the oblast. Of this land 38,000 hectares is to be sown with the aid of measuring wires in conjunction with the new type of seed-drills recently issued to some MTS. By the 17th January the Ministry and the oblast agricultural authority must inform each MTS of the amount to be sown in this way, and by the 22nd January the directors of MTS must inform each brigade of its task. The MTS may increase the amount at their discretion. The kolkhozes must also decide in that period which fields are to be sown and by what method, and a scheme of work has to be drawn up to co-ordinate the work of the kolkhoz brigades with those of the MTS. The MTS directors in collaboration with the kolkhoz authorities must choose seven persons to work as a team on each seed-drill; the best tractor-drivers are to be employed; the man in charge of the measuring-wire must have received at least seven-year education. From the 13th to the 18th January the sector mechanics in charge of the work are to undergo a course at the oblast centre given by specialists who have been on a course during the first part of January in Tashkent. From the 19th January all MTS directors, chief agronomists and chief engineers must undergo a course at the oblast centre; they in turn must give a course of lectures to kolkhoz chairmen and agronomists before the 1st February; and a course lasting one week to their own brigade leaders before the 10th February. The kolkhoz agronomists must give lectures to kolkhoz brigade leaders before the 15th February. The sector mechanics must give two-week courses of lectures to all MTS workers engaged in the sowing under the control of the MTS directors before the 15th March. At the end of this period all these workers must pass a test.



Specialy drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre. - 1956. - J.P.

The preparation of machinery is similarly controlled. Any redistribution of machinery between the MTS and within each MTS must be done by the 25th January, so that each brigade may know what machinery is at its disposal.

The introduction of new techniques has given the Ministry and the MTS an opportunity to tighten their hold on the kolkhozes. There has, so far, been little information about the success of the new regulations, but an article devoted to the oblast on the 3rd April 1956 seems to show that the elaborate programme has not proved practicable. The Stalino I MTS trained one team for every two units in the Kirov kolkhoz - that is, half as many as were required; only 152 of the 240 men trained at the Markhamat I MTS passed the test, and in one kolkhoz in the area the training lasted three days instead of fifteen. In not all the kolkhozes of the area have the fields and patterns to be planted according to the new techniques been determined, and these will have to be decided by rule of thumb on the spot. For this lack of organization the MTS officials are held responsible. Former reports had suggested that the kolkhozes might rather be at fault. Thus, an article on the 12th November 1954 described how the agronomist of the Andizhan I MTS, and on his instructions the kolkhoz agronomists, remonstrated with the kolkhoz chairman who would not allow end-of-season ploughing or preliminary harvesting of cotton straw to begin. The agronomist's concern was for the fulfilling of the MTS plan of tractor work, which not only specified the amount to be done, but the date by which it was to be done. The kolkhoz chairman was anxious that undue haste should not prevent the harvesting of unopened cotton pods and bolls lying on the ground in already harvested fields. The kolkhoz had already fulfilled its plan of deliveries to the State, and any extra cotton gathered would be bought at greatly increased prices. He was naturally anxious that this should be done rather than that the tractors should be freed for other work by the planned date.

The interest of the MTS in freeing their machinery at the correct time is provoked by the necessity of maintaining a constant rate of repairs and overhauling. Although attempts are in progress to organize repair work on an all-year-round rota, in most MTS there are three periods when routine overhaul is carried out: before the spring sowing, before the harvest and before the winter sowing. For these periods a plan of work is prescribed and must be strictly adhered to. In fact, it seems that very many MTS are consistently behind-hand. During 1955 this has perhaps been due to the extensive reconstruction of machinery necessitated by the transition to square-cluster and narrow-row planting, and to deeper ploughing. The MTS workshops have in every case been enlarged to the dimensions of a small factory, and in such workshops factory methods, of which the workmen have little experience, are necessary. During the

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spring of 1955 there were many complaints of the work in Andizhan MTS. On the 6th March 700 tractors, 505 ploughs, 428 cotton seed-drills, 2,017 zig-zag harrows and many implements used at later stages in the season were still not ready for work, although, as the 1956 regulations show, the spring sowing begins in March. Reconstruction was similarly delayed. 2,367 tractors and 2,153 seed-drills should have been changed over for narrow-row work; only 1,688 tractors and 1,681 drills had been prepared. It can be seen that the amount of work to be done in the workshops is very great; at the Izbaskent II MTS the plan of repairs alone for the first quarter of 1955 and the last of 1954 was 220 tractors; in fact only 164 were repaired, and the work was very faulty. To this was added the work of reconstruction; for Uzbekistan as a whole the number of tractors to be reconstructed by spring 1955 was 21,000, but from the example of Izbaskent it may be deduced that the average number in the Andizhan oblast, with its more intensive cultivation, was larger than elsewhere.

It is not surprising that the spring operations were delayed, especially, as the MTS workers claimed in their own defence, when the weather was bad. An additional cause of delay may have been the lateness of the previous harvest. This had already in September 1954 provoked a governmental decree (3rd September 1954). In the decree it was stated that by the 20th August only 38 per cent of the oblast's cotton-pickers and 54 per cent of the ginning machines had been made ready; the Izbaskent II MTS was one of the chief offenders, with 437 tractors still in the fields instead of in the workshops being fitted for the harvest. The decree ordered that the final check of equipment should begin on the 5th September and the harvesting on the 20th. The Izbaskent II MTS would seem never to have made good its lost time. Reports of the 1955 cotton harvest suggest that it, too, was prolonged more than necessary, and that the excessively detailed regulations issued in January 1956 for the whole of Uzbekistan were an attempt to prevent a repetition of the experience of 1954 and 1955.

By contrast with Izbaskent II, in an article of 11th January 1956, timed to be read in conjunction with the new Ministry regulations, the Andizhan II was singled out from all MTS in the republic, as an example of how work should be done. The MTS was responsible for the cultivation of over 80,000 hectares in 1955, as against 68,000 in 1953. In 1955 a redistribution of resources was carried out, so that kolkhozes with fewer hands and draught animals obtained more help than kolkhozes which were able to do much of the work without machine traction. As a result of this every kolkhoz in the MTS area had an income in 1955 of over five million rubles; the best kolkhoz, the Stalin kolkhoz, received twenty million rubles. This kolkhoz will in 1956 use the new techniques on 65 per cent

of the land to be planted with cotton. Another Stalin kolkhoz in the same area had an average harvest of 3,280 kg. per hectare over 640 hectares, an increase of 420 kg. on 1954. The income of the kolkhoz was 7,810,000 rubles; the MTS was paid, for the work of two brigades, 842,000 rubles - in 1954 the kolkhoz had to pay 1,150,000 rubles. Thus the new methods, which one would assume require more MTS work, in fact involve less. It is emphasized that none of the operations carried out by the MTS in any kolkhoz lasted for more than ten to twelve days.

The problems faced by MTS in Kazakhstan are quite different. In complete contrast to the Andizhan oblast of Uzbekistan, the Kustanay oblast, which may be taken as typical of the New Lands, covers a vast area (197,000 square km.), is mainly concerned with the production of grain, and is an oblast with an exemplary record. There are 46 MTS, three of them opened in 1955. This may seem a very small number for such an area, but there are 133 sovkhoses, all possessing their own machinery. Nevertheless, the 'zone' under the control of an MTS is likely to be much larger than the zone of an MTS in the Central Asian oases. In recent years the scope of the Kazakh MTS has been considerably enlarged; the amount of work done in 1952 (in hectares of ploughing under normal conditions) was 21m., in 1953, 26m., and in 1954, 42m. The MTS of the republic received 30,000 new skilled workers from European Russia in 1954 and 23,000 new tractors (measured in 15 h.p. units), 60 per cent of them diesel tractors. The amount of work done per tractor in the 1954 season was 570 hectares, 45 more than in 1953. This gives a number of approximately 73,830 tractors (15 h.p. units) in the MTS of the republic.

The influx of new workers has brought with it new methods. A sovkhos worker, writing in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA on 8th January 1955, said that at his former place of work in the Stalingrad oblast the all-year-round method of carrying out repairs had been introduced as early as 1950 and produced considerable economies. This method the re-settled workers were introducing in Kazakhstan. But the emergency situation that arose during the harvests of 1953 and 1954 had caused the postponement of the adoption of the system, under which a tractor would be overhauled as a matter of routine after working 3,500 hectares. The evidence of the press seems to show that, in MTS at least, the old system of seasonable repairs is still almost universally practised, and most of the information given is about the progress of such repairs.

It is evident that the amount of new machinery received, requiring little attention, has diverted the efforts of the repair shops from old machinery. Both the winter and pre-harvest repair directives of the Government point to this and to the practice of taking parts from old

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machinery to mend new. The summer directive (26th May 1955) ordained that an immediate tabulation should be made of all old harvesting machinery by the oblast agricultural authority and that the number to be repaired should be determined by the 10th June. All other machines were to be repaired within five days. In carrying out these repairs the unit method should be used; the MTS workshops should be organized in the way that a factory is organized for mass production. The area sown in 1955 was twice that sown in 1954; but the harvest must be completed in 20 working days. The combine harvesters must cover at least 20 hectares in a day.

The winter repairs directive (3rd November 1955) stated that there were now about 40,000 tractors to repair in the MTS of Kazakhstan as against 34,000 in 1954. The building of new workshops necessitated by this increase was proceeding very badly in many oblasts, the Kustanay oblast among them. The new sovkhoses were to receive 500 tons of machinery and spare parts by special order of the Council of Ministers; the normal channels were to be used to supply MTS and established sovkhoses.

To ensure the carrying-out of the repairs programme the Government seems to rely very greatly on "socialist competition". While in Uzbekistan competition within individual MTS, or sometimes between one MTS and another is known, in Kazakhstan one oblast competes against another, not only during periods of repairs, but in periods of field-work. The Kustanay oblast was chosen to start the campaign in the winter of 1955 with a challenge to the rest of the republic in the shape of an engagement to finish repairs by the 10th February 1956 at the latest and to carry out the spring sowing in from eight to ten days. At the time of the engagement - 11th November 1955 - the Kustanay oblast had already completed 50.5 per cent of the quarterly plan of repairs, while the rest of the republic had completed 35.1 per cent. Examples have been given of what this quarterly plan means in individual MTS: at Mikhaylovka 96 tractors, 70 of them heavy track-laying tractors, 125 seeders and 99 ploughs had to be repaired among other machinery; at the Peshkovskaya MTS there were 52 tractors and 90 seeders to be done. For the oblast as a whole the work of repairs went on very successfully; it is emphasized that this was due to capital reconstruction organized early in the winter season. Those MTS which neglected reconstruction could not cope with the 80-90 tractors that had on average to be repaired.

The work of seasonal repairs does not now proceed unhampered by outside work. On the basis of work done in the winter of 1954-55 a general campaign was ordered in the winter of 1955-56 of ploughing the snow into drifts or furrows. The snow thus melts more slowly, and the water that would otherwise flow away in spring into the gullies that break up the steppe, is held back. The experience of the exceptionally dry summer of 1955 showed the necessity of some such measures. This work was finished in the Kustanay

oblast by the 6th January 1956; one MTS, the Dzharkul', had to plough 50,000 hectares. The work was done in three shifts, that is, throughout the twenty-four hours, in tractors with specially heated cabins.

The mechanization of grain cultivation is inevitably more comprehensive than the mechanization of cotton. For this reason the MTS in Kazakhstan are less dependent on the efforts of the kolkhoz workers, and there is less mention of the function of the MTS in organizing work inside the kolkhozes. There is nothing said of the kolkhozes using their own draught animals for implements. In certain fields, however, the Kazakh MTS do influence the interior arrangements of the kolkhoz, notably in that of animal husbandry. The shearing of sheep is done by machinery operated by the MTS: in 1954, 80 per cent of the sheep-shearing in the zone of the Dzharkul' MTS was done in this way. The growing of grasses and maize for silage and its harvesting cannot be properly organized by the MTS alone; animal husbandry specialists organized courses for milkmaids and herdsmen on the preparation of silage and the correct feeding of their stock. In this way the MTS can co-ordinate the kolkhozes' efforts to increase the number of their livestock; this increase is being demanded, especially on the New Lands farms where grain was at first the main requirement.

Nevertheless, it seems that the MTS in Kazakhstan can itself do far more of the work of cultivation and harvesting than the MTS in Uzbekistan where the main crop is cotton. For this reason, it seems, it has been decided that the establishment of sovkhoses is "more expedient" than the creation of kolkhozes; here mechanization in farming can account for the whole process. Where manual labour is only ancillary to the main process, an establishment possessing its own machinery can farm the land without having to account for the human factor. In Uzbekistan not only the density of the population, but the complication of the processes in cotton-growing, require the establishment of kolkhozes, where the workers have what is known as a "material interest" in the harvest. For this reason the work of the MTS there is less straightforward and subject to greater setbacks.

A G R I C U L T U R E

F O R E S T R Y A N D A F F O R E S T A T I O N

I. Walnut and pistachio forests and woodlands - II. Wild fruit-trees - III. Timber forests - IV. Afforestation.

The forest area of Kazakhstan and the Altay is about 1,900,000 hectares and consists mainly of archa (juniper) and other timber-yielding trees. The total area in the Central Asian republics is not so large and is much more varied, walnut and wild fruit trees predominating. In 1947 a Ministry of Forestry of the USSR was created to administer all forest and woodland in the Union; it has now been merged with the Ministry of Agriculture and Procurement which combines the Ministries of Agriculture, Cotton growing, Agricultural Procurement and Forestry. In the individual republics, the Ministry of Agriculture and Procurement is responsible for the forestry and afforestation services. Each republican ministry controls a network of state tree farms, or leskhozs, research institutes and afforestation organizations.

I. Walnut and Pistachio Forests and Woodlands

Walnut trees are found in all the mountain areas of Central Asia, with the exception of the northern ranges. These forests are unique in the world both for their vastness and for the concentration of walnut trees. In Kirgizia alone the area of walnut forests is estimated at 35,000 hectares, in Tadzhikistan 25,000 hectares and in Kazakhstan 6,000 hectares. There are altogether about 70,000 hectares of walnut forest in Central Asia.⁽¹⁾ In addition groves of walnut trees are found in the western Kopet-Dag mountains in Turkmenistan where special sovkhoses have been set up to cultivate them. Yields from the trees vary between three and five tons of walnuts per hectare.

The pistachio, or green almond (Pistacia vera), grows in the dry foothills of Central Asia. Over 250,000 hectares of pistachio trees are known to exist in these regions; about 125,000 centners of pistachio nuts (in shells) are harvested every year.

Kirgizia

In Kirgizia the walnut forests are situated in the Dzhahalal-Abad and Osh oblasts, on the western and south-western slopes of the Fergana and Chatkal ranges which are outspurs of the central Tien Shan mountain system.

Since 1945 the forests have belonged to the South-Kirgiz reserve. (2) Late in 1955 a conference was convened at Dzhahalal-Abad to study the state of the reserve, which was considered far from satisfactory. The conference was convened by the Academy of Sciences of Kirgizia, the Kirgiz Ministry of Agriculture, and the Kirgiz Scientific Research Agricultural and Forestry Society; several representatives from comparable bodies in other republics also took part. In a report read at the conference I.N. Chebotarev, Deputy Minister of Agriculture of Kirgizia, said that between 1951 and 1954, 193,500 walnut seedlings were planted - only fifty per cent of the planned quota - and many wild walnut trees had been grafted with better cultivated varieties. Another report, on the methods of restoration and extension of the walnut woods, was read by the chief of the South-Kirgiz Office of Walnut Forests, S.T. Pazechnik. As the measures taken towards conservation have not justified original hopes, there is some anxiety for the future of the forests. Seed planting is to become the main method of restoration (five to six walnuts, or three seedlings, are planted in a square with a square of apple or alycha (a species of damson-plum) trees interspersed at intervals). The conference decided to request the Council of Ministers of Kirgizia to prohibit cattle-grazing (seven kolkhozes and various hamlets and farms are situated amongst the walnut woods) and grass-cutting in the reserve, as this can damage the trees.

Between 1948 and 1953, 1,042 hectares have been planted with walnut trees in Kirgizia. (3) The Council of Ministers of Kirgizia has approved the 1956-60 plan for planting 20,000 hectares with walnut seedlings, and in 1960 a harvest of 2,500 tons of walnuts should be obtained. (4) Walnut nurseries for seed selection are to be organized and a campaign instigated against forest pests. In addition, pistachio groves are to be laid on the lower slopes of the walnut belt. Finally, to step up the productivity of the walnut forests a special forestry institute and research station has been set up within the framework of the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences.

Tadzhikistan

Only four per cent of the territory of Tadzhikistan is forest or woodland, but this amounts to 1,422,000 hectares of woodland, including 929,000 hectares of forest. Ninety-five per cent of this area represents

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mountain forests belonging to the state, the rest being tugay (a kind of desert jungle) and steppe scrub.(5) The mountain forests consist of four groups: archa, maple, pistachio and walnut.

Tadzhikistan comes second only to Kirgizia in the production of walnuts in the Soviet Union. Over a quarter of the total forest area consists of walnut or pistachio. The annual walnut harvest is between 500 and 1,000 tons.

The pistachio-tree, occupying about 200,000 hectares, grows at an altitude of between 800 and 1,800 metres. Tadzhikistan, with an annual production of 1,000 to 1,500 tons of pistachio nuts, is the main producer in the USSR. In the Kzyl-Kala leskhoz with its 528 hectare pistachio plantation, the groves are being conserved and extended; 2,500 trees per hectare are now being planted, instead of the 100 or 150 growing in the natural groves.

There are complaints that forests are inadequately protected; in the valuable walnut woods the size of an inspection area exceeds 15,000 hectares, and that of a "mounted inspection area" is from 39,000-40,000 hectares.(6) But owing to natural conditions and historical circumstances, the mountain forests of Tadzhikistan have been much better conserved than those of Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan and southern Kazakhstan.

II. Wild Fruit-trees

The alycha-tree (damson-plum) appears to be the most common of the wild fruit-trees which grow in the mountain regions of Central Asia; in the main it still grows naturally among the walnut and pistachio woods, though cultivated strains are now being planted both in their native haunts and in separate orchards. There are also large numbers of apple-trees, of which there are ten different varieties; the west Tien Shan variety is considered the best. The wild alycha and apple grow on the mountain slopes up to a height of 2,400 metres in Tadzhikistan where fruit-growing plays an important part in the agricultural economy. Pear, plum, peach, apricot, oleaster, almond and mulberry also grow wild in these areas (there are forty-five hectares of almond woods in the west Tien Shan and Turkmenistan), but considerable efforts are now being made to improve strains and increase yields through experimental nurseries and cultivation. Wild apple-trees are now being used for selection work and grafting, especially the west Tien Shan variety, the selected cultivated strains being grafted to the wild seedling. The Tadzhik Academy of Sciences has carried out a successful series of experiments by planting out fruit and nut trees in selected mountain areas. Mountain woods of wild fruit-trees are thus being turned

into "wood-orchards" by the grafting of cultivated strains onto similar wild species, i.e. plum onto alycha, sweet almond onto the Bukhara small-fruit almond and so on.

III. Timber Forests

The timber forests of Central Asia and Kazakhstan are found mainly in Tadzhikistan, north-western Kazakhstan and the Altay.

These forests consist chiefly of various species of archa (juniperus semiglobosa rg.) of which there are 942,000 hectares in the republics. There are also pinewoods in the foothills of central Kazakhstan, and ash, maple, poplar and birch are scattered among the archa forests and the walnut and pistachio woods in the mountains of Tadzhikistan.

Nearly half of the mountain regions of Tadzhikistan are covered with archa forest. The best species grow at 1,800 metres and higher, and in the Peter the First range the tree is encountered up to a height of 3,600 metres. The extent of the archa forest is limited by the Dzungarian Ala-Tau, an outspur of the Tien Shan mountains, in the east, and the Bol'shoy Balkhan range in the west. There are twelve different species; in central and west Tien Shan the Siberian, Turkestan-Kazakh, Altay, Zeravshan and Talass archa; in the Pamirs, Altay, Turkestan, Zeravshan and other varieties; but in the Kopet-Dag and Bol'shoy Balkhan only the Turkestan archa grows. In addition to the archa tree there are 367,000 hectares of creeping archa.(7) Few junipers produce timber of lumber size, but the archa has many industrial uses, among them the manufacture of plywood and pencils. It is also important to Central Asia for water conservation and as shelter-belts for agricultural land.

The experimental growing of archa seedlings was a failure for some time; the seedlings perished in great numbers during the summer. Recently, however, it has been found that by sowing the archa seed in nurseries and planting out well matured seedlings of from three to five years in the spring in woodland and in shadow, they strike root.

Apart from the archa, there are few timber forests. The maple (acer turkestanicum pax) occupies about five per cent of the woodland of Tadzhikistan and, as mentioned above, grows mainly among other trees though there are also maple woods. Birch occupies one per cent of the mountain woodland, and poplar and willow about three per cent of the forest area of Tadzhikistan. The pine-woods in the basins of large lakes in northern Kazakhstan, such as Shchuch'ye and Shaglytengiz, are important for water conservation and as shelter-belts against the high winds and shifting sands,

whereas the value of the pine-woods in the foothills of central Kazakhstan, and in the Akmolinsk and parts of the Karaganda oblasts, is mainly industrial.

IV. Afforestation

F.K. Kochberga in an article entitled "Vklad Uchenykh Sredney Azii" (Contribution of Central Asian scientists) published in LESNOYE KHOZYAYSTVO (1954, No.2) wrote: "The Central Asian Forestry Scientific Research Institute is evolving schemes for the restoration and conservation of the forests of Central Asia and southern Kazakhstan. This institute is also responsible for the elaboration of new afforestation plans." Their task consists in improving the condition and composition of forests, the development of water administration, and struggle against soil erosion, the afforestation of sandy regions and the creation of protective tree belts in irrigated areas. A network of subsidiary organizations, such as seedling nurseries, leskhozes, kolkhozes and sovkhoses assist the Institute in selection, hybridization, forest development and cultivation. The problem of creating woods on sovkhos land unsuitable for agriculture, and forests suited to industrial purposes, is now being studied by the Institute. The Institute has four stations: the Chatkal mountain development station, the Kara-Kum joint research station, the Nebit-Dag agro-forest development station and the Kokand (irrigational forestry) station. There are also six smaller experimental centres: Bukhara (sand), Kunya-Urgench (mixed), Milyutino (afforestation), Golodnaya Step' (field protection afforestation in irrigated lands), Kul-Say (archa planting) and Andizhan (planting of high-value varieties). Forty-four leskhozes, one forest nursery, four kolkhozes, one sovkhos and two seed-control stations are engaged in experimental studies of various forestry problems.

In Uzbekistan alone, about 254,000 hectares of sand were consolidated and planted with trees in 1954. In his book PRIRODNYE RASTITEL'NYE BOGATSTVA SSSR I IKH NARODNOKHOZYAYSTVENNOYE ZNACHENIYE (Moscow, 1955, p.11) M.V. Kul'tyasov said: "The main concentrations of sandy deserts are situated in Turkmenistan. These include the 300,000 square kilometre Kara-Kum, and the Kyzyl-Kum lying between the Amu-Dar'ya and the Syr-Dar'ya rivers. A number of small trees (particularly saksaul) and shrubs are being planted to bind the desert sands; these include saksaul, sand acacia, dzhusgun and many shrubs." A simple, cheap and highly productive method of afforestation in sandy desert areas is to sow saksaul from the air: one aeroplane can replace a hundred people and many camels. Some 15,000 hectares of desert were sown by this method between 1951 and 1954, and eighty-five to ninety per cent of the saksaul struck root. The well-known "Bukhara barrage" is a desert area a hundred kilometres long and two

kilometres wide, planted with saksaul plantations which efficiently protect the Bukhara oases against shifting sands; this was created with the active cooperation of the Institute members.

The hilly, sandy deserts in parts of Kazakhstan where subterranean supplies of soft water lie near the surface, lend themselves well to afforestation. In one of these areas, the Uil sands of Barkyn - extending for about 17,000 hectares in the western part of the Aktyubinsk oblast - the planting of pine-trees on an experimental basis has been going on for fifty years with good results. Ash and elm-trees are now also to be planted in this area.(8) In the Urkach sands, west of the Mugodzhazhar mountains in the watershed of the Temir, Emba and Ori rivers, birch, aspen, ash, elm and acacias have been planted, but only about three per cent of the earlier plantations have survived. Now Hurtingdon willow, black aspen, poplar and birch are to be tried. The area lies within the boundaries of the Dzhurun steppe leskhoz.

The leskhoz and the scientific research institute of Tadzhikistan have acquired considerable experience in the cultivation of mountain woods and in the afforestation of the flood-lands of the Pyandzh, Vakhsh and Kafirnigan rivers. The Mikoyanabad leskhoz has planted 250 hectares in the water meadows of the Kafirnigan river, and in the Yangi-Yul' and Kzyl-Kum ravines with various kinds of trees, including poplar, ash, mulberry, walnut and alycha. The Shakhrinaus leskhoz is planting white acacia, poplar, mulberry, walnut, wild apricot, oak and other species on the slopes of the Gissar range at an altitude of 1,500 to 1,800 metres. Poplar and white acacia trees reach six to seven metres in height and six to ten centimetres in diameter at five years old in this region. The purpose of these measures is largely to make Central Asia and Kazakhstan more self-sufficient in timber; at present large quantities have to be imported from other parts of the Soviet Union.

The Turkmen sixth Five-Year Plan, as reported in TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 7th March 1956, provides for the planting of 80,000 hectares of forest to add to the republic's timber reserves, most of them in the Kara-Kum desert. Planting, however, has already started near Kum-Dag, Dzhebel, in the Murgab oasis and at Kushka on the Afghan border. The 1956 plan envisages the planting of 14,100 hectares. Apart from the foregoing, and the organization of forestry stations at Nebit-Dag and Kunya-Urgench referred to above, there has since 1953 been no mention in Soviet publications of the ambitious afforestation schemes projected for the area of the main Turkmen canal (see CAR, Vol.I, No.1, p.14). In the area to be watered by the Kara-Kum canal the republic already has its largest resources of saksaul. These resources, however, are being neglected, wood is left to rot, is sometimes plundered, or unsystematically felled and re-

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moved by unauthorized persons. TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 26th May 1956 reporting this, adds that the new Plan should include the systematic felling and reafforestation of saksaul under the control of the Chief Forestry Authority of the Ministry of Agriculture.

The afforestation of cultivated regions as a protection against soil erosion, the high, dry winds, and to help irrigation is also fairly extensively practised now. Over 2,500 hectares in the Fergana oblast (around Kokand) have been planted with field shelter-belts of trees. Oak, plane, elm, walnut, apricot and other fruit trees, are largely used for this purpose. Cotton plants are sometimes planted between rows of trees in the cotton areas as another means of improving conditions. There are to be state afforestation zones for protective purposes: the first of these zones, a thick belt of woodland, stretches for 1,080 km. Starting from the Vishnevaya mountain it follows the Ural river past Chkalov and Ural'sk, and along the river banks to the Caspian sea. There are three tree-bands on each river bank, each band is sixty metres wide and trees are planted at 100-120 metre intervals. Most of this belt lies in Kazakhstan, and the aim is to protect the land from the dry winds blowing from Central Asia.(9) Since the end of the Second World War afforestation has been greatly expanded in northern Kazakhstan, and tree planting machinery is now in use at the leskhozes to speed up the work.

The introduction of new kinds of trees also plays a part in the afforestation of Central Asia. The eucomia tree, which yields valuable gutta-percha, is now growing in several republics (see CAR, Vol.IV, No.1, p.82). The most favourable results have been obtained at the Jzbaskent state nurseries (Andizhan oblast).

The Central Asian Forestry Scientific Research Institute has considerable achievements to its credit: the improvement of the pistachio groves and seed selection in particular. The Institute has also managed to introduce into Central Asia such trees as the oak, the Eastern plane, the Crimean and Eldar pines as well as the eucomia mentioned above, and a number of others.

Notes

- (1) Prirodnnye Rastitel'nyye Bogatstva SSSR i ikh Narodnokhozyaystvennoye Znachenije. M.V. Kul'tyasov, Moscow, 1955, p.23.
- (2) Lesnoye Khozyaystvo, 1956, No.1, p.30.

- (3) Idem, 1954, No.8.
 - (4) Idem, 1956, No.1, p.31.
 - (5) Idem, 1954, No.10, p.20.
 - (6) Idem, 1954, No.10. Kh.Z. Gubaydullin, p.22.
 - (7) Idem, 1954, No.2, p.47.
 - (8) Obleseniye Bugristykh Peskov Zasushlivykh Oblastey. A.G. Gayel.
Moscow, 1952, p.140.
 - (9) Kazakhstanskaya SSR. S.A. Kutafiyev. Moscow, 1953, p.67.
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The Karachay in Kirgizia

The first indication of the whereabouts of the Karachay since their deportation from the Caucasus, is given by the Kirgiz State Publishing House which has begun to publish works by Karachay-Balkar authors in the original. The first books published are an anthology of poetry and a book of verse by Kerim Otarov. SK. 19th May 1956

New medical newspaper

A new newspaper, SOVETSKIY VRACH (Soviet Doctor) is being published by the Kirgiz State Medical Institute. SK. 15th June 1956

PUBLIC WORKS

THE VAKHSH VALLEY PROJECT

Origin of the project - Climate - First stage of the project 1930-1934 - Second stage 1954-1957 - Sixth Five-Year Plan developments.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the population in the area now covered by the Vakhsh Valley Project (Vakhshstroy) was sparse: Uzbeks, Tadzhiks, Turkmens, Kirgiz, Arabs and gypsies grazed small herds of cattle and grew rice and grain crops on land fed by the remains of a mediaeval irrigation system. Some cotton was grown, but very little. The impulse behind the project to turn this semi-desert into a cotton-growing area, is said to have come from three peasants from the Saray-Kamar vilayet who wrote to the Central Asian Textile Workers' Trade Union to ask for Egyptian cotton seeds for experimental sowing in 1927. The project of cotton-growing in the Union as a whole was undoubtedly mooted at this time and caused some comment in the London press. However, the Vakhsh project was first announced as part of the First Five-Year Plan by the Central Committee of the Tadzhik Communist Party in 1930. Soviet publicists lay great stress on the audacity of the scheme; but, as they admit, some cotton had been grown in the area for many years, and in the three years preceding the opening of Vakhshstroy experimental sowings had been carried out in Saray-Kamar (now Kirovabad) and in the Leninabad oblast. In 1929 a cotton-ginning mill was opened in Kurgan-Tyube and in 1930 a permanent testing station was opened in Dzhilikul'.

The irrigation system already existing was in very poor shape; the canals were tortuous and were without out-falls, and there was no embankment at the place where water was drawn from the Vakhsh itself. The population had deserted their kishlaks during the period of the Basmachi raids, and in the census of 1926 the population of the Vakhsh valley was only 14,000. The climate of the valley is slightly more continental than that of Egypt, India and Arizona; in spring the temperature rises even more sharply than in these places. The mean July temperature reaches 30° (centigrade), the same as that in Upper Egypt, and the surface soil temperature 75°. In winter there are frosts and falls of snow, but the April temperature is never less than 15°, a factor of great importance in the possibilities of early sowing. Finally, the number of days with sun and the average annual temperatures in the Vakhsh valley

are considerably higher than those in the regions of Egypt where fine-staple cotton is grown.

Building began in 1931. A head works had to be built for the canal one and a half kilometres above the head workings of the old Dzhuybora and Dzhilikul' canals. The first four and a half kilometres of the new canal were to pass through rock and shale, to a depth of twenty metres. The canal was to have a northern branch to feed the reconstructed Dzhuybora, Dzhilikul' and Mardat canals, a fall of forty metres to provide power at the Ak-Goza hydroelectric station, finishing two kilometres to the south in three branches going off to the south, the north- and south-west. A canal 22 km. long was to convey surplus water to the river Vakhsh. The intake of the main canal was to be 150 cubic metres a second; the length of the whole system of canals 13,000 km.; the amount of earth excavated 2m. cubic metres; and the amount of reinforced concrete used 60,000 cubic metres.

The work was done with local labour; Russian workmen were used for skilled or semi-skilled tasks, and American technicians supervised the whole project. Their assistance was formerly acknowledged (as in Yasenskiy's novel *A MAN CHANGES HIS SKIN*, 1936) but is now repudiated, and they are blamed for the many setbacks. The Komsomol played a large part in organizing the work and in inducing the local population to take a hand in the building of a narrow-gauge railway from the landing stage at Nizhniy Pyandzh to the site of operations, and subsequently on to Stalinabad.

A danger threatening the project from the beginning had been the continuing activity of the Basmachis from bases across the frontier with Afghanistan. Under the leadership of Ibrahim-Bek they attacked settlements in the valley in the spring of 1931, and acts of extraordinary brutality are attributed to them. Soviet sources allege that this attack was inspired by British fears of the success of the Vakhsh project and of the possibility of the Soviet Union's gaining "cotton independence". It seems more probable that the Basmachis were encouraged to attack in the hope of support from the native population, at this time being collectivized; two thirds of the cotton-growing area of Tadzhikistan were collectivized by the end of 1931.

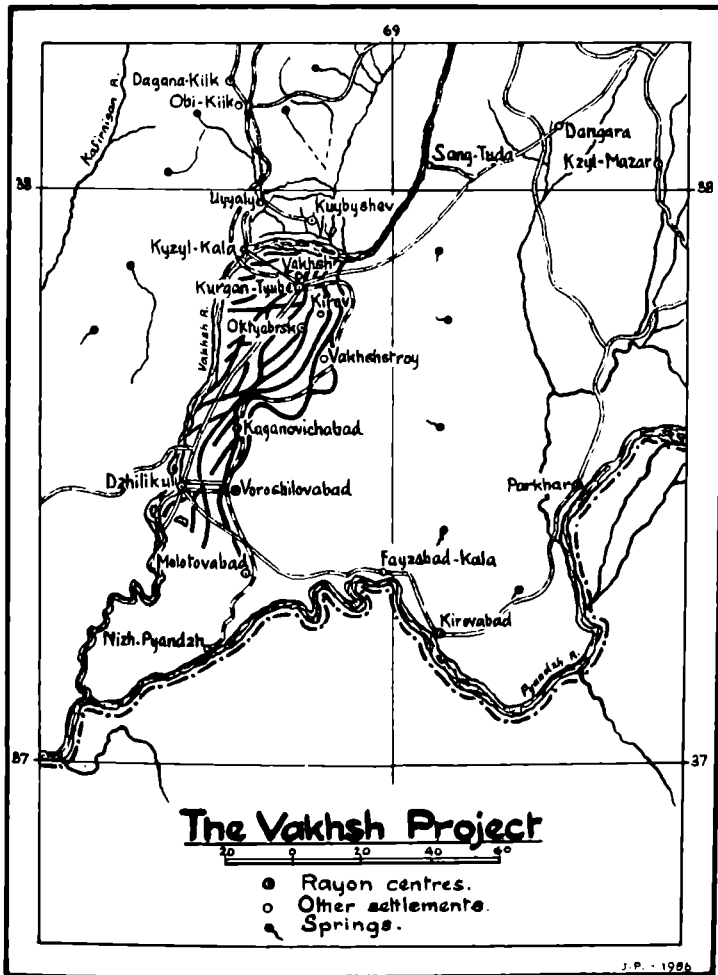
By the beginning of 1932 work was in progress on the whole length of the main canal, and in March the narrow-gauge railway had been laid as far as the Vakhsh. In the autumn a motor road was opened from Stalinabad to Kurgan-Tyube. The main canal and the head works on the Vakhsh were opened in September 1933, while the main branch canals - from which the various canals would draw off water into aryks built by their own

resources - were finished in 1934 and with them the first stage in the project was completed. Settlement of the area had begun well in advance; it involved not only the transferring of Uzbek and Tadzhik peasants from overpopulated regions, such as the Pamirs, where soil is poor and sparse, but the resettlement of Russians and Ukrainians from Leningrad, the Volga and the Don, Osetins and gypsies.

The second stage of the project, involving the building of small hydroelectric power-stations along the canal and of a large station on the Vakhsh itself, was postponed, according to Soviet sources, because of the outbreak of war. It is true that during the period 1934-1941 many other projects were being forwarded in Central Asia, such as the Great Fergana Canal, on which 160,000 Uzbek and Tadzhik labourers were employed. The only development in the Vakhsh valley itself, was that of the narrow gauge railway from Stalinabad (South Station) to Kurgan-Tyube and Vakhshstroy - the settlement that developed from the labourers' camp during the first stage of the project - was doubled.

The "electrification" of the valley, the second stage of the project, was not begun until 1954, when the construction of the Perepadnaya ("Fall") hydroelectric power-station was started on the Ak-Goza canal on a site where it was possible to utilize the natural fall between the levels of the Ak-Goza and Mardat-Say canals. The fall of forty metres provided in the building of the Ak-Goza canal (see above) had already been used for the small Ak-Goza inter-kolkhoz power-station. To supply the Perepadnaya station a flow of ten times the former amount was necessary, and the canal had to be enlarged over a considerable part of its length. An outflow twenty-four kilometres long had to be dug to take the water back to the river Vakhsh. (See article "More Power for Central Asia: II. Tadzhikistan" in this issue.) During its construction it was said that 15,000 hectares of marsh would be drained by this canal, and a layer of silt two metres or more deep deposited on the surface of the soil. The canal was to have several changes of level in its course, where small two and three thousand kilowatt power-stations could be built.

In the many press articles describing the progress of the work contrasts have often been made between the first and second parts of the project; how many people had worked with their hands on every kilometre of the Ak-Goza canal - how few people there were in 1954 and 1955 operating the machines and excavators. It was emphasized that the first task in 1954 was the enlarging of the village of Vakhshstroy to receive new workers and their families, whereas before the workers had to live in temporary buildings and tents. Before the Perepadnaya building began, clubs, creches, shops and bath-houses had been built in the village.



One of the most difficult tasks involved in the building of the station was the construction of a pylon line to bring current from Stalinabad to supply installations on the site. Local labour accomplished this without the customary recourse to Moscow and without disturbing the cotton crops in the fields over which the line was to pass. The huge transformer, which none of the bridges on the lowland route would have sustained, was brought straight across the Dangara plateau on a trailer drawn by tractors. This line will supply the Vakhsh valley with electricity during the summer, when the requirements of the machines regulating irrigation will be especially heavy, and in winter will convey the current in the opposite direction to supplement the Varzob power-stations supplying Stalinabad. In October 1955 the first kolkhoz was connected to the completed line; six pumping stations were established there to irrigate formerly uncultivated land.

From this time onwards the building of irrigation canals and pumping stations, later to be connected with the main canal and the Perepadnaya power-station, has been proceeding conjointly with the building of the station itself. The work is being done by the "trust" Tadzhikgidrostroy (Tadzhik Hydro-Electric Construction). On the main canal the supply of current from Varzob has made possible the adoption of a new method of enlarging the canal bed; jets of water are used to wash away loosened soil. In this way three million cubic metres of earth can be moved and 2,500,000 rubles saved from the cost of the improvements. The heavy rains of February and March 1956 have slowed down the work, but it is thought that the power-station will be in operation by 1957.

The Sixth Five-Year Plan for Tadzhikistan includes a further development in the Vakhsh Project. Work on the Golovnaya (Head Works) power-station on the Vakhsh itself is to start in the second quarter of 1956, although originally planned for 1957. A dam will be built across the river and a new canal constructed from the river to the main Stalin Canal dug in the thirties. One hundred thousand hectares of new land will be irrigated; the amount of earth to be excavated will be more than 6m. cubic metres; over 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. cubic metres of concrete, 126,000 cubic metres of loose stone and 9,000 tons of steel will be used to build the dam and power houses. To lower the level of the Vakhsh above the dam during the work of construction, a tunnel will be driven through the rock of the right bank to the lower reaches of the river. By the end of 1957 work should be in full swing, as the building of the Perepadnaya and Kayrak-Kum stations should then be finished and the machinery used there will be free. Not only the Vakhsh valley, but also the Yavan valley will profit from this extension of the project.

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 2. Soviet Tajikistan. Moscow, 1954. (An English translation of the former work, abridged for the non-Russian reader, omitting many passages of crude propaganda and much factual detail.)
 3. Yasenskiy, Bruno. Chelovek menyayet kozhu. Moscow-Leningrad, 1936.
 4. Kommunist Tadzhikistana.
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Opening of Dal'verzin Canal (Tadzhikistan)

The first part of the Dal'verzin canal was opened on the 3rd June. It flows from the reservoir on the river Syr-Dar'ya near Nau and irrigates 3,000 hectares of the Leninabad oblast. It is planned to extend it to irrigate a further 16,000 hectares of unused land by means of the waters of the Syr-Dar'ya.

KT. 26th June 1956

Institute of Hydrological Engineering and Irrigation for Ashkhabad

A new Institute of Hydrological Engineering and Irrigation has been opened in Ashkhabad. The Chardzhou experimental irrigation station has been placed at the disposal of the Institute. TI. 27th May 1956

PUBLIC WORKS

MORE POWER FOR CENTRAL ASIA

- I. Uzbekistan - II. Tadzhikistan - III. Kirgizia and Turkmenistan -
 IV. Kazakhstan - V. Secondary benefits from new hydroelectric schemes.

During the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1956-60) the production of electric power is to be raised in all the Central Asian republics and Kazakhstan: in Uzbekistan 1.6 times over the 1955 figure, in Tadzhikistan 4 times, in Kirgizia and Turkmenistan 1.8 times and in Kazakhstan 2.3 times.

High voltage power-transmission lines linking the various hydroelectric and thermal power-stations are already being laid in new areas; these will provide cheap power to towns, industry and new settlements. Agriculture also will benefit considerably by the projected dams and power-stations as the regulation of water in new reservoirs and artificial lakes, and the construction of canals as part of the various schemes, will result in the irrigation of many hundreds of thousands of hectares of land.

I. Uzbekistan

In 1955, eighty-five per cent of the electric power in Uzbekistan was generated by hydroelectric power-plants. The power system is centred mainly on the Syr-Dar'ya (Farkhad and Kayrak-Kum hydroelectric stations) and the cascade of smaller plants on the Chirchik river. Thirteen hydroelectric power-plants are already operating on the Chirchik river and a further three are under construction; when completed these will bring utilization of the potential power of the river to fifty-one per cent. L. Pozharov, director of the Central Asian Hydroelectric Construction Authority, in an article in PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 8th April 1956, estimates that the river could take up to twenty power-stations.

D.T. Zhimerin (see "Sources") writes that the development of electric power in Uzbekistan is closely connected with irrigation works. When the Farkhad hydroelectric station was opened in 1948 and the network of canals, which were part of the project, completed, 150,000 hectares of land were irrigated and these are now under cultivation in the Golodnaya Step'. When the Kayrak-Kum power-plant is completed a further 500,000 hectares in this

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area should be irrigated and brought into production.

New Projects

(a) Kayrak-Kum

The Kayrak-Kum hydroelectric power-station on the Syr-Dar'ya river is to be the largest in Central Asia. Building began in the latter half of 1951, and on the 8th April 1956 the Syr-Dar'ya bed was closed by means of a dam. The first section of the power-plant should be brought into operation late in 1956 on the completion of the dam. Now that the old river-bed is cut by a barrage its waters are directed through four of the six gates of the dam, the other two remaining shut while the assembly of the first two hydro-aggregates is carried out; these two aggregates are due to start working in the autumn of 1956.

Transmission lines linking the Kayrak-Kum station with the Uzbek power system will permit the exchange of power between different sectors of the network according to an article in PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 8th April 1954. The reservoir which will be created by the construction of the dam, goes on the article, will be 520 square kilometres in size and will contain four billion cubic metres of water; it will permit a more even distribution of power from Farkhad and Kayrak-Kum, as well as irrigating new land.

By the end of the year, mining, textile and canning industries in the Leninabad oblast in Tadzhikistan, and industries in the Tashkent and Fergana oblasts in Uzbekistan, should be receiving electric power from the Kayrak-Kum station. Water from the large Kayrak-Kum reservoir will irrigate the Samgar and Khodzha-Bakirgam rayons of the Leninabad oblast and large areas of the Golodnaya Step'; these newly irrigated lands are to be used for the cultivation of cotton.

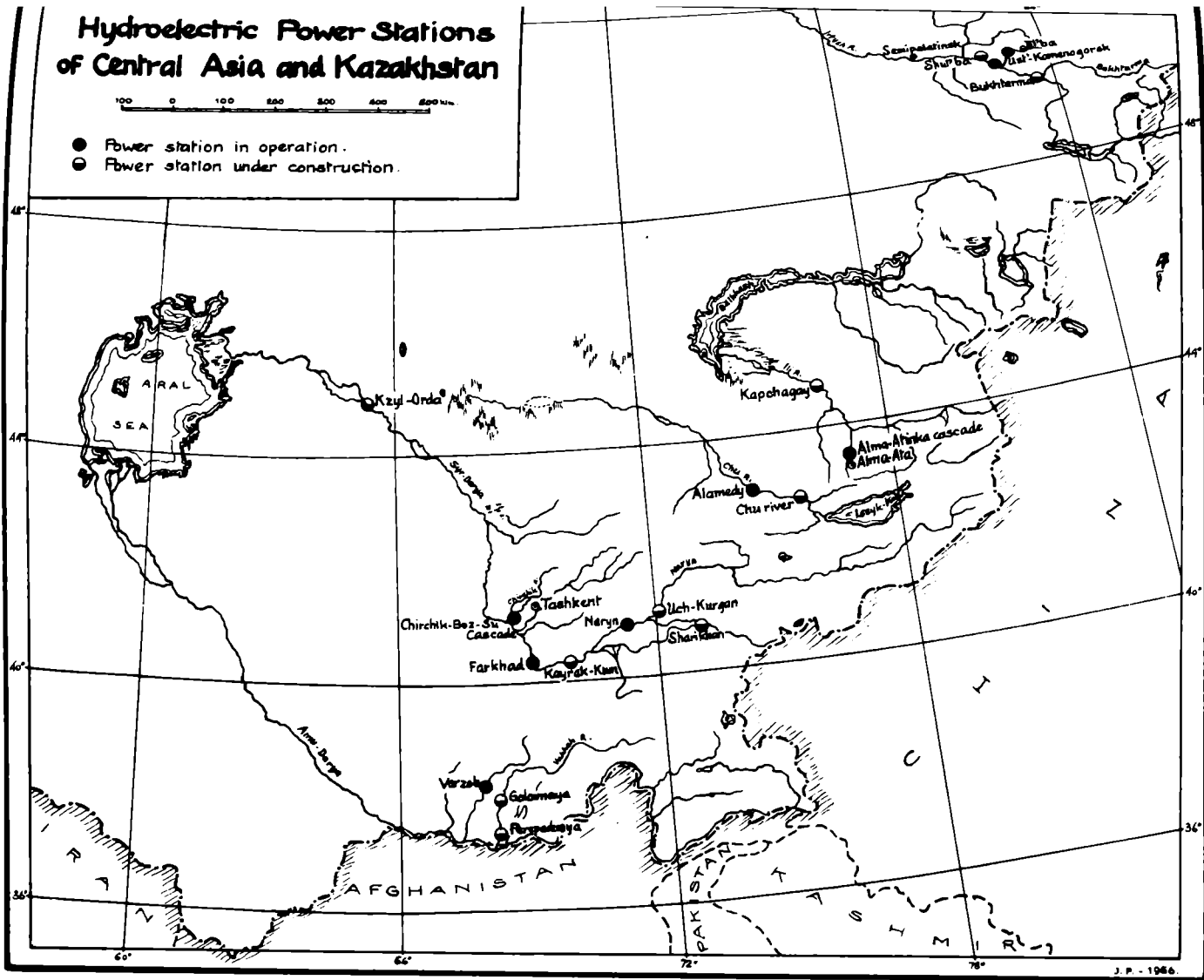
(b) Charvak

The Charvak hydroelectric power-station, now under construction, is situated on the Chirchik river near the village of Khodzhikent. It is to be the upper power-station of the Chirchik-Boz-Su cascade and will serve to regulate the flow of water from the other plants of the cascade. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 25th April 1956 states that construction of the dam to be erected here, which is to be the highest ever built in the USSR, is difficult from both the engineering and geological points of view. The whole Charvak project is

Hydroelectric Power Stations of Central Asia and Kazakhstan

100 0 100 200 300 400 500 km.

- Power station in operation.
- Power station under construction.



considered unique of its kind and research institutes in Moscow, Leningrad, Tbilisi and Tashkent are all taking part in its design.

Above the new dam a thirty-five square kilometre reservoir, which will hold 1.5 billion cubic metres of water, is to be created. This will enable the seasonal flow of the Chirchik waters to be regulated, and consequently the winter capacity and annual power output of the Chirchik-Boz-Su cascade lying below Charvak will be considerably raised. The area to be irrigated by the reservoir will be up to 428,000 hectares in the Chirchik, Angren and Keless rayons.

When the Charvak plant is completed electricity will be transmitted to the Chirchik, Tashkent and Farkhad power system and also to the South-Kazakhstan oblast. Plans for the Middle-Chirchik cascade of hydroelectric stations are to be completed this year and construction will begin in 1957; completion is scheduled for the end of 1960.

(c) Miscellaneous new power-stations

Other hydroelectric power-stations are to be erected on the Naryn and Kara-Dar'ya rivers and along the upper course of the Chirchik. Power-plants are also planned for the Sharikhan river and various other rivers and canals.

New transmission lines

About 2,000 km. of transmission lines, which will distribute power generated by the new plants, are to be built and put into operation by 1960. L. Pozharov, in the article in PRAVDA VOSTOKA quoted above, said that a 220 kw. transmission line from Kayrak-Kum to Tashkent is now under construction. Another line is to be laid between Kuvasay power-station and Kokand, the first thirty-two kilometre-long section of which was recently completed. A third line, Andizhan-Leninabad, will be 110 km. long and will provide power for the towns and industries of Kirgizia; the first section should be completed in 1956. "Thus", says Pozharov, "power generated by the Uzbek electric system will be used by the industries of Kirgizia."

II. Tadzhikistan

The large Lower Varzob hydroelectric power-station was completed in 1949; it supplements the older Varzob plant and supplies power to the population

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and industries of Stalinabad. Leninabad receives electricity from the Farkhad power-plant in Uzbekistan referred to above. Several new, smaller, power-plants on the Kafiringan and Vakhsh rivers are planned for Tadzhikistan, the largest of which is the Perepadnaya hydroelectric station on which construction has already started.

Perepadnaya

Work on the Perepadnaya station is progressing so well that it should be completed in 1957, ahead of the date originally planned. About four million cubic metres of earth and rock have to be removed at Perepadnaya in the construction of the dam and feeder canal; this is being done by means of hydraulic-powered water-jets. The enormous mass of soil and rock will then be moved by the water-course a distance of about thirty kilometres; to avoid silting up the Mardet-Say canal, which supplies water for a large area devoted to cotton cultivation, three 1.5 metre diameter ferro-concrete pipes have been laid under the canal bed, each pipe being eighty metres long. The debris will thus be floated into the Vakhsh river. Workshops and a concrete mixing mill are under construction on the site and work is continuing day and night.

III. Kirgizia and Turkmenistan

A number of hydroelectric power-stations are being built on the Chu and Naryn rivers in Kirgizia; among those recently completed are the Voroshilovskaya, Alametinskaya and Przheval'skaya stations.

In addition to the thermal power-stations of Ashkhabad and Mary - which operate on liquid fuel - two new hydroelectric stations have been built in Turkmenistan, at Kaushutbend and Tashkepri on the Murgab river. In the Kopet-Dag area small hydroelectric power-plants are under construction along the mountain rivers. The Amu-Dar'ya river has large potential power resources and it is planned to exploit these in the future by building a few large hydroelectric stations.

Helio-power installations are being employed experimentally as an alternative source of power in Turkmenistan.

IV. Kazakhstan

Electric power in Kazakhstan is to be more than doubled between 1956 and 1960. This is to be achieved by the reconstruction of the thermal power-

stations of Karaganda, Petropavlovsk, Alma-Ata, Semipalatinsk and several other towns; by introducing automation to other plants, as has already been done at the plants of the Alma-Ata cascade (which are controlled from central panels located many miles away); and by the erection of new power-stations and sub-stations, which will account for by far the greatest proportion of the increase.

New projects

Of the many projected power-stations planned for the Sixth Five-Year Plan in Kazakhstan, the following are the most important. The information concerning them has been taken (except where otherwise stated) from three articles which appeared in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA on 2nd, 4th and 5th February 1956.

(a) Bukhtarma (See also CAR, Vol.II, No.1, pp.109-110.)

The Bukhtarma hydroelectric power-station, on which construction has already begun, will be sited at Serebryanka at the junction of the Irtysh and Bukhtarma rivers. When completed the station will have a capacity of 750,000 kw. The first stage of the work is to be completed in the autumn of this year, and the first section of the power-station is scheduled to start operating in 1958, although KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 5th February 1956 considered that "the rhythm of work is not fast enough". Construction is being undertaken in two stages: a right bank bulkhead forms the foundation pit for the water-gate section of the dam, and this will be deepened by ten metres in 1956 necessitating the excavation of about 500,000 cubic metres of hard rock. Later, pre-fabricated concrete slabs will be set in the foundation pit, after which the temporary barrage is to be dismantled and the waters of the Irtysh will flow through the waste gate-rack of the dam. Early in 1957 work on the left bank bulkhead and the testing of the sluice-gate wall will begin. Construction of a four-chamber lock, already begun, is to be accelerated.

One of the benefits which will result from the Bukhtarma power-station will be the rapid development of non-ferrous metallurgy in the Altay region. On this subject M.A. Abdeev in an article entitled "Power for non-ferrous metallurgy in the Altay", published in VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956, No.2, writes: "Cheap power available here will be more and more used in the production of non-ferrous metals; this. . . revolutionizes the very production process. . . The average cost of power per kilowatt produced by large hydroelectric stations such as Ust'-Kamenogorsk and Bukhtarma, does not exceed a few

copeks. Owing to the favourable natural conditions existing in the Irtysh basin, production costs can be still further reduced."

(b) Kapchagay

Construction of this large hydroelectric power-station on the Ili river is to begin immediately. The station is to be built at the Kapchagay gorge, 70 km. north of Alma-Ata and 11 km. north of the Ili settlement. The water-flow of the Ili reaches 15m. cubic metres per year in this area; the potential hydroelectric power reserves of the Ili basin are estimated at 37 billion kilowatt hours, but so far these resources are being used to less than one per cent. The Institute of Energetics (Power) of Kazakhstan spent several years in studying the potentialities of the Ili river and the best site for the power-station; they also estimate that the cost of power produced at Kapchagay will be very low.

The river-bed will be crossed by a dam which will create a vast reservoir, or artificial lake, covering an area of two-thousand square kilometres. The concrete water-gate and the actual power-station are to be erected on the left bank of the Ili, separated from the river-bed by a band of rock. Four aggregate power units are to be installed in the building. The filling of the Kapchagay reservoir will take from four to eight years and during this period the level of the Balkhash Lake will sink somewhat while its mineral salts content will increase; compensatory measures are envisaged for these natural phenomena. During the formation of the reservoir the Ili settlement and railway station, a railway and several road bridges, and land belonging to a number of kolkhozes and sovkhozes, will be flooded. The Ili settlement will be moved to the Zhalighen area. When the Kapchagay station is completed it will be the main power generating plant in the network existing in this region, and the Alma-Ata power system will have more than double its present capacity. Whilst the power-plants are being built, new high-voltage power-lines are to be laid in several rayons; three rayon sub-stations with 35,000 volt and 100,000 volt transmission lines will link Kapchagay power-station with Alma-Ata city. By 1958 all districts of Alma-Ata are to be covered by the electric-power network.

The power-station will contribute considerably towards the development of industry and agriculture in the Ili river basin, in which out of 12,500,000 hectares, 1,200,000 are suitable for cultivation and 7,800,000 hectares for grazing. At present only 240,000 hectares are irrigated, but when the Kapchagay reservoir is completed this will be increased to 450,000 hectares.

(c) Shul'ba

Another hydroelectric power-station is to be built, near Staraya Shul'ba village, in the region where the Irtysh river emerges from the gorge into the plain. Experts who planned the Ust'-Kamenogorsk and Bukhtarma hydroelectric power-stations are studying the Shul'ba district. The station is to be the largest of those to be built on the Irtysh; the site for the station and dam have been chosen and a large reservoir will be formed. The site of the project is to be supplied with power by the Bukhtarma power-plant and a high voltage power-line linking Bukhtarma and Shul'ba is to be laid; preparatory work on this has begun.

V. Secondary Benefits from new Hydroelectric Schemes

A not unimportant "by-product" of the foregoing schemes will be the improved facilities for the enjoyment of health and leisure in the regions near the new projects. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 25th April 1956 says that at Charvak rest homes and sanatoria are to be built on the banks of the large artificial lake being created there; these will be linked to Tashkent and Chirchik by an electric railway. Similarly, the artificial Lake Kapchagay is to have health resorts along its shores.

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I N D U S T R Y

T H E O I L R E S O U R C E S O F
C E N T R A L A S I A A N D K A Z A K H S T A N

General - Oilfields of: Uzbekistan - Tadzhikistan - Kirgizia - Turkmenistan - Kazakhstan - Conclusion.

The following article aims at giving a short, factual account of current oil production in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, with some description of oil and its resources and their prospects for the future. Tables listing the major oilfields in each republic, and giving available details of each, are appended at the end of the article. All figures are given in metric tons.

General

As a result of the rapid development of industry and agriculture in Central Asia and Kazakhstan over the last few years, the demand for petroleum products is constantly growing. In order to avoid the costly transportation of fuel from other parts of the USSR considerable efforts are being made in all five republics to expand the oil industry and reduce imports.

According to the late Academician I.M. Gubkin, the crude oil reserves of Central Asia, Turkmenistan and the Emba region (Kazakhstan) may be estimated as follows (1):

<u>Crude Oil Reserves (in million tons)</u>					
A r e a	A	B	C1	C2	Total
Emba Region	30.6	1.3	618.5	540.0	1,190.4
Turkmenistan	6.6	2.7	67.1	182.6	253.0
Central Asia:					
Fergana valley	1.0	2.7	11.6	40.1	55.4
S.Tadzhikistan and					
S. Uzbekistan	1.4	11.9	55.7	49.7	118.7
<u>Grand total</u>	<u>39.6</u>	<u>18.6</u>	<u>752.9</u>	<u>812.4</u>	<u>1,617.5</u>

Note: The classification employed by I.M. Gubkin in the foregoing table roughly correspond to the following standard classes of crude oil reserves:

The A category refers to what is usually called "proven reserves"; B to "semi-proven reserves"; C1 to "probable reserves"; C2 to "possible reserves". In the last category Soviet geologists are, however, inclined to include what would elsewhere be called "potential reserves" as well.

Despite the discovery of a number of new oilfields in the five republics, no revised data on the crude oil reserves have been published in the USSR since the Second World War. It is probable that the reserves tabulated by I.M. Gubkin ought to have undergone an upward revision, especially in relation to the proven and semi-proven categories of the Fergana valley, Kirgizia and Turkmenistan. However, as no up to date official data is available we can only assume that as the result of the new oilfields recently brought into production in various republics, the reserves have substantially increased.

Prior to the Second World War the oil resources of Central Asia were seven per cent and Kazakhstan eighteen per cent of the total resources of the USSR (2), while the total crude production in these regions did not exceed four per cent of the grand total output of the USSR. This discrepancy was, and still is, due to the slower progress of oil extraction in these remote areas, and the tardiness of geological prospecting and exploratory drilling.

Uzbekistan

The main oilfields of Uzbekistan are situated in the Fergana valley, in the vicinity of the town of Leninsk (Andizhan oblast); there are other, less important oilfields in the Surkhan-Dar'ya oblast, (see Appendix I). The Fergana valley group produces about eighty-five per cent of the crude oil extracted in Uzbekistan.(3) The output of crude oil increased more than ten times in the Fergana valley between the years 1940 and 1955 (4), but despite this fact Uzbekistan does not yet produce enough oil to satisfy the growing demands of her industry, transport and agriculture. Petroleum products still have to be imported in considerable quantities from Turkmenistan and from Baku (via Krasnovodsk).

As a consequence of the discovery of new oil deposits in the Andizhan oblast between 1943 and 1951, Soviet technicians expected a very rapid expansion of crude oil production in the Fergana valley, which was to become "one of the main oil producing areas of the USSR". According to PRAVDA of

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the 15th January 1956, these hopes have not so far been justified, and the planned increase in output for 1960 has been established at only fifty per cent above the 1955 figure.

Large quantities of natural gas - in some cases from a depth of two kilometres by means of special gas wells - is now being obtained in the Fergana valley. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 4th November 1955 says "natural gas is now being collected into gas separators and is conveyed by gas pipe-lines to the compressor stations." The Chief Geologist of the Andizhanneft' (Andizhan Oil Authority), considers that the recent discovery of rich, gas deposits at Khodzhiabad will lead to a considerable rise in the output of this cheap type of fuel in the Fergana valley.

Tadzhikistan

The oil resources of Tadzhikistan appear to be rather limited. Only two small fields, Kim and Nefteabad in the Fergana valley group (see Appendix I), are operating and the yield of these is insignificant. No new oil deposits have been found in this part of Central Asia for many years.

Kirgizia

The oilfields of Kirgizia (see Appendix II) lie in the areas adjacent to the Fergana valley and the Andizhan oblast of Uzbekistan. In 1950 the planned crude oil quota was only 60,000 tons, but with the new fields of Izbaskent and Maylisay production is increasing. By November 1955 the year's output programme had already reached 134 per cent.(5) According to the Sixth Five-Year Plan oil production in 1960 is to be raised 7.8 times over the 1955 figure (6).

A new oil deposit at Kochkar-Ata, in southern Kirgizia, was discovered in July 1955 and an oil flow was obtained from a test well; large oil deposits have been found in this area where development drilling is being continued. Test drilling is also being carried out in the Tekebel and Ak-Mechet areas. Kirgizneft', a new authority in charge of the oil-fields in Kirgizia, has substituted turbine for rotary drilling. The directional drilling method is being successfully employed; by this method several wells are drilled at various angles and in various directions from the same platform.

Turkmenistan

In Turkmenistan the production of crude oil continues to rise steadily. In 1954 output in the three main oilfields (see Appendix III) was 41.5 per cent higher than in 1950.(7) (It was estimated that the figure for 1950 was approximately 2,020,000 tons; for this and other details of 1950-54 output see article "Turkmenistan: Development of the Oilfields", CAR, Vol.II, No.2, p.161.) By 1955 average daily production was about sixty per cent above the 1950 figure, thus giving an annual output of approximately 3,200,000 tons. According to the Sixth Five-Year Plan, crude output is to be raised by thirty per cent between 1956 and 1960. This is a much slower rate of expansion than that achieved from 1950 to 1955.

Secondary recovery methods, such as water-flooding, the pumping of air and gas into oil-bearing strata to maintain pressure, are now being successfully employed by the Turkmenneft' (Turkmen Oil Authority). In the Kum-Dag oilfield alone, secondary recovery methods have resulted in a rise in output of 383,000 tons.(8)

The recent discovery of new oil deposits in the southern part of the Cheleken oilfield gives very good prospects for a continued rise in the output from this field. Before the Second World War annual output was under 10,000 tons; the 1955 figure was twenty times that of 1950. In an article on the oilfield on the 21st October 1955, TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA said: "Between 1955 and 1960 oil production is to be raised by 550 per cent and that of natural gas by 590 per cent. The total footage drilled increased by 550 per cent between 1950 and 1955 and is to rise by a further 300 per cent by 1960."

Despite the large capital investment which is being put into the oil industry, and the employment on a wide scale of turbine drilling - it accounted for roughly seventy per cent of the total footage drilled in 1955 - the development of crude oil production is, however, proceeding more slowly than planned; the average drilling speed is lower and the cost higher than the official estimates.(9) But there are exceptions: at some wells the average drilling speed reached 1,627 metres per month per rig, which is well over the official quota of 875 metres. The introduction of new techniques will result in a considerable improvement.

Kazakhstan

There are two groups of oilfields in Kazakhstan: the large fields in the Emba region, and the much less important fields in the Aktyubinsk oblast (see Appendix IV). Those in the Emba region are controlled by

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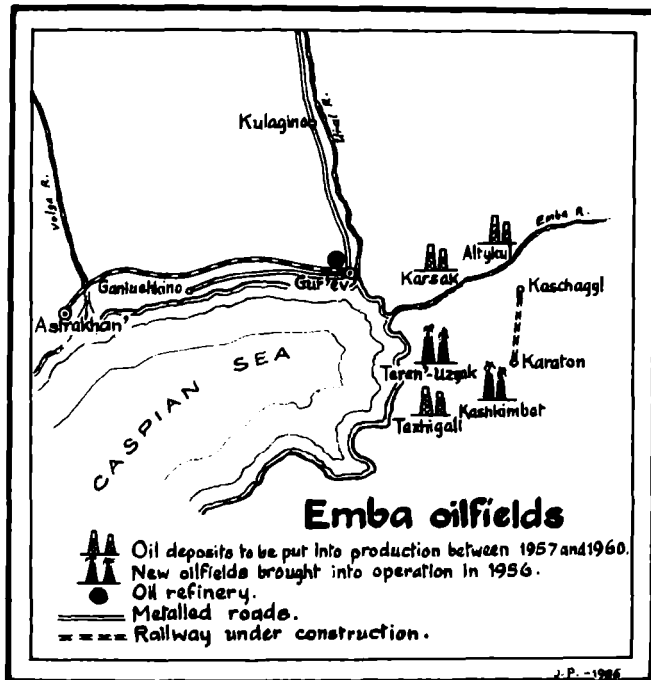
Embanneft' and the Aktyubinsk fields by the Aktyubneft', and both are subordinate to the Kazakhstanneft' which controls all oilfields in Kazakhstan.

The 1950 planned production of crude oil of the Kazakhstanneft' was around 1,200,000 tons; this figure had risen by thirty-two per cent in 1955.(10) During the Sixth Five-Year Plan oil output is to be raised by a further forty per cent, i.e. by 1960 it should reach rather more than 2,200,000 tons. This seems to be a very conservative rate of development compared with the rapid growth of crude production in Bashkiria (Tuymazy fields) and Tataria (Bavly and other fields).

Two articles published in December 1955 in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA possibly provide the reason for the present slower rate of development. The first, published on 12th December, said:

"In 1954 the average drilling speed per month and per rig in the Emba oilfields was one of the lowest in the Soviet Union; development drilling did not exceed 447 metres and exploratory drilling 154 metres." The second article, on 22nd December, stated that though 118 new oilwells were completed and put into operation in 1955 alone, drilling continued to lag behind schedule.

With the steadily expanding consumption, regional production is insufficient to satisfy the demand for petroleum products. Pipe-lines are therefore being constructed to ensure the import of sufficient supplies. In December 1955 the 1,322 km. pipe-line from Tuymazy to Omsk was completed, and two branch lines are to be laid to Mamlyutka and Bulayevo which will guarantee the delivery of Bashkir oil to Kazakhstan. Almost one million tons of Diesel oil and petrol was supplied to the MTS and sovkhoses of north-eastern Kazakhstan while the main pipe-line was still under construction, and deliveries are now being made to the sovkhoses of the New Lands.(12)



The Emba Oilfields

In the vast Emba plain, which stretches for more than 360,000 square kilometres north of the Caspian Sea, there are at present eighteen oilfields, thirteen of them in regular production. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 15th April 1956 gave details of the five new oilfields among them, recently discovered in the Gur'yev oblast. Two, the Teren'-Uzyak deposits discovered in December 1955, and the Koshkimbet deposits are already beginning to yield their first oil. The last three, at Karsak, Tazhigali and Altykul' are to be brought into operation between 1957 and 1960.

There is apparently a striking discrepancy between the very large geological crude oil reserve existing in the Emba region and its relatively low oil production. This is accounted for by the enormous, desert area in which hundreds of salt dome structures - potentially oil-bearing - are encountered, and the small yields (often only a few tons a day) obtained from the oil-wells being work-

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ed. In order to raise production, prospecting and test drilling are continuously carried out and every year one or two new deposits are found. As a result of those recently found in the Gur'yev oblast drilling is to be accelerated; the total footage to be drilled in the Emba region between 1956 and 1960 is to reach 967,000 metres, which is an increase of sixty-eight per cent over the 1951-1955 period.

Crude oil production increased in 1953, but in 1954 there was a small decrease which continued in some fields in 1955.(11) Taken as a whole Kazakhstanneft' fulfilled its output for 1955, but the initial production programmes for both 1954 and 1955 had been reduced in comparison with 1953. At Kul'sary, the largest oilfield in Kazakhstan, crude extraction rose 2.5 times in 1955 compared with 1950. After seven years of production (since 1949) the pressure in forty flowing wells at Kul'sary fell from 150 to 110 atmospheres. Contour flooding is now being employed to remedy the falling pressure: a number of injection wells, through which water is pumped into the oil-producing strata, have been drilled, and gas is also being pumped into the oil-bearing strata (to the extent of 60,000 cubic metres in 1960). As a result of the recovery methods it is estimated that the field will yield an additional 350,000 tons of crude oil between 1956 and 1960. The new oilfields mentioned above, however, will increase the proven crude oil reserves of the Emba region by sixty-five to seventy per cent. Secondary recovery methods are to account for twenty to twenty-five per cent of the total crude production. Gas pumping into oil-bearing strata without compressors, acid treatment of the wells and hydraulic disruption of oilbearing layers are recovery methods to be used increasingly in the area to raise production. A narrow gauge railway is now under construction between the large fields of Koschagyl and Karaton, both situated near the five recent discoveries. The Gur'yev oil refinery is to be considerably expanded to handle the additional output of crude oil.

Conclusion

The potential oil resources of Central Asia and Kazakhstan are by no means limited to the deposits already known; recent prospecting and test drilling have shown the likelihood of large new deposits in many areas - Uzbekistan, Kirgizia and especially in Kazakhstan. But the actual growth of crude oil production is lagging behind the rapid development of other industries and this seems to be due to slow prospecting and lack of modern techniques. With the introduction of secondary recovery methods, as mentioned above, turbine drilling and other up to date techniques, there should be a gradual improvement in field operation which will contribute, together with the development of new fields, to a rise in oil output.

Owing to the almost complete absence of crude oil production figures - as opposed to percentages from which it is often impossible to calculate a firm figure - it is difficult to assess the prospects of the oil industry, but it does appear that the long-term future is a fairly bright one.

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APPENDIX I

Oilfields of Uzbekistan

Fergana valley

Andizhan	}	These fields yield 85 per cent of crude oil output in Uzbekistan. (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 4.11.55.)
Yuzhnyy		
Alamyshik		
Palvantash		
Khodziabad		
Zapadnyy Palvantash		First development well put into operation 1st January 1956. (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 4. 1.56.)
Chimion	}	Output very limited owing to gradual exhaustion of oil deposits. Last two lie in Tadzhikistan, but are part of the Fergana group.
Shor-su		
Kim		
Neftabad		

Surkhan-Dar'ya oblast

Uch-Kzyl
Khundag
Kokayty

APPENDIX II

Oilfields of Kirgizia

Changyrtash

Izbaskent	}	New fields. Started production after Second World War.
Maylisay		
Kochkar-Ata		Discovered July, 1955. Development drilling now being carried out. (PRAVDA, 2. 7.55.)

APPENDIX III

Oilfields of Turkmenistan

Nebit-Dag	Started production 1936. In 1955 output was approximately 40 per cent of total for Turkmenistan.
Kum-Dag	Started production in 1951; produced 60 per cent of total crude output of Turkmanneft' Kombinat in 1955. (TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 1. 1.56.)
Cheleken	Output was very small but as result of deep test-drilling in 1951-53 new oil-bearing strata discovered and output should equal that of Nebit-Dag in coming years.
<u>Note:</u>	1955 output of crude oil from these three fields is estimated at 3,200,000 tons. (See also CAR, Vol.II, No.2, p.161.)

APPENDIX IV

Oilfields of KazakhstanEmba region

Kul'sary	Largest field in Kazakhstan; produced 40 per cent of total oil output of Emba region.
Baychunas	
Iskine	
Karaton	
Komsomol'sk	
Koschagyl	
Koshkar	
Makat-Dossor	
Manuili	
Narmundak	
Sagiz	
Tentyakor	
Kokzak	Near old field of Baychunas, discovered 1955.

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Teren'-Uzyak	Discovered December 1955. Starting regular production 1956. (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 26.10.55, 15. 4.56.)
Koshkimbet	Discovered 1955. Starting production 1956. (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 15. 4.56.)
Karsak Tashigali Altykul'	} } Discovered 1955. Scheduled to start production 1957-60. (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 15. 4.56.)

Aktyubinsk oblast

Shubar-Kudak
Dzhaksymay
Other small fields.

Notes

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 l' } production 1957-60. (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 15. 4.56.)

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THE BORDERLANDS OF
SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA

PERSIA

Part I

The amount of material on Persia published in the Soviet Union is probably as great as that published in any country of the West. It comprises a large number of books and articles on historical, political, economic and cultural subjects. By no means all of this material is accessible, but even that part of it which it has been possible to obtain is too bulky for detailed analysis within the compass of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW. The following analysis is therefore selective and in no sense exhaustive; but every attempt has been made to make the selection as representative as possible.

From the point of view of the impartial student of Persian affairs the quality of Soviet published material is very unequal. All of it has, or had at the time of publication, the official imprimatur, and even signed books and articles are primarily designed to indoctrinate the Soviet public on official lines. While this enhances the importance of Soviet material as a reflection of official policy, it greatly reduces the academic and objective value of the historical work. Much of the literary and linguistic work, however, displays a high degree of scholarship.

Generally speaking the present analysis is confined to Soviet views on and interpretation of Persian affairs and history with a bare minimum of interpretative comment. Where Soviet treatment of events differs widely from the normal Persian or Western treatment, attention has been drawn to the relevant discrepancies.

The analysis is divided into sections dealing with history, economics, minorities, and languages and literature. Of these only the first part of the history section (1905-47) appears in the present issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW. The remainder of the history section and the other sections will be published in subsequent issues.

Within the limitations imposed by the typewriter, the system of spelling Persian names is broadly speaking that advocated by the Permanent

on Geographical Names. The indiscriminate use of 'a' and 'e' meant the short 'a' sound (fatheh) and of 'e' and 'i' to the short 'i' sound (kasreh) found in other systems is thus Fatheh is always represented by 'a' and kasreh by 'e'. Short 'u' is represented by 'o'. Long 'a' is written ā, but 'i' and 'u' sounds simply as 'i' and 'u'. The diphthongal are written 'au' and 'ay'.

I. HISTORY

1. Introduction - The Persian Revolution 1905-9 - The Anglo-Russian Confrontation of 1907 - Britain, Russia and America in Persia, 1910-12 - The Pahlavi Republic, 1920-21 - The Soviet Army in North Persia, 1921-41 - The Separatist Movement in Āzarbāyjān, 1945-46

In order to save space the following analysis of Soviet publications on the history of Persia is confined to those dealing with outstanding events from the beginning of the twentieth century to the present day. A thorough review of the material relating to the short period could fill a considerable volume and many important events have had to be treated very briefly.

The material consulted is very varied. No comprehensive history of Persia seems to have been published in the Soviet Union since the Revolution. The shorter historical surveys the only one available is also the most recent, namely, M.S. Ivanov's OCHERK ISTORII IRANA (Outline of the History of Persia) (Moscow, 1952) of which more than three-quarters deal with the history of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Historical and political matters are also treated in considerable detail in certain general historical works, in encyclopaedias, and in articles. All this material is naturally written from the Marxist point of view; but the angle adopted varies according to the policy of the Party. While the earlier material is mercilessly critical of Tsarist Persia and its actions, the more recent tendency is to show these as venial by comparison with those of Britain and America.

One of the special features in which events are recounted and interpreted in recent Soviet historical writing on Persia is distinguished by striking omissions. For instance, no mention whatever is made of the important part played in the Persian Revolution by Taqizādeh; or of the decisive role of the Red Army either in Gilān in 1920-21 or in the separatist movement in Persian Āzarbāyjān of 1945-46 when Persian govern-

ment forces were prevented from entering Āzarbāyjān; or finally, of the failure of the Soviet Union to withdraw its forces from Persia by the date stipulated in the Tripartite Agreement of 1942. These omissions alone would be enough to invalidate any claim to objectivity which may be made by Soviet historiographers. In addition, there are numerous references to operations by British troops at times when no British forces were present in Persia. These references, however, are not to be found in publications appearing before the Second World War.

The Persian Revolution

Introduction - The modern Soviet attitude - The British and Tsarist attitudes - Russian revolutionary influence on Persia.

The Persian Revolution is represented in recent Soviet historiography as the first phase of a Persian movement for "national liberation" which, in spite of numerous setbacks has continued until the present day. Great emphasis is laid on the generally accepted fact that the Russian revolution of 1905 to some extent precipitated what is usually thought of by Persian and Western historians as the Constitutional Movement. Elaborate descriptions are given of the part played by Transcaucasian revolutionaries whereas this is barely mentioned in Persian and Western accounts. Tsarist hostility to the movement is generally confirmed, but recent writing tends to distract attention from this by representing British sympathy for the movement as "hypocrisy". The fact that British moral support for the Constitution has always been recognised by the Persians would not, of course, be known to Soviet readers. In order to balance the continued presence of Russian forces in North Persia from 1909 to 1914 accounts are given of the ravaging of South Persian towns by British forces during the same period. In fact, no British troops were landed in Persian territory between 1905 and 1914, and except for the Residency guard at Bushire there were no British troops in Persia at the outbreak of the 1914 war.

In describing the Persian Revolution, Soviet writers adopt a neat Marxist classification of the numerous groups and factions which appears to be unknown to Persian and Western historians.

The modern Soviet attitude

Unlike the Mensheviks who "treacherously declared the peasants, work-

d, in general, all democratic movements in the Persian revolution reactionary", Bolsheviks from the very first have, according to Ivanov, seen the Persian revolution as a progressive development. It is due to the fact that the . . . revolution was crushed it had great importance in the history of Persia. It awoke the broad working masses to conscious political life. . . It led to the proclamation of a constitution and to the creation of the first parliament to exist for any period of time in any eastern country - the majles. It shook the feudal system and to a considerable extent furthered conditions for the overthrow of the Qājār dynasty and for the struggle for national independence which grew apace in Persia after the Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia".(1)

It is although the general results of the Persian revolution are considered progressive by recent Soviet writers careful distinction is made between the "liberal bourgeois" and the "revolutionary democratic" tendencies. "In the first stage of the Persian Revolution the national bourgeoisie, the liberal land-owners, the clergy, the urban petty bourgeoisie, the artisans, the urban poor, the workers and the peasants took part. Very soon two tendencies appeared in the revolution: (a) the democratic tendency (the workers, peasants, artisans, the urban bourgeoisie, and the urban poor) and (b) the liberal tendency (the upper bourgeoisie, the land-owners, and the upper clergy). While the democratic wing of the revolution aimed at bringing the bourgeois-national and national-liberation revolution to its conclusion, the liberal wing after the summoning of the majles, the proclamation of the constitution and the introduction of certain reforms considered the tasks of the revolution to have been basically solved and began gradually to withdraw from the revolution and to enter the path of struggle against the bourgeoisie and of agreement with reaction".(2)

British and Tsarist attitudes

Britain and Russia, as imperialist powers, were by definition fundamentally opposed to the Persian revolution, implies Ivanov, and he goes to great lengths to "unmask" in particular the reactionary attitude of the British: "In their hostility to the Persian revolution the British imperialists went even further than the Tsarist government."(3) Ivanov discusses this point in considerable detail. "At the outset of the constitutional movement the British intrigued with the Persian constitutionalists and, with the aim of making use of them in the interests of British policy, to a certain extent outwardly supported them (the bast in the British Legation in July 1906, the mediation of the British charge officer, Grant-Duff, in the talks between the Shah and the constitu-

tionalists). In fact the policy of Britain was determined only by her imperialist interests. . . " (4)

Ivanov, in describing the great bast of 1906 earlier in the book, confines himself to saying that after the arrest of Shaykh Mohammad "the artisans and traders of Tehran closed their stalls in the bazaar and several thousand people took bast in the garden of the British mission." (5) The Soviet Encyclopaedia is still less informative on this point and says only that "relying on the support of the urban working masses those elements who were inclined to opposition took bast." (6) On the other hand the old edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (7) says that: "in the summer of 1906. . . the Tehran merchants numbering about 14,000, shut up their trading establishments and took bast in the territory of the British Legation. The agents of the latter gave every encouragement to the revolutionary moods of the urban petty bourgeoisie in order to struggle against the Russian influence at the court of the Shah."

In support of his theory of the fundamental hostility of the British to the Persian revolution, Ivanov recounts how in March 1905 the British warship "Fox" was sent to the island of Hangam in the Persian Gulf. (4) "Tsarist Russia" writes Ivanov, "until April 1909 refrained from open armed intervention in internal Persian affairs on the side of the Shah against the Persian revolution. With regard to the British during this period they more than once resorted to armed interference. . . Thus in October 1907 a British warship was sent to the river Karun. In April 1908 the British shelled the Mekran coast and landed a naval detachment at Jask. In March 1909 British troops landed at Bushire and carried out arrests among the participants of the revolutionary movement. Thus the British imperialists resorted to armed intervention against the Persian revolution earlier than Tsarist Russia. But with the aim of concealing this imperialist. . . policy the British carried out demagogic hypocritical and false propoganda about how they were helping the people of Persia to struggle for a constitution against the Shah who, according to them, was protected by the Russians. . . It is just from such a false and demagogic position that the book of the British Persian expert, E. Browne, THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION, 1905-1909 was written. . . This crude falsehood about the attitude of Britain to the Persian revolution has not yet been properly unmasked. The British imperialists. . . at the time tried to give wide publicity to their false, demagogic version which has penetrated even into Russian literature. The facts decisively refute this. . . version." (8)

The fact that after the reactionary coup d'etat of June 1908 many of the Persian constitutionalists took refuge in the British embassy is explained by Ivanov as follows: "Several members of the majles, among them

eh, took refuge in the British mission. The British protected that all out of sympathy with the supporters of the constitution. This propaganda has falsely and hypocritically affirmed. The imperialists were simply trying to save their agents amongst whom several members of the majles." (9) (It is noteworthy that this is the reference to Taqizādeh, the outstanding figure of the majles, and of solution, in the whole of Ivanov's book. Still more remarkable is that in Ivanov's very detailed account of the early months of the majles "The summoning of the first Persian majles and the struggle for establishment of the fundamental law (October-December 1906)", appeared in UCHENYYE ZAPISKI INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA No.VIII of Taqizādeh is not mentioned at all.)

Revolutionary influence on Persia

Considering the Persian Revolution far more emphasis is given by Soviet writers to the leavening effect of the Russian revolutionary movement than to the repressions of the Tsarist government. "The mass movement in Persia" writes Ivanov (10), "began immediately after the revolution of 1905." Particular importance is given to the fact that the most bitter and prolonged struggle of the Persian revolution took place in Āzarbāyjān. I.M. Reysner writes in a recent article (11): "The anti-democratic elements in the Persian revolution of 1905-7 appeared noticeably in the north and north-west of the country - in Āzarbāyjān and Gilān. Of the three main . . . centres of the revolution - Tehran, Mashhad and Rasht - two are in the north. . . It was the deputies from Āzarbāyjān who were the revolutionary nucleus in the majles. The part played by Persian Āzarbāyjān in the revolution of 1905-7 can be explained by the following factors: capitalist relations here were relatively more developed and the emigration of non-agricultural workers to Russia had great significance; the Āzarbāyjānis suffered not only from economic exploitation and the yoke of feudalism but in the national sense they did not have equal rights; (finally) this area had long-standing and close economic and cultural relations with Russia and was in proximity with such a revolutionary centre as Baku. All this insured an exceptionally strong influence by the Russian revolution on the struggle in Persian Āzarbāyjān."

Reysner goes on to describe in detail the contacts between the revolutionaries of Russia and of Persia. "An important part in the transmission of the experience of the peoples of Persia of Russian revolutionary experience. . . was played by the emigrants from Persian Āzarbāyjān who had gone to Russia in search of work. According to Tsarist authorities their number had reached 100,000 by 1905. By 1911 the number had increased to 200,000. The Persian revolutionaries working in the oil undertakings of Baku were drawn into the

economic and political struggle (12). . . they felt the influence of socialist ideas spread by the Hemmat organization which was led by M. Azizbekov and A. Dzhaparadze and which had been founded in 1904 by the Bolsheviks for work among the Muslim population."(11)

(It is interesting that Ivanov, whose book was published three years before Reysner's article, gives a slightly different account of the founding of the Hemmat organization: "In order to carry out mass work among the Azarbāyjāni workers, under the initiative of Stalin, the Social-Democrat group Hemmat was founded in 1904. At the head of this organization stood M. Azizbekov and A. Dzhaparadze. There was a close link between the Baku communist Bolsheviks and the Hemmat organization." Stalin is not mentioned by Reysner.)

Ivanov deals in detail with the Mojāhed organizations: "The organizations of the Society of Mojāheds were illegal. They first started to appear in 1905 in Transcaucasia and in the towns of northern Persia and were composed for the most part of petty bourgeois revolutionaries. . . The Mojāhed organizations were under strong influence from the Russian revolution and through the Hemmat organization were linked with the Transcaucasians Bolsheviks.

"Some idea of the aims and tasks of the Society is given by their programme which was accepted in September 1907 at the conference of representatives of the organizations of Mojāheds in Mashhad.

"In this programme the following demands were put forward: the introduction of universal, direct and equal suffrage and the secret ballot; the realization of the so-called seven freedoms - freedom of speech, of the press, of address, of assembly, of association, of the person and the freedom to strike; the confiscation of the Shah's lands, the buying up of the khans' lands and their distribution among the peasants; the eight-hour working day; the change of the fiscal system by the introduction of a proportional property tax; general, compulsory and free education; and other democratic demands. It is necessary, however, to point out that as a result of the preponderance of petty bourgeois elements in the Society, mistaken opinions and tactics which were harmful to the development of the revolution were widespread: sectarianism, conspiratorial tactics (zagovorshchichestvo) and individual terror. The Mojāheds organized several terroristic acts against the reactionaries (the murder of Atabek-i-A'zam in August 1907, the attempt on Mohammad 'Ali Shah in February 1908 and others)."(13)

Closely associated by Ivanov with the Mojāhed organizations are the Fedā'i. "In the first years of the revolution the Mojāheds started the

tions of voluntary armed bands of the revolutionary guard - the Fedā'is. The Fedā'is were created around the Mojāhed bands and were composed of peasants, workers, the urban poor and bourgeoisie. Great help in organizing the Fedā'is was given by the Mojāhed bands by the Transcaucasian revolutionaries. The Fedā'is became the main armed force of the Persian revolution."(14) The capture of the Fedā'is, after the Bakhtiyāris captured Tehran in July 1910, held by Ivanov to be one of the causes for the end of the revolution. "In August 1910, by order of the government, the Tehran garrison led by the Dashnak Yefrem and the Bakhtiyāri bands supported by a Cossack brigade, disarmed the revolutionary Fedā'is by force. . . . The Russian ambassador Poklevskiy-Kozell reported that these actions by the government roused great dissatisfaction among the population. With the disarming of the Fedā'is the Persian revolution lost its most determined force. The leading part of the Dashnak Yefrem in the capture of the revolutionary Fedā'is showed once more the counter-revolutionary part played by the Dashnaks in the Persian revolution."(15)

considerably more importance is attached by Ivanov to the Mojāhed bands Fedā'is than to the anjoman although these are discussed in considerable detail. Ivanov comments on the movement: "Soon. . . there was no more or less important town or little place where there was no anjoman. Apart from the town and regional anjomans. . . there were anjomans in the form of political clubs, trade unions, rural associations, and various kinds of society, etc. A huge number of anjomans rose up in the city of Tehran alone there were about 140 different types of anjoman. These anjomans included the widest possible strata of the masses."(16) But Ivanov adds also: "It must be noted that the Tabriz anjoman, like the other anjomans, was by its composition and by the character of its activity a bourgeois organization."(17)

It is thus that in describing the defence of Tabriz (1907-9) Ivanov stresses the part played by the Fedā'is rather than that of the anjoman bands. Particular emphasis is here again given to the activities of the Transcaucasian and Russian revolutionaries who helped in the siege. Ivanov also in his article (11) seems to ascribe less importance to the anjomans. "The Fedā'is played the decisive role both in the defence of Tabriz and in the march on Tehran. . . ." Reysner goes on to give an account of how the Transcaucasian and Russian revolutionaries in Tabriz: "In Transcaucasia the 'Group for cooperation with the revolution' was formed. In Baku, Batum and Tiflis collections of arms were dispatched, and people prepared to go to Tabriz. In Baku the Bolsheviks' underground printing press printed proclamations. Their international calling several hundred Transcaucasian revolutionaries who illegally crossed the frontier and joined the ranks of the

fighters for the independence and freedom of Persia.(18) In this way they carried on the struggle against Tsarism which was smothering equally the Russian and (in the north of Persia) the Persian working people. In Tabriz Transcaucasian revolutionaries developed widespread propaganda work, carried out the military training of the Fedā'is, set up workshops to make bombs and hand grenades, and opened hospitals."(11) Ivanov develops this theme still further: "The Transcaucasian revolutionaries organized the illegal dispatch of arms to Persia (concealed as rice, medical supplies, etc.). The arms which were sent across the frontier by special transport under guards with red flags reached Tabriz and other towns of Persia. Numerous bands of Transcaucasian revolutionaries crossed the frontier illegally heading for Tabriz. In this way several hundred Transcaucasians reached Tabriz. They carried out propaganda work, conducted meetings, sent out proclamations, took the leading part in the organization and military instruction of the Fedā'is. . . They took direct part in the battles with the reactionary forces. . . In these battles more than twenty Caucasian revolutionaries were killed.(19) Their funeral, which about 4,000 people attended, turned into a mass popular demonstration of solidarity between the people of Tabriz and the revolutionary Caucasus and Russia. In the revolutionary struggle at Tabriz here took part revolutionaries not only from the Caucasus but also from the central regions of Russia. . . The Russian ambassador in Persia, Artwig, on 21st October 1908 reported that '(Sattār) Khān's artillery is commanded by a Russian sailor from the Potemkin who has made his way from Romania via Trebizond'."(20)

While importance is given to the "leading role" of the revolutionaries from Russia, all Soviet writers speak highly of "the outstanding revolutionary democrats"(11) - Sattār Khān and Bāqer Khān - who led the defence of Tabriz. Ivanov explains in some detail that neither leader was in fact "a khan" but that both were true sons of the people: "Sattār came from the family of a small holder in Qārādāgh. For a certain time he served as a soldier in the guard of the Heir Apparent - the governor of Āzarbāyjān. In the nineties he led a partisan force of poor peasants. From the first days of the revolution Sattār took an active part in it, was a member of the Tabriz anjoman, organized Fedā'i bands and was soon acknowledged the leader of the revolutionaries in Tabriz. . . In the Russian and western European press Sattār was called the 'Āzarbāyjāni gachev' and the 'Persian Garibaldi'. Bāqer was a stonemason."(21)

Apart from his accounts of Transcaucasian intervention in Āzarbāyjān, Ivanov quotes Colonel Lyakhov, the commander of the Shah's Cossack Brigade, as saying that in 1908 there were 500 Caucasians in Rasht, but he adds a footnote: "It is more than likely that Lyakhov exaggerated the number of Caucasians in Gilān."(22) Nevertheless Ivanov goes on: "In

Russian revolutionaries, as in Tabriz, took an active part in the nary movement in Rasht and in the advance on Tehran. Later the of the Transcaucasian Bolsheviks in Gilān extended still further. d of the summer of 1909 by a decision of the Baku committee of s, Sergo Ordzhonikidze came to Gilān and spent a whole year in . Comrade Ordzhonikidze helped the local Social-Democrat groups to direct their work into the path of Lenin. He took part in ization of international and political clubs for workers and in Rasht and Anzali (now Pahlavi); spread Marxist ideas; conducted ns, lectures and reports on the Russian revolution of 1905; the situation which was developing in Persia, the position of the lasses and the immediate tasks and aims of the revolution; and un- e policy of the imperialists and the Dashnaks. Comrade Ordzhonikidze ose links with the democratic strata of the population of Rasht, a link with the Bolshevik centre abroad, organized the delivery vik publications and their distribution among the Persian revolu- through the international clubs. Comrade Ordzhonikidze enjoyed ority among the popular masses."(23)

nsidering the influence of the Russian revolutionary movement on described by recent Soviet writers, several points should be borne Firstly, both Ivanov and Reysner appear to assume that all Cau- and Transcaucasians who came to Persia during the time of the Persian were revolutionaries and that all these revolutionaries were, if ns, at least supporters of the Social-Democrat (i.e. Communist) scondly, recent Soviet writers tend to give a much more sharply nd crystallized interpretation of the Mojāhed and Fedā'i movements ually accepted. The Mojāheds, indeed, are not generally regarded ized political party at all. On this point Malek Eshsho'rā' is book "Tārikh-e-Mokhtasar-e-Ahzāb-siyāsī" (Brief History of Parties) (Tehran, 1945) says: "In 1908 there were two political Persia, one revolutionary and the other moderate. In the same r the opening of the second majles, these two parties were given status with the names Demokrāt-e-'āmiyun and Ejtemā'iyun-e-e'tedāliyun esented to the majles."(p.8) Bahār adds later (p.12) that "the Party was on good terms with the British, and British officials vinces were well-disposed towards it. The Moderate Party had ions with the Russians." He does not mention the Mojāheds as a nov (13), however, treats the Mojāheds as an established party ves in full their programme as decided on at the Mojāhed confer- ptember 1907 (see above). Ivanov and other modern Soviet writers e two parties described by Bahār but ascribe less importance to

them. Thus Ivanov in a recent article (24) says: "There were two basic factions in the second majles: the 'moderates' . . . and the 'democrats' or 'extremists' . . . In the field of internal policy in fact there were no differences between the 'moderates' and the 'democrats' . . . In the field of foreign policy the 'moderates' turned to Britain and Tsarist Russia while the 'democrats' . . . tried by relying on imperialist Germany and the USA to limit the position of the above mentioned powers and in particular of Tsarist Russia." This differs radically from Bahār's description of party affiliations.

Both Ivanov and Reysner base their information about the Mojāheds and Transcaucasian revolutionaries on an article entitled "On the question of the role of the Bolsheviks of Transcaucasia in the Persian Revolution of 1905-11" by Ye. Bor-Ramenskiy which appeared in ISTORIK-MARKSIST No.11 of 1940. The author of this article bases his information on the personal recollections of Transcaucasians who had gone to Tabriz during the period of the Persian Revolution and on the State Archives of the Georgian SSR. On the question of the Mojāheds, Bor-Ramenskiy says that they had organizations throughout Persia, Transcaucasia and Central Asia, that the organizations were composed of "supporters of the struggle for bourgeois reform (the constitution) of Iran and for her independence." He further states that the headquarters of the Mojāheds was in Transcaucasia; this is in no way borne out by Persian historians. Both Reysner and Ivanov, however, refer to the Mojāheds as "illegal" organizations. The answer seems to be that recent Soviet writers have, deliberately or not, confused the general Mojāhed movement in Persia with organized underground groups which existed under the same name in Transcaucasia. (Bor-Ramenskiy, for instance, refers to a "Committee of Mojāheds" which was discovered by the Tsarist police in Nakhichevan in December 1907).

It is an interesting point that Reysner (11) also mentions a Persian Social Democratic Party, Ejtemā'iun-e-āmiyun as existing during the revolutionary period but does not specify whether it existed in Persia or among the Persian emigre workers in Transcaucasia. There is no reference to such a party in Ivanov, or indeed elsewhere, as existing at that period.

On the presence of Transcaucasians in the Persian revolution and especially in the siege of Tabriz confirmation is to be found in several non-Soviet sources. Kasravi Tabrizi, for instance, in his "Tārikh-e-hejdah Sāleh Āzarbāyjān" (Eighteen years of Āzarbāyjāni history) (Tehran 1938) Vol.111 (p.67) says: "What was most painful of all for the people of Tabriz was the condition of the Caucasian Mojāheds and of the Georgian and Armenian Fedā'is. These gallant men had come most energetically to the aid of Tabriz and numbers of them had lost their lives for Persian freedom. Those who remained alive went into hiding at this time (i.e. at

of the arrival of Russian troops in 1909) because the Russians
ed them as their subjects and treated them worse than anyone else.
found they hanged out of hand. The fact is that from the day the
arrived in Tabriz they (the Caucasians) dispersed and hid them-
ere they could. The Tabrizis took this very hardly." The Trans-
Russian subjects who infiltrated illegally into Persia were also
ct of reports from the Russian ambassador in Tehran, Hartwig, to
sburg.

general impression to be gathered from recent Soviet writings on
an revolution is that the influence of Russian revolutionaries
rticular of the Social-Democrat Party in Persia has been somewhat
ed. On the other hand it should be remembered that Soviet histori-
have access to many Tsarist sources, for instance the Georgian
hives used by Bor-Ramenskiy.

The Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907

Soviet writers the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907 is but one
of British hostility to the Persian revolution. I.M. Reysner
"The Persian revolution was a threat to the dominion of Russian
n the north and of British imperialism in the south of Persia. . .
reason British imperialism combined with Tsarism in putting down
an revolution. . . As a result of the Anglo-Russian agreement
on 31st August 1907 a united front between these imperialist
ainst the Persian revolution was formed and their armed inter-
n Persia followed. Foreign intervention was one of the chief
the defeat of the Persian revolution."(11) Most Soviet writers
t it was also fear of the growing influence of Germany that drove
o the agreement with her rival in Persia, Russia. "Anglo-German
tions," writes Ivanov, "which had become the basic inter-
st contradictions, moved Britain to a rapprochement with Tsarist
."(25) On the Russian side "the defeat of the Tsarist govern-
he Russo-Japanese war, the Russian revolution of 1905, and also
utionary movement in Persia"(25) were factors that brought Russia
eement with Britain.

Britain, Russia and America in Persia, 1910-12

ample of the change in Soviet historiography in the last fifteen
be seen by comparing the versions in the old and new editions
viet Encyclopaedia of events in Persia in the period 1910-12. "In
says the old edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (7), "Russia

tried several times by provoking the actions of various counter-revolutionary groups to return Mohammad 'Ali (i.e. the deposed Shah of Persia) to power, and in 1911 even organized his landing on the shore of the Caspian Sea. After the failure of these provocations, the Tsarist government in December 1911, using as an excuse the activity of the American financial expert, Shuster, who had been invited by the majles, presented Persia with a series of ultimatums and by armed force put down the remaining strongholds of the revolutionary movement in Tabriz, Rasht, and Anzali, and in 1912, in Mashhad."

In the new edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia the comparable article (6) in dealing with the 1910-12 period does not mention either Mohammad 'Ali's landing, or the Russian ultimatum, and counter-balances armed action by the Tsarist government with similar action by the British - a charge completely lacking in substance. Morgan Shuster's mission and the subsequent events are thus described: "With the aim of exploiting in their own interests the contradictions between the imperialist powers, but in fact meeting the ambitions of the imperialists of the USA to gain control of Persia, the majles gave wide powers and the right of control over revenue and expenditure to the American financier M. Shuster and his assistants, who had been sent [our underlining] to Persia in 1911 by the State Department of the USA. In December 1911 almost simultaneously with the introduction of fresh forces by Britain in the south and by Tsarist Russia in the north of Persia, the Persian police with the help of the Bakhtiyari khans once more dissolved the majles. . . The revolution in Persia had been defeated."

This latter version is typical of recent Soviet writing. Ivanov deals with Morgan Shuster's mission in a recent article (24); here he repeats the charge that Shuster was sent rather than invited to Persia with the following explanation: "On 25th December 1910 the Persian Minister of Foreign Affairs. . . suggested to the Persian mission in Washington that they should turn to the State Department of the USA about the question of inviting to Persia financial advisers. . . In January 1911 the State Department of the USA recommended to Persia five financiers led by Morgan Shuster. Formally the American government took no part in the later discussions about the conditions upon which the financial advisers would be invited to Persia, but in fact Shuster and his assistants were sent to Persia by capitalist companies and by the State Department of the USA on whose instructions Shuster in future acted. Shuster himself admits in his book that before leaving for Persia he more than once had discussions in the State Department."

On the question of Mohammad 'Ali, the tendency among recent Soviet writers is to play down the ex-Shah's connection with Russia. Thus

en describing the deposition of Mohammad 'Ali in 1909 says simply went "abroad". (26) On the other hand the NOVAYA ISTORIYA STRAN (27) says openly that Mohammad 'Ali, after his death, "went away to Russia and settled in Odessa" and, unlike the Tsarist government in his attempted coup of 1911. In the brief article on Mohammad 'Ali in the new edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia (28) there is no mention at all of his connection with Russia; the analogous article in the old edition of the Encyclopaedia (29), however, says: "A protégé and instrument of the Persian officials, Mohammad 'Ali Mirza. . . when he held the post of vice-roy in Azerbaijan pursued a russophile policy, and with the help of Persian merchants, made a living from large scale speculations in land. During the whole of his short reign, Mohammad 'Ali Mirza, in connection with Tsarist policy, carried on a bitter struggle against the Persian crown, maintaining the interests of the large feudal land-owners and opposing the national interests of his native land to the interest of the Russian empire. . . (After his deposition) Mohammad 'Ali Mirza went away to Russia and settled in Odessa. In the autumn of 1911, relying on the support of the Persian counter-revolution and supported by the Tsarist government, Mohammad 'Ali Mirza. . . unsuccessfully attempted to re-ascend the throne, after which he returned to Russia."

for the Russian troops who occupied northern Persia from 1909 to the start of the First World War and of whose activities Browne in THE STRUGGLE OF THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION gives so unflattering a picture, far more attention is given in recent Soviet books to showing that the actions of the Tsarist government in this respect were no worse and, by comparison, perhaps even better than the British. The end of the siege of Herat is thus described in the NOVAYA ISTORIYA (30) ". . . To the end of the Shah came the imperialists. The British colonizers landed their troops in many parts of the Persian Gulf. In Bushire the British revolutionists broke up the local anjoman, and fired on the revolutionists with machine guns. In the north of Persia the Tsarist forces led by General Snarskiy crossed the Persian frontier and entered Herat on 29th April 1909. The Tsarist army were soon brought into other parts of Southern Azerbaijan (31) and Gilan as well. But the Tsarist government, taking into account the strength of the Fedā'is in Tabriz and the influence of the Azerbaijanian population to rise to the defence of their leaders decided not to disperse the bands of revolutionary Fedā'is. . . The situation in Persia in 1910 is thus described (32) ". . . Southern Azerbaijan and Gilan were almost entirely occupied by the Tsarist army. The feudal lords and the land-owners carried out reprisals among the peasants. The bands of Rahim Khān were distinguished for their particular bravery. . . In the south of Persia the British reinforced their troops and together with the khans of the tribes restored the old order with

fire and sword. The introduction of Russian and British troops roused immense indignation among the Persian people. A boycott of foreign goods began spontaneously. In 1910 on the day of the Persian New Year (21st March) national mourning was proclaimed. . ." There were in fact no British troops in Persia at this time.

Soviet writers admit that the Russian army occupied Persian Āzarbāyjān until after the start of the 1914 war. Ivanov describes the position thus (33): "The armies of Tsarist Russia and Britian which had occupied northern and southern Persia during the suppression of the revolution of 1905-11 were not completely evacuated from Persia. On the eve of the war, the army of Tsarist Russia was stationed in the northern part of Persian Āzarbāyjān occupying the town of Khuy and others. On the river Karun were British warships and British detachments occupied the towns of Ahvāz and Mohammareh in Khuzestān in the areas of activity of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. The most efficient troops in Persia were in the north - the Cossack brigade numbering about 8,000 men led by Russian officers; in the south - the police detachments (about 7,000 men) led by Swedish officers." (34).

In accordance with the general Soviet policy of understating the aggressive actions of the Tsarist army of occupation (Ivanov does not for example mention the Russians' connection with the Rahim Khān) Soviet writers play down also the aggressive attitude adopted by the Russian government in the years following the Persian revolution and before the outbreak of the war, and consequently exaggerate British "imperialist aims." This is particularly apparent in descriptions of the Russian ultimatum to Persia in 1911. Ivanov (35) gives the following account of the 1911 ultimatum: "After the defeat of the bands of the ex-Shah the majles passed a law for the confiscation of the property of the former Shah and of the chief participants in his rising. On the basis of this law, by the order of Shuster, an inventory of the property of Shoja-os-Saltaneh, the brother of the ex-Shah was carried out in Āzarbāyjān. As the property of this Prince was pledged to the Russian Bank of Persia a conflict arose between the Tsarist consul in Tabriz and the representatives of Shuster's administration.

"In November 1911 the Tsarist government together with Britain our underlining presented Persia with an ultimatum which demanded that Shuster be dismissed, that expenses for the upkeep of the Tsarist army in Persia be compensated, and that in future foreign advisers should not be invited without the knowledge and agreement of Tsarist Russia and Britain. This ultimatum, which destroyed the sovereignty of Persia, caused a storm of indignation. Mass meetings and demonstrations were held everywhere under the slogan of "Death or Independence". A boycott of foreign goods

The majles rejected the ultimatum." In fact, Britain was in no contact with the ultimatum.

answer to this" continues Ivanov, "the Tsarist government directed forces to Āzarbāyjān, Gilān and Khorasān. Britain directed her forces to the southern regions and towns of Persia. The revolutionary forces offered armed opposition to the Tsarist army in Tabriz, Anzali, Rasht and Mazandaran. Particularly stubborn was the struggle in Tabriz where it lasted right up to the first days of January 1912. The Tsarist army directed fresh military detachments to Tabriz with artillery. With this with the help of the counter-revolutionary bands did the Tsarist army defeat the revolutionary forces and take Tabriz. The capture of Tabriz was accompanied by executions, shooting, violence and looting on the part of the counter-revolutionary bands." As if to counter-balance Ivanov describes the conduct of non-existent British troops. "The capture of the towns of Iran were captured by British forces, which put down the revolutionary movement with exceptional cruelty. . . Making use of the cooperation of the Tsarist army in the north and of the British in the south of Persia, the Persian reaction, with the help of the Dashnak detachments and the Bakhtiyāris, in December 1911 carried out a revolutionary coup d'etat in Tehran. Yefrem's detachments and the British troops took the majles building. The majles was dissolved and once again a reactionary feudal aristocracy led by the Qājār clique came to power in Persia. The government accepted the Anglo-Russian ultimatum." (35)

The association of Britain with the Russian ultimatum of 1911 is also repeated in the NOVAYA ISTORIYA (36) and by Ivanov in his article on Shuster (24). It is interesting that in the latter work Ivanov goes into detail with what he calls the "Stokes affair" whereas he barely mentions this in his book. (37) In his article Ivanov writes: "Major Stokes is well known as one of the most hostile to Russia of all British officials in Persia. . . Shuster decided to appoint him head of the military police created by him. . . The appointment of Stokes was an open challenge to Russia. . . The Tsarist government more than once protested against the appointment of Stokes. . . The 'Stokes affair' took on such a serious character that it came to be considered as a threat to the preservation of the Entente. As a result of Russia's pressure on the British government, deciding in the conditions of the growing Anglo-German contradictions not to risk the Anglo-Russian agreement, the British government decided to withdraw. On 2nd December 1911 the British Foreign Secretary Grey, informed the British ambassador in Tehran. . . that it was suggested to Stokes in a categorical form that he refuse the offer which was offered him by Shuster." In the same article (24) Ivanov goes into detail the anti-Russian attitude taken by Shuster and his aim of ending the Anglo-Russian disagreement" yet does not explain how Britain

In spite of her disagreements with Russia came to associate with her over the 1911 ultimatum. Ivanov says simply: "The intrigues of the British with Shuster began to threaten the Anglo-Russian agreement and the Entente. The British government had to stop their attempt to make use of Shuster and had to support the demand of the Tsarist government for his dismissal. Shuster was dismissed and on 11th January 1912 he was forced to leave Persia."

Ivanov appears to be the only recent Soviet writer to mention at all the bombardment of the shrine of Emām Rezā at Mashhad in 1912. This episode is described in detail by Sykes in his HISTORY OF PERSIA: Sykes was eyewitness but he ascribes no motive to the Russians for this shelling apart from that of provocation. Ivanov, on the other hand, associates the episode directly with the events following the Russian ultimatum of 1911 and by placing the description of the incident before the account of the acceptance of the Russian ultimatum by the Persian government and by not mentioning the date implies that the bombardment was a move by Russia to enforce her ultimatum. Ivanov writes as follows: (38) "The towns of northern Persia - Isfahān, Qazvin, Asterābād, Mashhad and others - were captured by the Tsarist forces. In Mashhad the supporters of the reaction with the aim of provocation organized a bast in the mosque (sic) Emām Rezā having demanded the return of Mohammad 'Ali Shah to the throne. This gave an excuse to the Tsarist command to bombard the mosque of Emām Rezā. But the provocateurs, who had been warned beforehand, escaped before the bombardment. Consequently this in Mashhad also the bands of revolutionary Fedā'is were disarmed and a regime of counter-revolutionary terror was set up in the town." Ivanov then goes on to describe the acceptance of the Russian ultimatum by the Persian government quoted above. (35)

The Gilān Republic, 1920-21

The importance of the Gilān episode of 1920-21 lies in the fact that it was the first instance since the Russian Revolution of direct Soviet military intervention in the affairs of Persia and the first, and so far the only, instance of the creation of a Soviet republic within the territory of an independent country of the Middle East. It is of some interest to recall that almost exactly two hundred years before, Gilān had been ceded to Russia under the peace of 1723. It was returned to Persia with the other Caspian provinces between 1729 and 1735.

The most recent Soviet account of the confused events surrounding the short-lived Gilān Republic is that by M.N. Ivanova entitled "The national-liberation movement in the Gilān province

Persia in 1920-21" which appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE 3 of 1955 which was mentioned in CAR, Vol. III, No. 4, p. 346. It is interesting to compare this version with an earlier one by Irandust which appeared in the periodical ISTORIK-MARKSIST No. 5 of 1957 under the title of "Aspects of the Gilān Revolution". The following analysis is based on these two articles. From the western point of view a fairly detailed account is to be found in Lenczowski's RUSSIA AND THE WEST IN IRAN (New York, 1949). A full account from the Persian point of view is to be found in SIYĀSATE DAULATE IRAVIHĀ DAR IRĀN (Soviet Policy in Persia) by Manshur Gorgāni.

Madame Ivanova treats the Gilān republic as but one aspect of the national liberation movement which developed in Persia under the influence of the Great October Socialist Revolution (and which) in the twenties took possession of the whole country and advanced under the banner of the liberation of Persia from the yoke of British imperialism to national independence." Irandust, however, starts from a different premise: "The Gilān revolution is not just one of the stages of the general revolutionary movement. . . It represents an independent and complete cycle of revolutionary movement. . . By its content the Gilān revolution is the highest stage. . . to be found in recent years in the Near East."

Both authors give accounts of the Jangali movement out of which the revolution was born and of Kuchek Khān, the leader of the movement. Madame Ivanova, however, differentiates sharply between "the detachments of the Jangalis (who) were formed of peasants, labourers, petty urban and village bourgeoisie, and of the leadership of the movement which was "seized by the pan-Islamic committee - a bourgeois-nationalist, pan-Islamic organization. Thus, continues Madame Ivanova, "at the beginning of 1918 two tendencies became apparent among the participants of the Jangali movement: the first group, which had great influence on Kuchek Khān. . . consisted of representatives of the upper and middle trade bourgeoisie - land-owners, and clergy, who, although they aimed at reforms and the overthrow of the power of the Shah and of the feudalists, yet stood for the maintenance of the feudal order in the country. The second group consisted of petty bourgeoisie, the poor, and the Kurdish batraks who were the land-owners of Gilān. The basic demands of this group were directed towards changing existing agrarian relations. Kuchek himself stood out against any truly democratic transformations or improvement of the position of the peasantry. The administration of the

province when it was taken over by the Jangalis remained as before and all orders were given in the name of the Shah. But the revenues of the province went to Kuchek and not to the Shah's treasury."

Iran dust and other sources give a somewhat different picture of the aims and administration of Kuchek's government. Iran dust, for instance, says that "the Gilān revolution is of interest just because in it an attempt at a revolutionary solution of the agrarian problem was made." Lenczowski (39) quotes from Ehsānollah Khān (the extreme left-wing leader of the Jangali movement) as follows: "Kuchek's movement was financed by extorting ransom from the Gilān land-owners. 'We widely practised the system of taking hostages,' wrote Ehsānollah Khān in his memoirs. 'Taking any wealthy squire, feudal lord or entrepreneur, we would demand the sum of five thousand to one hundred thousand tomans under threat of putting them in jail. If the demand was not paid we deported the debtor till he would pay us'." Ivanov (40) writing of the aims of Kuchek's government says: "The government of Kuchek Khān faced such basic tasks as the struggle against the imperialists and the driving of the British from Persia; the removal of the Shah's authority and the capture of Tehran; the struggle against the large feudal reactionaries. . . . In the field of the agrarian problem the Gilān revolutionary government carried out a policy of confiscating the lands of the great feudal reactionaries who had fled to Tehran. Kuchek Khān was against the confiscation of the land-owners' lands in general and against their division among the peasants. His slogan on the agrarian question as before was the demand for the return to the old 'democratic order of Islam'." Madame Ivanova, however, gives the programme of Kuchek's provisional revolutionary government in 1920 as follows:

- "1. The struggle with the monarchy and the establishment of a republic in Persia.
2. The defence of the individual and of the property of the whole population.
3. The liquidation of every sort of one-sided agreement and treaty concluded between the Persian government and the governments of other powers.
4. The equality of all nations.
5. The defence of Islam."

For this programme she quotes the newspaper JANGAL of 6th July 1920.

Madame Ivanova emphasizes the fact that Kuchek Khān in 1918 made an agreement with the British: "In spite of the fact that the revolutionarily minded Jangalis demanded a continuation of the struggle against the British occupiers, Kuchek Khān on 12th August 1918 accepted the conditions of the British, ceased from military action and entered into an alliance with the British." Irandust, however, being more favourably inclined to the Jangalis and Kuchek in general, emphasizes rather the fact that the Jangalis fought against the British. Madame Ivanova, however, implies that the earlier resistance of the Jangalis to the British came from the Jangalis themselves as distinct from Kuchek; she writes: "In 1918 the British occupation spread to Gilān as well. The Jangalis together with the people of the town of Anzali showed resistance to the special British force under General Dunsterville which had to pass through Gilān to Baku on its way to Tiflis." (It is interesting to note that this is Madame Ivanova's sole reference to the Anzali soviet which was composed largely of Persian soldiers left in Persia after the collapse of the Tsarist regime in 1917. Ivanov, however, describes this soviet and its connection with the Jangalis in more detail.) Thus: "In 1918 on the initiative of Russian revolutionary soldiers local soviets were formed at Anzali and Anzali. They were composed of delegates from Russian military units and representatives of the Persian population. . . The organization of these soviets in Rasht and Anzali gave a new impetus to the partisan struggle of the Jangalis." Madame Ivanova entirely omits to mention that there were any Russian troops in Gilān at the end of the First World War.)

In spite of the British, Madame Ivanova goes on to explain, in spite of their agreement with Kuchek, betrayed him: "'The autonomous government' of Gilān lasted until 1919. Then the Tehran government with the help of the same British (sic) decided to finish off the Jangali movement. In order to put down the movement detachments of the Persian army were sent and in the struggle against them the Jangali forces were defeated. . . In January 1920 Kuchek capitulated before the government of Vosuqoddauleh. The British and the Tehran government believed that they had finished with the Jangali movement in Gilān."

In spite of the fact that Kuchek capitulated in January 1920, Madame Ivanova continues, "in May 1920 Gilān once more rose in rebellion. The Jangalis, mainly inclined workers, peasants, artisans, and petty traders, came forward with new strength to the struggle for the liberation of their country from the yoke of British enslavement. New detachments of Jangalis were formed at whose head once more stood Kuchek who repudiated his agreement with Vosuqoddauleh's government. The liberation movement grew with great force throughout Gilān. The British administration and the big feudalists fled from the province, the power of which now passed to Kuchek. On 4th June 1920 Kuchek with his

forces, numbering about 2,000 men, entered Rasht. A republic was proclaimed in Gilān."

Significant in this description of the establishment of the Gilān republic is the fact that Madame Ivanova makes no mention at all of the Bolshevik force under Raskol'nikov which landed at Anzali on 18th May 1920, or indeed of any contact between Kuchek and his forces and the Bolsheviks. Lenczowski (42), on the other hand, (quoting again from Ehsānollah's memoirs) recounts how after the defeat of the Jangalis by the Persian government troops in the summer of 1919, "both Jangali leaders (i.e. Kuchek and Ehsānollah) came to the conclusion that the revival and further success of the Gilān revolution would depend on Soviet Russia. Following this line Kuchek went to Lankoran, a province of Russian Āzarbāyjān. There he learned that Kolomytsev, the unofficial Soviet representative in Tehran who had been obliged to flee from Iran, was trying on his own initiative to get in touch with the Jangalis. . . In the early spring of 1920 the Jangalis received a letter from a Bolshevik commander in the Caucasus informing them that the Bolsheviks would soon capture Baku. Evidently the Soviet forces were seeking closer liaison with the Iranian rebels in anticipation of their invasion of Iran. . ." Apart from Lenczowski, such recent Soviet authorities as Ivanov (43) and the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA STRAN ZARUBEZHNOGO VOSTOKA (44) describe the landing of Soviet troops in Anzali (although without mentioning Raskol'nikov by name), and the effect of this landing on the Gilān revolution. Thus the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA says (44): "In order to return the ships that had been taken away by the interventionists and to liquidate the threat from the British and White Guard forces stationed in Anzali and Rasht, on 18th May 1920 a Soviet military and naval fleet arrived at Anzali and landed a force which took the port and the town. The British occupying forces and the remnants of the White Guards. . . fled from Anzali and Rasht in panic. . . The Sepoy detachments of the British Indian army which were stationed in northern Persia refused to fight against the Red Army. As a result of this successful operation the Soviet sailors with one blow liberated the ships of the Caspian fleet and liquidated the base from which the British imperialists and the White Guard bands were preparing to invade the Soviet republic. . . The brilliant success of the Soviet fleet and landing party at Anzali and the panic-stricken flight of the British occupying forces gave a powerful new impetus to the mass struggle of the peoples of Persia against the British imperialists. The national liberation movement developed with new strength in Gilān."

Iran dust too takes much the same line although in considerably milder tone. In view of the angle from which the Anzali incident is described in the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA and in other sources it is remarkable that Madame Ivanova ignores it entirely. Not one of the Soviet writings

and say how long exactly the Soviet troops remained on Persian soil.

Madame Ivanova divides the period from the establishment of the revolution in May 1920 until its liquidation in the autumn of 1921 into three periods; in this she differs from Irandust who, in his article, divides it into four. (Iran dust in fact has six stages but the first and last cover the periods respectively before and after 1920-21 not fully dealt with by Madame Ivanova.) Both writers treat the period May to July 1920 as one period.

According to Madame Ivanova it was "characterized by the united front for struggle against British imperialism and its supporters ruling clique of the feudal aristocracy and the entrepreneur bourgeoisie." But, she continues, "Kuchek's government, inclined to half-hearted decisions and endless compromises with the Shah's government, the extension of the revolutionary events and the participation of popular masses in them. It aimed rather at localizing the movement by restricting it to the Gilan province than at turning it into a national liberation movement on a pan-Iranian scale." While blaming Kuchek's government for taking "no measures for the improvement of the position of workers, peasants and artisans", Madame Ivanova blames still more "the counter-revolutionary policy carried out by a group of traitors led by Sultān-zādeh who had made their way to the leadership of the (Persian) Communist Party. . . Sultān-zādeh's group demanded the confiscation of the lands of the landowners' lands, even those of small-holders, carried out requisitioning among the peasants, petty traders and artisans, and demanded an end to cooperation with the petty and middle bourgeoisie. Its propaganda against religion and the clergy bore a provocative character. The counter-revolutionary activity of this group, into which entered agents of the Shah and of the Shah's government, was at cross purposes with the programme of the national government. On 19th July 1920, Kuchek with his forces withdrew from the forests. With this the first stage of the national liberation movement in Gilan came to an end."

During the first period, however, Madame Ivanova explains, the first congress of the Persian Communist Party had been held at Anzali: "On 22nd May 1920 the first congress of the Persian Communist Party was held; the party had been formed out of the Social-Democrat party 'Adālat which had been founded in 1916 by Persian workers. . . The organization of the party was legalized in Gilan at the end of May 1920. Basically in the period 1920-21 the activity of the Communist Party was confined to Gilan which at that time was the centre of the national liberation movement in Persia. The Communist Party set itself the task of proclaiming the national liberation movement in Persia and of preserving the united front for the struggle against British imperialism." It is interesting to note that Madame Ivanova implicitly approved the "united front" tactics of the party formed Communist Party, she blames Kuchek, the head of the

"united front" government, for lack of a progressive policy and puts the blame for his withdrawal at the end of the coalition on the left-wing Communists "who had made their way to the leadership of the Party". The old Soviet Encyclopaedia supports Madame Ivanova on this point (45): "Kuchek was on the right wing of the block. On 19th July he resigned from his post and went into the forests with a group of supporters. One of the reasons for his withdrawal was a disagreement with the tactics of the Trotskyist elements who had broken the united anti-imperialist front. . ." Particularly interesting is Madame Ivanova's mention of "the traitor Sultān-zādeh". According to Lenczowski (46), Sultān-zādeh was the same person as Pishevari, the principal figure in the Āzarbāyjān movement of 1945-6 and was actually brought in to Gilān by Raskol'nikov "to take charge of the Gilān Commissariat of the Interior" (47). Lenczowski furthermore quotes an article by Sultān-zādeh which appeared in PRAVDA of 16th July 1921 in which he praises the work done by the Anzali congress mentioned by Madame Ivanova; after the fall of the Gilān republic, Sultān-zādeh was chief of the Near Eastern Section of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in Moscow and representative of the Persian Communist Party at the Third International. (48) Sultān-zādeh is not mentioned either by Irandust or by Ivanov or in the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA. In the latter book the reason for Kuchek's withdrawal is ascribed to "the 'left' deviationists. . ." (49) Irandust, however, simply says that it was the Central Committee of the Persian Communist Party that on 10th July voted for the removal of Kuchek.

According to Madame Ivanova, "the second stage of the Gilān events (i.e. July-October 1920) was characterized by the disintegration of the united multi-racial front." She goes on to describe how "on 31st July a new government led by the anarchist-terrorist Ehsānollah Khān came to power in Gilān. A national committee for the liberation of Persia was created into which entered supporters of Ehsānollah's extreme-left policy and also Sultān-zādeh's group." She blames Ehsānollah's government for accepting "a demagogic programme for socialist revolution in Persia at a time when there was no firm social base for putting it into practice in view of the small number and lack of strength of the Persian proletariat." Moreover, she says, Ehsānollah "did not carry out his own declarations" and in fact worsened the position of the peasants, workers and artisans. His march on Tehran in August 1920, undertaken "without the necessary preparation, ended in the defeat of the revolutionary army." (50) The situation was, however, saved, according to Madame Ivanova, by the election of a new central committee of the Persian Communist Party in October 1920 which led to the third stage in the development of the Gilān Republic.

It is here that Madame Ivanova differs strongly from Irandust.

ng to his interpretation the stage which started with the with-
of Kuchek did not end until May 1921, i.e. when Kuchek again join-
ith Ehsānollah to form another "united front". During this period
920 to May 1921), according to Irandust, Ehsānollah's government
first the methods of "war communism" and when these proved
factory turned to a "new economic policy", that is, Irandust
, he followed closely the methods of the Soviet government in
in the early years after the Revolution. There is no hint of
comparison in Madame Ivanova's work.

r third and final stage (which started in October 1920) "was char-
ed by the passing of the leadership of the movement to the Persian
st Party who had taken the course of uniting all the revolutionary
of Gilān." The man who made this possible was "the famous Persian
lonary, Haydar Khān Amu-Ogly. . . (who) . . . enjoyed great author-
ng the Persian working population as one who had taken part in the
ion of 1905-11 and as the organizer of the Persian Communist Party
he workers' movement." This is the first mention of Haydar Khān
e Ivanova's work. Lenczowski on the other hand implies that
joined the Gilān republic at its inception though he does not say
when and does not quote a source for this information (51). The
et Encyclopaedia (52) and Irandust bear Madame Ivanova out by
hat Haydar came to Gilān only at the end of the republic and
aydar is not mentioned among those who formed the revolutionary
nt in Rasht on 5th June 1920.(53)

new Central Committee of the Persian Communist Party, continues
Ivanova, of which Haydar Khān was elected secretary in October 1920,
d the 'theses on the social-economic position of Persia and on the
of the Persian Communist Party Adālat' in January 1921. . . In
es a detailed analysis was given of the social-economic position
a and the different classes and stages of revolutionary movement
racterized. It was acknowledged to be impossible to introduce
ely socialist measures and the expropriation of the trade
sie connected with them, but a solution to the agrarian question
transfer of the lands of the big feudalists to the peasants was
ed essential. After accepting the theses Haydar and the other
of the Central Committee, considering it necessary to establish a
ational front of struggle such as had existed in the first stage
evolutionary events in Gilān, began talks with Kuchek and other
of the movement. An agreement between the Central Committee of
unist Party, Ehsānollah's government and Kuchek about combined
against the British and the Shah's government was concluded on 8th
"

For Irandust a new period now starts with the renewal of the united front in May 1921. "In this period," he writes, "Haydar Khān became the outstanding figure of the revolution."

With a united front government once more in power in Gilān a certain amount of progress was made in improving conditions. The Communist Party says Madame Ivanova "gave serious attention to work among the agricultural strata and poorest peasants. . . The authority of the Communist Party among the peasants of Gilān greatly increased. The secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Persia, Haydar was elected president of the peasants' 'Council of Jangal'. . . At the end of July and beginning of August. . . the Revolutionary Committee (i.e. the government). . . took a series of most important decisions - about the review and reform of the existing legislation in Gilān, about the unification of all the various detachments into one revolutionary army. . . Various measures were also taken in the field of popular education, health, and social insurance. Much propaganda work was carried out among the population. Trade-unions. . . were created. On 4th August 1921 Gilān was proclaimed a Soviet Republic." Meanwhile, however, Madame Ivanova explains that the united front government was torn by dissension and part of the members of the Revolutionary Committee carried on a secret struggle for the leadership of the movement. Ehsānollah, with the aim of once more standing at the head of the revolutionary government, arbitrarily undertook an adventurist advance on Tehran which was not agreed to by the Revolutionary Committee and which ended in the defeat of his forces." Enczowski, however, says of this advance on Tehran that "in June 1921 Kuchek Khān's forces, reinforced by some Soviet troops from Georgia, began to march on Tehran." (54) All recent Soviet writers, however, lay the blame for the expedition solely on Ehsānollah - presumably on the assumption that the unification of the armed forces, referred to by Madame Ivanova, had not at that time yet taken place.

Iran dust starts another period on 4th August 1921, the day on which Gilān was proclaimed a Soviet Republic. The dissensions which Madame Ivanova describes above are laid primarily by Irandust to the blame of Haydar Khān who wanted to gain control of Kuchek's Jangali area. In self defence Kuchek arrests Haydar. The end of the Gilān republic is, however, otherwise described by Madame Ivanova: "Kuchek and his circle, feared the extension of the revolution and saw the growing influence of the Communist Party and its popularity in Gilān. They had kept in touch with the agents of the British and the Persian reactionaries and these urged them to a struggle with the Communists. They thus decided to get rid of Haydar Khān. . . and other leading workers of the Communist Party. Kuchek entered the path of open betrayal and treachery. A plan for a counter-revolutionary conspiracy was worked out by Kuchek and representatives of

ernment of Qavam, who had arrived from Tehran. Their special task get Kuchek to negotiate by promising him the post of governor of The plan was realized by Kuchek on 29th September 1921. Haydar d other leading Party workers were killed. The Communist Party ations in Rasht and Anzali were destroyed. As a result of the -revolutionary coup d'etat in Gilān a civil war began and the t was put down at the end of 1921 by government forces under the of Reza Khān." Madame Ivanova omits to mention that Kuchek him- rished soon afterwards when being pursued by the government troops. Ehsānollah emigrated to the Soviet Union, or, most important of at Soviet forces were finally withdrawn from Gilān on 21st er 1921.

ame Ivanova's reasons for the failure of the Gilan Republic are ows: "The national-liberation movement in Gilān was put down by reaction with the most active assistance of Britain. Its tion was made possible by the local character of the revolutionary their isolation from the national-liberation movement which was ng at that time in Persian Āzarbāyjān and Khorāsān and by the of the newly formed Persian working class which could not ensure ervation of the united multi-racial front. . ." Moreover, s Madame Ivanova, "the trade bourgeoisie and middle land-owners part in Kuchek Khān's government, feared the spread of the onary movement. . . As the national liberation movement deepened the trade bourgeoisie and middle land-owners began to withdraw revolutionary movement and the champion of their interests, hān, entered on a path of open treachery."

ame Ivanova's final words are: "In drawing up the balance sheet ational-liberation movement in Gilān in 1920-21, it can be stated s movement was directed against British imperialism and the lique. At the same time it made possible the liquidation of the rsian Treaty of 1919 and eventually the overthrow of the Qājār . The national-liberation movement in Gilān showed that unlike ter-revolutionary class of large feudalists and entrepreneurs who ported by foreign imperialists, the broad masses of the people an alliance with Soviet Russia since they saw in such an a guarantee for their freedom and independence."

ndust's "balance sheet" is somewhat different. Firstly, he gives a revolution a wider significance than does Madame Ivanova: while the movement solely as "directed against British imperialism and clique", Irandust distinguishes three strands in the movement: ational liberation movement directed against imperialism; two, a -democratic movement directed against feudalism; and three, a

olitarian-communist movement directed against the bourgeoisie. It is significant moreover that Irandust throughout writes of the "Gilān revolution" whereas Madame Ivanova calls it "the national-liberation movement in Gilān". Secondly, Irandust gives greater importance to the place the Gilān revolution in Persian history than does Madame Ivanova or indeed any other recent Soviet historians; thus Irandust says: "The Gilān revolution occupies a higher place in comparison with the (Persian) revolution of 1905-9 since it has not an upper-class (*verkhushrechnyy*), but mass, character." It would be true to say that recent Soviet historians have taken almost exactly the opposite attitude and while belittling the importance of Gilān have been at pains to show the "mass" character of the 05-9 revolution. Thirdly, there is a marked difference in the attitudes Madame Ivanova and Irandust to the part played by the Persian Communist Party in the Gilān revolution: the implication running through Madame Ivanova's article is that the Party was always right; any wrong policies may have entered upon were due to "traitors" and "deviationists"; the Party itself was correct and unanimous, and all the achievements of the Gilān revolution are to be directly or indirectly ascribed to it. For Irandust the Party was but one factor in the Gilān revolution and was by no means always unanimous; thus for example Irandust writes: "In evaluating the programme and tactics of the Persian Communist Party in the Gilān revolution, it is essential to take into consideration that in different periods the leadership of the Party belonged to different tendencies which struggled among themselves."

The Soviet Army in North Persia, 1920-21

In dealing with events in Gilān in 1920-21 Soviet writers maintain the same silence about the decisive role played by the Red Army which they observe when describing the separatist movement of 1945 in Āzarbāyjān. Even historians writing before the Second World War do not directly implicate the Soviet army in the Gilān revolution although its presence is mentioned; recent historians omit any reference to it altogether apart from the sole fact of the incident at Anzali on 18th May 1920. From the western point of view the most detailed account of the composition and activities of the Soviet troops in north Persia in 1920-21 is to be found in an article by George Ducroq which was published in REVUE DU MONDE MUSULMAN in 1922.(55)

Recent Soviet historians, but not Madame Ivanova, whose article on Gilān revolution is discussed above, mention Raskol'nikov's landing at Anzali on 18th May 1920 but imply that it was short-lived and do not

t at all with the Gilān revolution. Thus the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA "the landing of Soviet sailors (sic) at Anzali" on p.251 and "revolutionary movement in Gilān" only on p.256, the intervening pages filled with accounts of Sayyed Ziā's coup d'etat and of the Soviet-treaty of 1921. Very much the same attitude is taken by earlier Thus "Iranskiy" in his article "Five years of Russo-Persian" which appeared in 1923 (56) justifies Raskol'nikov's landing by "The Soviet command, having cleared the port of Anzali and all the shore of the Caspian Sea of the British, and having thus deprived the possibility of organizing thence a new invasion of the Soviet was concerned only with the defence of the approaches to the sea and to the Transcaucasian frontiers but not at all with the prospect of a further advance against the British, which would have turned Persian territory into a battlefield; refusal to do this declared by the Soviet government in Comrade Karakhan's Note of 1919. After their withdrawal from Anzali, the British at first displayed a waiting attitude. A new factor which forced their army to a withdrawal to the south was the development of the revolutionary movement in Gilān." Iranskiy then goes on to say that although "the government accused the Soviet government of sending Red troops to Chicherin in a Note of 16th July 1920 "with regard to the Gilān announced the complete non-interference of the Soviet government in the internal affairs of Persia." (George Ducroq (55), on the other hand, in a Note from Chicherin to Firuz, the Persian Foreign Minister, June 1920 in which Chicherin says that Raskol'nikov was concerned with the defence of the Caspian; i.e. admits the presence of a Soviet Persian territory.)

question of the withdrawal of the Soviet forces from north Persia considered by Iranskiy quite separately from the rising in Gilān. Iranskiy writes that in January 1921 "the anglophile Persian cabinet presented the Persian government with a demand for the withdrawal of Soviet troops from the frontier strip (sic) of Persia. In answer to this demand Comrade Karakhan, on 22nd January, informed the Persian government that the sole condition for the evacuation of Soviet troops from the frontier strip was the withdrawal of British troops in Persia and that for this reason the Soviet troops were there for the defence of the approaches to the Soviet frontier from the British would be recalled only when the British troops had been evacuated from the country. Our firmness at this moment had great significance: it determined the final evacuation of British troops from Persia." Iranskiy goes on to recount how Rothstein, the newly appointed Soviet representative to Tehran, was held up at the frontier in the spring of 1921: "Comrade Rothstein arrived on the Russo-Persian frontier, the Persian government stopped him. . . making the condition for his entry into Persia the withdrawal of Soviet troops from the frontier strip of Persia."

his side, Comrade Rothstein answered with an immediate and decided refusal and the Soviet government's point of view was affirmed about the withdrawal of Soviet troops only on the evacuation of British troops from Persia, a point of view which had already found expression in the Russo-Persian treaty signed in Moscow on 26th February 1921." (Iranskiy then notes Article 6 of the treaty under which Russia was allowed to send troops to Persia in the case of a third power using Persia as a base for attack on Russia.)

In neither Ivanov nor the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA is any of this mentioned. While the latter work says of Rothstein's arrival: "The (Persian) government for a long time hid the contents of the Soviet-Persian treaty from the broad masses of Persian society, decided not to publish the full text of the treaty, under various pretexts did not allow the entry of the Soviet ambassador into Persia, etc., etc.," (57), Ivanov merely says: "In November 1920 the Soviet government had appointed its ambassador to Persia. In January 1921 the Persian government made known its agreement to accept the Soviet ambassador. In this way relations between Persia and Soviet Russia began to improve." (58) Neither Ivanov nor the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA mention that the Soviet-Persian Treaty which was signed in Moscow on 26 February 1921 was not ratified by the majles until December of that year.

The nearest hint at the direct implication of the Soviet army in the Gilan revolution in any Soviet writing seen, is a somewhat obscure passage in Irandust's article (59) of which the following is a literal translation: "The question of the hegemony of the proletariat in the present stage of Persia's development does not arise and the very raising of the question is possible only in the process of orientation on an organized proletariat outside Persia. It is characteristic that the supporters of the hegemony of the proletariat in the Gilan revolution were forced to draw conclusions in just this direction." Irandust here adds a footnote: "See the resolution of the Central Committee of the Persian Communist Party of 30th September 1920, paragraphs 9 and 10 about the introduction of the Soviet Red Army into Gilan."

The start of the final withdrawal of Soviet troops from north Persia is noted by Iranskiy who says that the withdrawal of "Soviet Āzarbāyjāni (Arabic) troops began on 26th May 1921". (56) E.H. Carr gives September 1921 as the date when the evacuation was completed. (60) On 27th July 1921, however, a Note from the Persian Consul in Baku to the Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Āzarbāyjān SSR dated 23rd July, was published in VESTIYA; the Persian Note said that: "According to the latest information received and confirmed here, Russian Soviet troops have left Persia and have been evacuated to Baku. There remains no more than a small detachment of 150 men. . . With the evacuation of Persia all danger of

it with Russia henceforth disappears. . . . The legal power of will not fail to regain its rights in the places which until today are occupied by the Russian troops. I am convinced that not one soldier or one of any other Soviet republic will be found who will be an obstacle in the way of the occupation by our troops of the territories evacuated by Russia."(61)

Persia, 1921-41

The liquidation of the Gilān Soviet Republic and the withdrawal of troops from Persia in September 1921, there was no direct Soviet attention in Persian affairs until 1941. Possibly for this reason comparatively little attention is paid to Soviet-Persian affairs during the intervening period. Ivanov devotes two brief chapters to it, one called "The overthrow of the Qājār dynasty" and the other, "Persia under Reza Shah". The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA devotes 27 pages to the period 1918-21 and only 11 pages to the period 1922-28 (64) and 25 to the period 1929-41 (65). A large part of all the material dealing with the period 1929-41 is concerned with economic matters which will be dealt with in the next issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW.

Very few brief references are made in Soviet publications to the coup of 1921, which is broadly attributed to British machinations. This is also found not only in recent works but also in such contemporary Soviet works as Iranskiy's article which appeared in 1923.(56) Sayyed Ziaoddin, the principal figure of the coup d'etat, is consistently described by Soviet writers as a British agent. Both he and his life-long political opponent, Mirza Asqar Khan, are now the special objects of Soviet historiographical criticism and study.

Very little mention is made by Soviet writers of the considerable military and political activities centred round the Soviet consulates in Persia during the early years of Reza Shah's rise to power, and none at all of the eventual withdrawal of all these consulates by 1934. There are a number of accounts of the mutinies in Āzarbāyjān and Khorāsān during 1926, which do not all accord with Persian and western versions. The account of Sālār-mutiny in Bojnord in particular seems to be based on the first published rumours which reached Mashhad in June 1926. Later, it transpired that only one officer and 40 men had actually mutinied and crossed the frontier. In describing the strike at the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's installations in 1929, Ivanov (66) speaks of British troops being sent against the strikers. There were in fact no British troops in Persia between 1921 and 1941.

Soviet treatment of Reza's reign and reforms is conditioned by his allegedly anti-Soviet policy. This is summed up by Ivanov (67) as follows: "In his relations with the Soviet Union, which had done everything in its power to reinforce the economic and political independence of Persia, Reza Shah pursued a policy which ran counter to the national interests of Persia and aimed at preventing a rapprochement between the two countries." The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA (68) says of Reza Shah's regime that "it cherished plans for the seizure of Soviet lands in Transcaucasia and Central Asia and did all it could to further the anti-Soviet activities of the imperialist powers on Persian territory."

Soviet writers are accordingly unable to see any redeeming feature in Reza Shah's reign. His sumptuary reforms are all represented as having some ulterior motive other than enlightenment and progress. Both Ivanov and the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA attribute the compulsory emancipation of women to a plan to obtain cheap female labour for the factories. Even Reza Shah's curtailing of the authority of the clerical element is spoken of disapprovingly.(69) The construction of roads and the reorganization and regular payment of the army are seen merely as steps taken by the Shah to concentrate power in his own hands.

The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA (70) writes disparagingly of Reza Shah's linguistic reforms, and particularly of the attempt to remove non-Persian words from the vocabulary. Ivanov (71) complains that many of the "Arabic, Turkish, and European words (thus replaced) had long been sanctioned by usage and formed part of the structure of the language."(72) The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA (70) records that in 1935 "the new, officially accepted name 'Iran' was introduced in place of the old word 'Persia'." It omits, however, to point out that this only referred to foreign languages; in Persia the name Iran had been used from time immemorial.

Ivanov only makes the barest mention of the Persian Communist Party's existence during Reza Shah's reign. The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA, on the other hand, describes Persian Communist underground activities in some detail.(73)

Both Ivanov and the NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA criticize Reza Shah for his "pro-Fascist policy" at the outbreak of the Second World War. The intensification of this alleged policy coincided with the Ribbentrop-Molotov pact of August 1939 but this pact is nowhere mentioned.

The Separatist Movement in Āzarbāyjān

In no Soviet publication dealing with the events in Āzarbāyjān in 1945-6 is there any mention of the part played by, or even of the presence

f, the Red Army, whose forces had been in occupation of the province since August 1941. To Persia and to the West, however, this fact was of overriding importance as was the failure by the Soviet Union to withdraw these forces from Persia by 2nd March 1946, the date stipulated by the Tripartite Agreement of January 1942.

The Soviet sources used in the following survey are, apart from Ivanov's OCHERK ISTORII IRANA, an article by Sergeev entitled "The struggle of democracy against reaction in Persia" which appeared in KOLSHEVIK Nos.11-12 of 1946; Shteynberg's SOVETSKO-IRANSKIYE ODNOSHENIYA I PROISKI ANGLO-AMERIKANSKOGO IMPERIALIZMA V IRANE (Soviet-Persian relations and the intrigues of Anglo-American imperialism in Persia) - a pamphlet published in 1947; and Bashkirov's ABOCHEYE I PROFSOYUZOYNOYE DVIZHENIYE V IRANE (Workers' and trade-union movement in Persia), published in 1948.

The best Persian account of the events is to be found in MARG OD BAR GASHT HAM BUD by Najaf Qoli Pasyan (Tehran, 1948). The fullest descriptions from the western point of view are those given by Enczowski in his RUSSIA AND THE WEST IN IRAN (New York, 1949) and in an article entitled "The Battle of Āzarbāyjān, 1946" in MIDDLE EAST JOURNAL (winter, 1956) by Robert Rossow, who was an eye-witness of the affair.

According to Ivanov, the separatist movement in Persian Āzarbāyjān was caused by the following grievances: the presence of Persians in all the offices in the province; the use of Persian in all public business schools (court examinations, however, were made in Āzarbāyjāni); the unfavorable comparison to be made with conditions across the border in Āzarbāyjān.(74) Thus the demands of the "democratic" movement, as expressed in many mass meetings held in the course of 1945, were for the abolition of provincial and local councils, a purge of Fascist elements in government and police, the impeachment of Sayyed Ziā, and the establishment of "democratic freedoms".(74)

Bashkirov describes the founding of the Āzarbāyjāni Democratic Party, the immediate cause of which was an incident in August 1945(75): the organization of the Tudeh (People's) Party demanded the release of political prisoners unjustly held in prison. In answer to this the authorities released seven of them and injured many more. At the same time an armed leader a land-owner, Hājji Ehteshām, killed two Tudeh Party members at a meeting in Ligvan while other bands laid waste the province. On 12th

gust, therefore, the Democratic Party was inaugurated at a public meeting in Tabriz.

In October 1945 the new party was strengthened by the accession of the local branches of the Tudeh Party, which up to that time had been a separate entity. In the same month reactionary khans and police units killed about a hundred and imprisoned a thousand or more members of the party; against such measures of repression the peasants formed units of self-defence (Fedā'i). (76)

In November, 744 delegates, elected at mass meetings held throughout the province, met to form an "All-People's Assembly". This then sent a resolution demanding provincial autonomy to the Shah, the Prime Minister and the President of the Majles, and elected a National Committee of 39 members, headed by the tried revolutionary, Pischevari (see "The Gilān Republic" above), to govern the province and to organize general elections for a provincial majles.

This majles was duly elected by universal suffrage, and its 101 members met on 12th December 1945 to appoint Pischevari Prime Minister and to approve his programme; this is given by Ivanov (77) as follows: "the consolidation and strengthening of Azarbāyjāni autonomy; elections of komjans (councils); the reorganization of the Fedā'i forces into a people's army; the introduction of Azarbāyjāni as the official language; free and obligatory education for all children of school age in their native tongue; the creation of a national university; the development of industry and trade and the opening of new factories and mills; the acceptance of a labour law and of a law regulating the relations between peasants and land-owners; the distribution among the peasants of state lands and of lands of those reactionary land-owners who had fled from Azarbāyjān and who were carrying out propaganda against the autonomy of Azarbāyjān; freedom of conscience and of religious teaching for all citizens and also equality of rights and duties of Azarbāyjānis, Kurds, Armenians, Syrians, and other nationalities inhabiting Azarbāyjān." Moreover, concludes Ivanov (77), "the National Government of Persian Azarbāyjān announced that, while acknowledging the central Persian government, it would put into practice all measures that did not go against the autonomy of Azarbāyjān. The government also issued a special address to the people in which it said that it was proceeding to the performance of its duties while seeking to preserve the integrity and independence of Persia. The government called on officials and all citizens to continue working and claimed the inviolability of private property."

Bashkirov adds that "the machinery of state was purged of double-acting reactionaries" and that when the Persian government tried to increase

ops in the province, "this attempt met with no success; the Fedā'i surrounded the Persian garrisons and compelled them to lay down their arms. Ivanov makes no reference to a purge and differs from Bashkirov on the question of the troops by stating that all Persian troops, with the exception of a brigade in Reza'iyeh, "surrendered their arms and joined themselves to the commands of the government of Persian Azerbaijan." (78)

(It should be remembered that when the Persian government attempted to reinforce the Persian army garrison of Āzarbāyjān in September 1945, the Persian column was halted at Sharifābād on the main road by Soviet troops. The Soviet commander informed the Persian commander that any further advance towards Qazvin would be regarded as a hostile act and Soviet forces would open fire. The Persian column was, in due course, recalled to Tehran. This incident was the subject of an exchange of Notes among Great Britain, the USA, Persia, and the Soviet Union and was discussed at the Moscow conference of Foreign Ministers in December 1945. Persia later complained about the incident to the newly formed Security Council. (79))

The Soviet version is somewhat different. According to Sergeyev (80) the success of the Āzarbāyjāni independence movement caused confusion in the ranks of the Chief of Staff, General Arfa, and the followers of Sayyed Mirza, who organized armed bands of provocateurs and diversionists in disguise into the ranks of the army. Attempts were made to rouse the Shāhsavan and other nomadic tribes in Āzarbāyjān against the democratic movement." (81) When these attempts failed the Persian government took other measures: "By the end of 1946 it was clear to the reactionary circles who were then dominant in Persia that inside Persia there was no support for a struggle against the reactionaries in Āzarbāyjān and the democratic movement in Persia as a whole. For this reason the bankrupt reactionary circles decided to seek help out-
 turning the internal Persian question of Āzarbāyjān into an international question. Urged on by the representatives of foreign powers, in January 1946 Hakimi's government raised the question of 'Soviet interference in the internal affairs of Persia' in the United Nations Security Council without having any grounds for this. The Hakimi government was the thumb of the Anglo-American imperialists for whom the solution of the Persian question was necessary to distract world opinion from the Greek and Indonesian where British interference was plain to see. . . . But. . . the attempt to make use of UNO for strengthening the position of the Persian reactionaries did not succeed. Having failed in this policy in the reactionary internal and anti-Soviet foreign policy, the Hakimi government was forced to resign. In January 1946 Qavām . . . replaced the new Prime Minister." (82)

Meanwhile, however, the Āzarbāyjāni government proceeded to carry out its programme. Āzarbāyjāni became the official language, an amnesty of political prisoners was declared, popular levies were formed, the use of opium banned and prostitution "liquidated"; 257,066 hectares formerly belonging to the State or to reactionary land-owners were redistributed to 209,096 peasants; in April 1946 a complicated measure was promulgated regulating the apportioning of the fruits of the harvest between landlord and tenant.(83)

However, continues Ivanov (84) "the peasant movement in Āzarbāyjān had attained such proportions that the peasants were not content with such a solution. They aimed at a radical change in agrarian relations, at the complete liquidation of the land-owners' ownership of land and water, and at the division of the lands among the peasants. In many areas the peasants, contrary to the decisions of the National Democratic Government of Āzarbāyjān, openly ceased to pay the landlords' portion after the harvest. In some areas they proceeded to divide up even the land of estates not subject to redistribution according to the decision of the government."

Further measures introduced were the eight-hour working day, labour and social insurance legislation, the opening of many new schools and courses for illiterate adults, the establishment of a national university and of a theatre in Tabriz, of a new hospital, orphanages and homes for the aged. All the main streets of Tabriz were asphalted; similar improvements were started in other cities of the province.

Meanwhile, explains Ivanov (85) "the reactionary Persian government and also the British and American imperialists tried by every means to undermine the economy of Āzarbāyjān. In their efforts to produce an artificial famine, the reactionaries exported food-stuffs from Āzarbāyjān and inflated prices, etc. The branch of the British Imperial Bank of Iran began to collect the money tokens circulating in Āzarbāyjān. The branches of Persian banks also adopted a policy of sabotage. There was serious threat of a financial crisis and economic difficulties. The government took speedy and decisive measures to liquidate reactionary plots and sabotage. It established its control over the business conducted by branches of the Persian National, Industrial and Agricultural Banks. Steps were taken to combat speculation. The government organized State trade and opened State shops. Temporary token coinage was issued in small amounts."

(The Imperial Bank of Iran had in fact not issued currency since selling its concession to the National Bank of Persia in 1930. During the existence of the autonomous provincial government, the

perial Bank did extend credit to the newly established "National Bank of Āzarbāyjān" and acted in some sort as an intermediary between this body and the National Bank of Persia. This credit was eventually entirely repaid.)

Ivanov then goes on to deal with events in Kurdistan (86) where the developments had meanwhile been taking place. The Democratic Party of Kurdistan, led by "the popular spiritual leader" Qāzi Mohammad, held its first congress in October 1945 and assumed power in Kurdistan immediately after the seizure of power in Āzarbāyjān. Although Kurdish was established as the medium of instruction in schools, Kurds replaced Persians in the organs of local administration, and armed levies of Democratic Party Democrats were formed, there was no reform of agrarian relations realized in Āzarbāyjān; the situation remained basically much as it had been before. "Following Āzarbāyjān and Kurdistan," continues (86), "the democratic movement began to develop widely in other parts of Persia as well. The authority and influence of the Tudeh Party and the trade-unions increased. Both in the north and in the south the democratic movement developed widely."

It was thus that Qavām who succeeded Hakimi as Persian Prime Minister in January 1946 "was forced . . . temporarily to cease from open support of democratic organizations and also from a foreign policy hostile to the Soviet Union. . . . The Tudeh Party and trade-unions which had previously been seized by soldiers and the police were set free. The ban on certain democratic newspapers was lifted, and meetings were allowed. Then certain reactionaries were removed from office. . . . On 20th March 1946 Sayyed Ziā was arrested and then other reactionary leaders, Dashti, Tāheri, and Emāmi. On 18th March Qavām left for Moscow at the Head of a Persian delegation for negotiations with the Soviet government. On 6th April there was published a communiqué about Soviet-Persian talks which had been started in Moscow and continued and completed on 4th April 1946 by the signing of an agreement in Tehran. As a result of these talks the parties reached agreement on the creation of a mixed Soviet-Persian company for the prospecting and exploitation of oil in northern Persia. . . . The advantages of the agreement (of the agreement) were particularly apparent when compared with the use of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. . . .

Qavām's government also started talks with the leaders of democratic Kurdistan in Āzarbāyjān which ended with the signing of an agreement on 13th March 1946." (87)

(Remarkable in this account by Ivanov of Soviet-Persian negotiations is the fact that he nowhere mentions either the presence

or the withdrawal of Soviet forces in north Persia. Under the Tripartite Agreement of 1942 the Soviet forces in Persia should have been withdrawn by the 2nd March 1946. In January 1946 the Soviet government announced that it had decided to withdraw its forces from Khorāsān, Shahrud, and Semnān by the 2nd March but to retain them in other parts of north Persia until the situation "had been clarified". In the meanwhile, during March 1946, the Soviet forces in Āzarbāyjān were heavily reinforced by armoured units under Marshal Bagramyan. On 27th March, however, Gromyko announced at the Session of the Security Council of UNO that "Stalin has said, and I say again before this Tribunal, that no new Soviet troops have been introduced into northern Persia since 2nd March." In accordance with the agreement signed on 4th April between the Soviet Union and Persia, Soviet forces finally evacuated Persian territory on 9th May 1946.)

Although the Soviet troops are nowhere mentioned by Ivanov, other earlier Soviet writers deal with the question though in somewhat devious ways. Thus Sergeyev writes (88): "At the end of March, after the formation of Qavām's government and the beginning of the talks in Moscow, a message was published on the evacuation of Soviet forces from Persia (this is concluded, according to information from the staff of the Transcaucasian Military District, on 9th May). On 6th April a communique was published on the Soviet-Persian talks which had begun in Moscow. . . ." Bashkirov (89) in describing the Persian workers' desire for unity between workers of different countries says: "In the farewells of the units of the Soviet Army who returned to their country in April-May 1946, tens of thousands of workers of Persian towns and villages took part. At mass meetings which took place in many places speakers emphasized the great importance of the liberating mission of the Soviet Army and expressed the deep indebtedness of all the peoples of Persia to Generalissimo Stalin." Neither Sergeyev nor Bashkirov mention the Tripartite Agreement by which the Soviet Army should have left by 2nd March 1946.

More striking still is the version of these events as described by Shteynberg (90). Unlike other Soviet writers he says that the Persian agreements with the Soviet Union and with Āzarbāyjān were concluded "multaneously." He then continues: "On 9th May, the Soviet forces, precisely observing the time previously established, left Persian territory." Our underlining. He adds to this: "On the other hand, the British forces and fleet began three months later to concentrate on Basra. In the official communique gave as the motive the protection of British Indian interests in southern Persia."

(When he says that the Soviet forces left Persia "at the time previously established", Shteynberg omits to say that it was at the

time established under the Soviet-Persian Agreement of April 1946 and not at that specified by the Tripartite Agreement of 1942 - which had been ignored by the Soviet Union.)

Soviet writers tend to treat the Āzarbāyjāni independence movement as part of a general "democratic" movement which developed in Persia at the end of the last war. Thus Ivanov deals with Āzarbāyjān in his book called "Persia after the Second World War" and interconnects it with the tribal revolt in Fars and the strike in the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's installations in Khuzestan. All three incidents he sees as part of the intensification of "the struggle between democratic and reactionary forces" caused by "the defeat of the Fascist army of Germany and the Soviet Union." (91)

Apart from avoiding any mention of the part played in Āzarbāyjān by the British Army, Ivanov gives no indication of any active part taken by the Soviet Union in the general political struggle. On the other hand the mention of "British and American imperialists" on the side of the reactionaries is given great prominence. The despatch of an Indian brigadier to Basra and of two sloops to the Shatt-al-Arab at the time of the Anglo-Iranian strike is magnified into the despatch of "several divisions" to the Persian frontier and of naval forces to Abadan "in order to support the democratic elements and encourage Persian reaction in the oil region." (92)

Qavām, the Persian Prime Minister who had signed the Perso-Soviet Agreement in Moscow in April 1946, is regarded by Ivanov as the prime mover in the triumph of reaction over democracy during 1946-47. He is described as "an American agent" (93) and as having for that reason incurred the enmity of the British, who did all they could to displace him. (94) He continues: "The rivalry between the British and the Americans was manifested also in the struggle which ensued between the Shah's court and his supporters, who were the mainstays of American policy in Persia. Between the Court and Qavām there was no difference of opinion as to the attitude towards the Soviet-Persian agreement of 4th April 1946 and the defeat of the democratic movement. But the Court had always misjudged Qavām on account of his well-known love of power and suspected him of aiming at the seizure of supreme control in the country. The Shah's suspicions had increased since the spring of 1946 when talk had begun of Qavām's adherents of proclaiming Persia a republic with Qavām as Prime Minister." (94)

In a brief paragraph describing the rejection of the Soviet-Persian Agreement by the majles in October 1947, Ivanov writes (94): "Up to the nullment (sic) of the agreement. . . the Court had adopted a waiting

attitude and had taken no active steps to displace Qavām from the post of premier. The Court aimed at the abrogation (sic) of the agreement being carried out by Qavām so that the responsibility should rest in the first instance on him. As soon as the majles had declared the agreement null and void the circles connected with the Court, supported by British imperialism, developed an open attack on Qavām and demanded his resignation."

The failure to ratify the Perso-Soviet Oil Agreement marked the end of Soviet post-war attempts to establish a foothold in Persia, and Soviet writing on Persian affairs has since been sporadic although generally critical of their conduct.

Note: The historical section will be concluded in the next issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW (Vol.IV, No.4) with a brief analysis of Soviet publications dealing with events subsequent to October 1947. The same issue will also include the remaining sections of the study on Persia.

Notes

- (1) Ocherk istorii Irana. M.S. Ivanov. Moscow, 1952. p.249.
Referred to below as Ivanov.
- (2) Ivanov. p.248.
- (3) Ivanov. p.216.
- (4) Ivanov. p.214-5.
- (5) Ivanov. p.203.
- (6) Article "Iran". Vol.18, 1953.
- (7) Article "Persiya". Vol.45, 1940.
- (8) Ivanov. pp.216-7.
- (9) Ivanov. p.226.
- (10) Ivanov. p.201.

The Russian Revolution of 1905-7 and the awakening of Asia". By I.M. Reysner in Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye No.2 of 1955.pp.20-22.

Ivanov. p.200, who says that in 1904 there were 7,000 Persian workers in Baku who made up 22 per cent of the working population

Ivanov. p.210. Reysner op.cit (11) says that the demands of the Mojāheds were "reflections of the influence of the Russian Social Democrat movement." It is a debatable point whether Atabek's murder was in fact carried out by the Mojāheds.

Ivanov. pp.210-11.

Ivanov. p.239. Recent Soviet writers, like Ivanov, describe the Dashnaksutyun as "counter-revolutionary"; of their activities in Rasht, Ivanov writes (p.231): "A group of Armenian Dashnaks led by Yefrem Davidiyants came to Rasht and established themselves there. In opposition to the 'Committee in the name of Sattār-Khān' which was under the influence of the revolutionary Social Democrats, the Dashnaks created their own organization. At the beginning of 1909 the Dashnaks took part in revolutionary actions against the Shah. But later they entered the service of the Shah and of the Persian Khans and were used in the struggle against the revolutionary elements."

Ivanov. p.212.

Ivanov. p.211.

Maya Istoriya Stran Zarubezhnogo Vostoka Vol.II, Moscow, 1952. p.347 (referred to below as NISZV II) says that "at the beginning of 1907 by a decision of the Transcaucasian organization of Bolsheviks about 70 Party members were sent to Tabriz and Rasht."

Ramenskiy in his article "On the question of the role of the Bolsheviks of Transcaucasia in the Persian Revolution of 1905-11" which appeared in Istorik-Marksist No.11 of 1940 says that 22 Social Democrats perished at Tabriz.

Ivanov. p.230.

Ivanov. p.228. Cf. Browne: History of the Persian Revolution, pp. 441-2 for a somewhat different account of Sattār Khān and Bāqer Khān. The Soviet Encyclopaedia Vol.38, 1955 in the article "Sattar Khan" says that for many years he worked in industrial

centres in Transcaucasia and that he was actually a member of the Hemmat organization. Ivanov does not mention this.

- (22) Ivanov. p.235.
- (23) Ivanov. pp.235-6.
- (24) "From the history of the expansion of American imperialism in Persia (the mission of Morgan Shuster in 1911)" by M.S. Ivanov in Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye No.2 of 1955.
- (25) Ivanov. pp.219-20.
- (26) Ivanov. p.238.
- (27) NISZV II p.351.
- (28) Article "Mokhammed-Ali Shakh" Vol.28, 1954.
- (29) Article "Mokhammed-Ali-Mirza" Vol.40, 1938.
- (30) NISZV II p.349.
- (31) NISZV II throughout refers to Persian Azarbāyjān as "Southern Āzarbāyjān" and emphasizes its distinction from Persia proper.
- (32) NISZV II p.353.
- (33) Ivanov. pp.251-2.
- (34) Cf. Sykes: History of Persia, Vol.II, p.436: "The military forces of Persia at that time included the Cossack Brigade under Russian officers. This body of troops was about 8,000 strong, with headquarters at Tehran and detachments at Tabriz, Kazvin, Hamadan and elsewhere. The Swedish gendarmerie, 7,000 strong, had detachments in various parts of Persia and especially in Fars where it guarded the main route."
- (35) Ivanov. pp.244-5.
- (36) NISZV II p.355.
- (37) Ivanov. p.242.
- (38) Ivanov. p.245.

Asia and the West in Iran, 1918-48. By George Lenczowski. New York, 1949. p.55. Referred to below as Lenczowski.

nov. p.280.

nov. p.266.

czowski. p.56.

nov. p.279.

eyshaya Istoriya Stran Zarubezhnogo Vostoka. Vol.I. Moscow, 1954. p.251. Referred to below as Noveyshaya Istoriya I.

icle: "Kuchik-Khan". Vol.35, 1937.

czowski. p.224.

czowski. p.57.

czowski. p.98.

eyshaya Istoriya I. p.257.

me Ivanova blames Ehsānollah for his policy; yet one of her reasons for the failure of the Gilān republic given at the end of her article is the "local character of the revolutionary events." Ehsānollah in his memoirs (published in Novyy Vostok No.29, 1930. p.102) says: "I believed that we ought not to limit ourselves to one province but that we ought to develop our movement throughout the whole country."

zowski. pp.57-8.

cle: "Gaydar-Khan-Amu Ogly". Vol.14, 1929.

st of this government is given in "Diplomatic History of Persia, 1917-23" by Nasrollah Saifpour Fatemi (New York, 1952), who notes from "Russian Wireless Press" of 6th June 1920.

zowski. p.59. E.H. Carr in his "The Bolshevik Revolution, 1917-23", Vol.III, p.470 goes much further and says: "In May 1921 the last British troops left Persian soil. It was at this moment that the Soviet supporters of Kuchek and his independent republic of Gilān. . . attempted their last throw. In the summer

of 1921 Kuchek started to march on Tehran - a venture in which he received the support not only of his Soviet advisers but of reinforcements sent across the Caspian Sea from the Āzarbāyjān SSR." E.H. Carr further quotes L. Fischer's "The Soviets in World Affairs" (2nd Edition, 1951) as saying that Kuchek's army included not only levies from the Caucasus but "Russian peasants from Tula."

- (55) "La politique du gouvernement des Soviets en Perse". By George Du-croq. In *Revue du Monde Musulman*, Vol.52, 1922.
- (56) "Five years of Russo-Persian relations". By Iranskiy. In *Novyy Vostok*, Nos.3-4, 1923.
- (57) *Noveyshaya Istoriya I.* p.256.
- (58) Ivanov. p.286.
- (59) "Aspects of the Gilān revolution". By Irandust. In *Istorik-Marksist*, No.5 of 1927. p.135.
- (60) Cf. "The Bolshevik Revolution". By E.H. Carr. Vol.III. p.470. The Soviet troops in Persia were apparently frequently referred to in contemporary sources as "Soviet Āzarbāyjāni troops."
- (61) This Note is quoted in *Bulletin Periodique de la Presse Russe* No.95 of 1921. The Bulletin was published by the French Foreign Ministry.
- (62) Ivanov. pp.301-11; pp.312-35.
- (63) *Noveyshaya Istoriya I.* pp.235-62.
- (64) *Noveyshaya Istoriya I.* pp.262-73.
- (65) *Noveyshaya Istoriya Stran Zarubezhnogo Vostoka*, Vol.II. pp.190-215. (Referred to below as *Noveyshaya Istoriya II.*)
- (66) Ivanov. p.327.
- (67) Ivanov. p.332.
- (68) *Noveyshaya Istoriya II.* p.214.
- (69) Ivanov. pp.322-3.

veyshaya Istoriya II. p.202.

ranov. p.324.

is criticism is surprising when it is remembered that the replacement of the large and old-established Arabic loan vocabulary in Central Asian languages is an important part of Soviet linguistic policy. This policy goes much further than the Persian reforms in interfering with the established structure of the languages. (See Central Asian Review, Vol.IV, No.2. p.99 ff.)

veyshaya Istoriya II. p.204 ff.

ranov. pp.365-7. He appears here to be largely quoting from Sergeev's article in BOLSHEVIK Nos.11-12, 1946.

bocheye i profsoyuznoye dvizheniye v Irane. Bashkirov. 1948. p.57. Referred to below as Bashkirov.

rgeyev. p.66.

ranov. p.370. Bashkirov, however, says that the provincial anjomans had been elected in November 1945.

ranov. p.370.

Robert Rossow's article in Middle East Journal (Winter, 1956) p.18.

rgeyev. p.67.

ranov. p.376.

ranov. p.379. This version is given in all Soviet sources.

ranov. pp.371-3.

ranov. p.373.

ranov. p.374.

ranov. p.377-8.

ranov. p.379-81.

rgeyev. p.68.

- (89) Bashkirov. pp.67-9; 84 ff.
- (90) Sovetsko-Iranskiye otnosheniya i proiski Anglo-Amerikan-
skogo imperializma v Irane. Ye.L. Shteynberg. Moscow, 1947.
pp.14-5.
- (91) Ivanov. p.365.
- (92) Ivanov. pp.383-4. See also p.387.
- (93) Ivanov. p.405.
- (94) Ivanov. p.406.

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

S O V I E T O R I E N T A L S T U D I E S

owing is a resumé of articles dealing wholly or partially with the Central Asia in recently received numbers of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKO- : No.6, 1955 and Nos.1 and 2, 1956.

leading article of the last issue in 1955, "The Study of the the Awakening of Asia", is not signed. It deals in general terms roblem already treated more than once in the periodical, that of sence of the 1905 revolution on Asian countries, and adds nothing r articles. The two most valuable articles to the student of sia are "The Problem of Towns in Persia in the early Middle Ages" igulevskaya and "The Work of the Khorezm Archaeological and Eth- al Expedition of the Academy of Sciences in 1954" by S.P. Tolstov. of these articles deals with the class structure of early Persian revealed in literature. It is well documented. Tolstov's article ount, with illustrations and plans, of the work of his expedition t Koy-Krylgan-Kala, in the Akcha Dar'ya delta (the old delta of ar'ya), Berkut-Kala, Kyuzeli-Gyr and in the Sarykamysch depression ry bed of the Uzboy.

, 1955 also contains an interesting note by G.I. Mikhaylov on lopment of Culture in the Mongol People's Republic" which lists ral institutions and organizations created in Mongolia since the lution, and an account by Sh.F. Mukhamed-yarov of the Inter-repub- ference of Students of the Literature of Central Asia and Kazakh- d in Alma-Ata in June 1955. The conference resolved to prepare cation histories of the literature of the countries involved during t period by the end of 1956.

. Tashenev's article "Socialist Construction in the Kazakh SSR" 1956, is a propagandist account of the amount of work done to Kazakhstan since the Revolution, and again, since the last War. he article is taken up with a description of the measures to be under the Sixth Five-Year Plan. "A Rare Source for the History of ids" by P.I. Petrov is an account of the "Pearls of Knowledge" by enth century author Budak Kazvini, the only manuscript of which is ningrad Public Library. The article is illustrated with photo-

graphic reproductions of four pages of the manuscript.

"The French Embassy to Persia in 1796", by A.R. Ioannisyan, represents the mission of Olivier and Bruguiere as an attempt to bring Turkey and Persia into alliance against Russia; this, he says, would have been against the interests of the Caucasian peoples whom Russia was then in the process of annexing. The account is mainly drawn from French and English sources, but some Russian material has been employed. In No.1, 1956 there are also interesting short notes on the work of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences Institute of Oriental Studies during 1955 and on the Oriental books and MSS in the State Public Historical Library in Moscow. There is a continuation of the bibliography begun in No.5, 1955 of works by Soviet oriental scholars in the years 1938-1953. In this continuation there are the following sections: General works on the Near and Middle East and India; India; Afghanistan; Persia; Turkey; and the Arab countries.

No.2, 1956 contains two articles on Mongolia. The first, "The Mongol People's Republic on the road to Socialism" by D. Tumor-Ochir, is a propagandist account of the industrialization of Mongolia and the progress of the collectivization of agriculture. The second, "The Science of History in the MPR" by Sh. Natsagdorz and N. Ishzhamts, lists the chronicles and manuscript sources of Mongol history, and describes the work done in the years since the Revolution of 1921, culminating in the one-volume history of Mongolia produced in 1954 as the joint work of Mongol and Soviet historians.

"An Example of Good-neighbourliness and Friendly Co-operation", by R.T. Akhramovich and I.F. Belov, is a catalogue of the various agreements concluded between the Soviet Union and Afghanistan since the proclamation of Afghan independence in 1919. The article claims that, despite the machinations of British imperialism, Soviet-Afghan relations have always been good. Particularly interesting in this article are the remarks in support of the Afghan position on Pakhtunistan.

"The Development and Rise of Socialist Culture and Science in the Turkmen SSR" by K.M. Kuliyeu and I.L. Repin is yet another propagandist account of the transformation of the culture of an eastern people after the Revolution in the USSR. It contains no new information. The article "Vakhid Tabrizi's Tractate on Poetry" by the well-known Soviet scholar A.Ye. Bertel's, was occasioned by the examination by the author of two manuscripts of this work (fifteen manuscripts of which are already known) preserved in the Tashkent collection of the Uzbek Academy. This examination has convinced Bertel's that previous assessments of the tractate have been mistaken, and that the edition of a new text is called for.

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These three issues of SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE contain several articles on India of greatly differing merit. No.6, 1955 has an article by Yu.Ye. Tupikova in honour of the fiftieth birthday of the "progressive" Indian author Mulk Raj Anand, a Peace Prize winner. In No.1, 1956, there is an extremely scholarly article by G.M. Bongard-Levin on the Taxila inscription of Asoka, with some new conclusions and a new dating of the inscription. There is also a statistical review, "The Agricultural and Industrial Production of the Indian Republic" by G.G. Kotovskiy and V.I. Pavlov - a study of the economy of contemporary India - and an article by L.S. Gamayunov on the first Russian Indologist, Gerasim Lebedev (1749-1817). In No.2 there is a short note "The North Indian Principalities and the Revolutionary Rising of 1905-1908 in India" by U. Rustamov, an article tracing the history of the "progressive" Bengali magazine PORICHOY, and reviews of Nehru's autobiography, recently translated for the first time into Russian, and of a work by a young Soviet Indologist, L.R. Gordon, entitled "Agrarian relations in the North West Frontier Province of India, 1914-1947" published in 1953 by the Academy of Sciences.

A summary of the articles in English and a table of contents in Chinese has been included in the last two numbers.

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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, borderland countries, cotton, geology, history (including archaeology), natural resources and philology. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKO-VEDENIYE is discussed in the previous article. BYULLETEN' MOSKOVSKOGO OBSHCHESTVA ISPYTATELEY PRIRODY will in future contain an English summary of each article.

Agriculture

- Imangazyev, K.I. Ocherednyye zadachi agrokhimicheskikh issledovaniy v Kazakhstane. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956, No.2, pp.31-39. 2,000 words.
An account of the study of the use of mineral fertilizers in Kazakhstan, with tables.
- Kirnos, G.V. and Chuchko, N.I.
Vliyaniye srokov i sposobov obrabotki tselinnykh zemel' na urozhayakh pshenitsy v severnom Kazakhstane. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956, No.3, pp.44-52. 2,000 words.
The record of experiments to ascertain the best methods of wheat cultivation on the New Lands, with tables.
- Kovalenko, N.L. Nasushchnyye voprosy lyutsernovodstva v Turkmenii. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956, No.3, pp.39-41. 800 words.
A note on the selection of lucerne seed, with reference to the work of the Iolatan' experimental station.
- Sergeyev, N. Po metodu T.S. Mal'tseva. NAUKA I ZHIZN', 1956, No.2, pp.25-27. 800 words.
A note on the employment of Mal'tsev's method of cultivation in the Lesnoy sovkhov, Kustanay oblast, by the director of the sovkhov.

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- Shapoval, A.G. Voprosy obrabotki tselinnykh i zaleznykh zemel' Kazakhstana. ZEMLEDELIYE, 1956, No.3, pp.7-10. 1,000 words.
The effects of ploughing at various depths in the New Lands, with examples from work of the Kazakh Institute of Agriculture.

Borderland Countries

- Braginskiy, I.S. K voprosu o razvitiu metoda sotsialisticheskogo realizma v literaturakh zarubezhnogo vostoka. KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, XVII, 1955, pp.4-9. 2,200 words.
A short article recommending the works of Gor'kiy and Ayni as models for socialist realism in young Oriental literatures.

Afghanistan

- Akhramovich, R.T. and Belov, I.F.
Primer dobrososedstva i druzhestvennogo sotrudnichestva. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 1956, No.2, pp.45-55. 3,000 words.
See separate article.

- Livshits, V.A. Ukazatel'nyye mestoimeniya v afganskom yazyke (pashto). IZVESTIYA OTDELENIYA OBSHCHESTVENNYKH NAUK, No.9, 1956 (Academy of Sciences of the Tadzhik SSR), pp.121-40. 8,000 words.
A detailed account of the form and usage of the demonstrative pronoun in Pashto.

Mongolia

- Natsagdorzh, Sh. and Ishzhants, N.
Istoricheskaya nauka v MNR. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 1956, No.2, pp.128-132. 1,000 words.
See separate article.

- Mikhaylov, G.I. Razvitiye kul'tury v Mongol'skoy Narodnoy Respublike. Idem, 1955, No.6, pp.111-116. 1,500 words.
See separate article.
Idem. Nekotoryye problemy sotsialisticheskogo realizma v mongol'skoy literature. KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, XVII, 1955, pp.20-27. 2,000 words.
An account of socialist realism in Mongol writing since 1917.

- Tumur-Ochir, D. Mongol'skaya Narodnaya Respublika na puti k sotsializmu. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 1956, No.2, pp.15-28. 3,500 words.
See separate article.

Persia

- Aliyev, R. Osnovnyye publikatsii "Godestana" Sa'di. KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, XVII, 1955, pp.83-91. 3,000 words.
An examination of the various manuscript and edited texts of Sa'di's GODESTAN, a critical text of which the author has prepared. A further article on the methods of textual criticism that he has employed is to follow.
- Bertel's, A. Ye. Traktat po poetike Vakhida Tabrizi. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 1956, No.2, pp.77-82. 1,500 words.
See separate article.
- Ioannisyanyan, A.R. Frantsuzskoye posol'stvo v Iran v 1796 g. Idem, 1956, No.1, pp.162-172. 3,000 words.
See separate article.
- Komissarov, D.S. Obraz polozhitel'nogo geroya v sovremennoy persidskoy khudozhestvennoy proze. KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, XVII, 1955, pp.53-65. 4,000 words.
The "positive hero" in Persian fiction since 1917.
- Petrov, P.I. Ob odnom redkom istochnike po istorii Sevefidov. SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 1956, No.1, pp.111-120. 2,500 words.
See separate article.
- Pigulevskaya, N.V. K voprosu o gorodakh Irana v rannem srednevekov'ye. Idem, 1955, No.6, pp.72-80. 2,500 words.
See separate article.
- Rozenfel'd, A.Z. Sadek Khedayat (Opyt kharakteristiki tvorchestva). KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, XVII, 1955, pp.66-72. 1,800 words.
A short and tentative sketch of the work of the author Sadek Hedayat. There is an admitted difference of interpretation between this article and the article of Komissarov noted above.
- Vorozheykina, Z.N. O tvorchestve Iredzh mirzy. Idem, pp.73-82, 3,000 words. The life and work of the poet Iraj-Mirza.

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Cotton

- Babayev, S. Khlopkovodstvo Turkmenskoy SSR v novoy pyatiletke. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956, No.4, pp.7-12. 1,500 words.
A propagandist account of the plan for cotton-growing in Turkmenistan 1955-1960 by the secretary of the Turkmen Communist Party.
- Kamalov, S. Boyevyye zadachi khlopkorobov Uzbekistana. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956, No.3, pp.7-12. 1,500 words.
The Sixth Five-Year Plan for cotton-growing in Uzbekistan, described by the Chairman of the Uzbek Council of Ministers.

Geology

- Baykovskaya, T.N. Review of Vakhrameyev, V.A., Stratigrafiya i iskopayemaya fauna melovykh otlozheniy zapadnogo Kazakhstana, being Vol.I of Regional'naya Stratigrafiya SSSR, USSR Academy of Sciences, 1952, p. 340, 44 tables.
(The Stratigraphy and Fossil Fauna of the Chalk Deposits of Western Kazakhstan) BYULLETEN' MOSKOVSKOGO OBSHCHESTVA ISPYTATELEY PRIRODY, OTDEL GEOLOGICHESKIY, Tom XXI, 1956, pp.119-120. 500 words.
- Birshteyn, Ya.A. Desyatinogiye rakoobraznyye paleogena Fergany. Idem, pp.63-74. 3,600 words.
An illustrated discussion of the literature on nine types of decapodal crustacea found in Palaeogene strata in Fergana.
- Lavrov, V.V. O dvukh stratigraficheskikh skhemakh kontinental'noy tretichnoy serii dlya stepy Kazakhstana i Zapadnoy Sibiri. Idem, pp.3-17. 4,500 words.
An argument that the two stratigraphical systems assigned to Kazakhstan and Western Siberia are in fact parts of the same system.
- Rikhter, V.G. O sushchestvovanii srednekaspiyskoy sushi i sopostavlenii produktivnykh tolshch Apsheronu i Turkmenii. Idem, pp.51-60. 3,000 words.
A comparison of the formations of the western part of Turkmenistan and those of the peninsula on which Baku stands. The conclusion is that both formed part of the southern edge of a Central Caspian plateau.

History

- Bulatov, S.Ya. K voprosu o gosudarstvennykh i pravovykh vozzreniyakh Chokana Valikhanova. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956, No.3, pp.53-61. 2,000 words.
A short conspectus of the views of the Kazakh fable-writer Chokan Valikhanov as expressed in his works on the political and juridical system prevailing in the thirties and forties of the nineteenth century in Kazakhstan.
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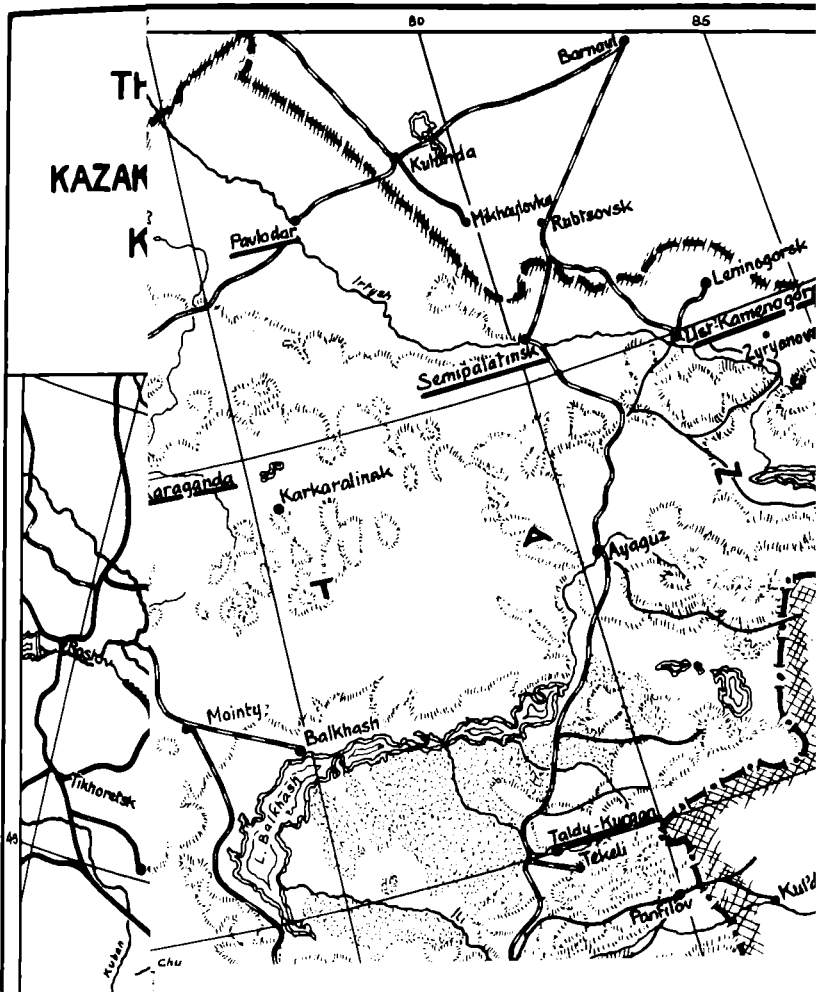
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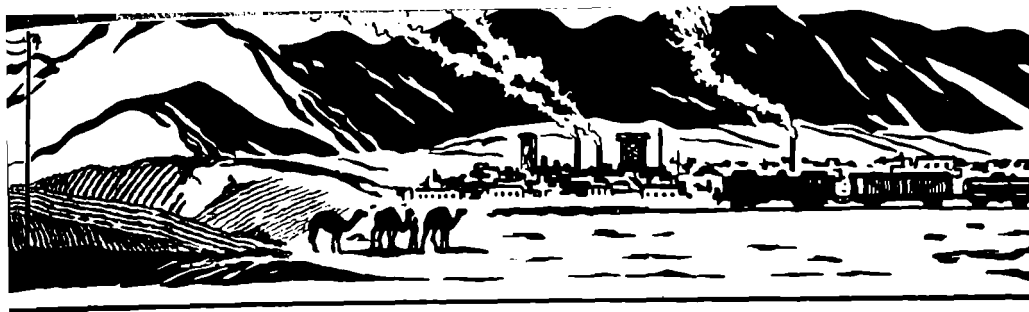
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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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

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

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

PRICE : SEVEN SHILLINGS & SIXPENCE

Vol. IV. No. 4.
1956

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW and other papers issued by the Central Asian Research Centre are under the general editorship of Geoffrey Wheeler, 66 King's Road, London, S.W.3. and David Footman, St. Antony's College, Oxford.

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of current developments in the five Soviet Socialist Republics of Uzbekistan, Tadjikistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan as these are reflected in Soviet publications.

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

Distribution Agents:

Messrs. Luzac & Co. Ltd.,

46, Great Russell Street.

LONDON W.C.1.

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Abbreviations used in the Review when referring to newspapers and periodicals employed as sources, are as follows :-

- VVS for Vedomosti Verkhnovogo Soveta
- P for Pravda
- KP for Kazakhstanskaya Pravda
- PV for Pravda Vostoka
- KT for Kommunist Tadzhikistana
- SK for Sovetskaya Kirgiziya
- TI for Turkmenskaya Iskra

POLITICAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

REVALUATION OF BOURGEOIS NATIONALISM

Since the XXth Party Congress held last February there has been a good deal of evidence confirming the change - perhaps only tactical and temporary - in the Soviet attitude towards "bourgeois nationalism" in Eastern countries. The impending change was referred to once or twice in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE during 1955 and also in an article on Oriental Studies in KOMMUNIST No.8 of May 1955 (1). The first detailed exposition of the new attitude and condemnation of the old is to be found in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE No.1 of 1956. A translation of the relevant portions of this exposition will be found below.

Briefly, Soviet orientalists and specialists on eastern affairs are now told that they have in the past made wrong deductions from the principles enunciated by Marx and Lenin on the subject of "bourgeois nationalism" and its attitude on the one hand towards the working masses, and on the other towards imperialism and feudalism. As a result of the pressure exerted from below by the masses the "national bourgeoisie", it is now stated, has played and is playing an important part in the struggle for economic and political independence.

The emergence of this new and, as it would seem, more liberal attitude towards "bourgeois nationalism" in the non-Soviet East must remind students of Soviet affairs of the relentless campaign against "bourgeois nationalism" conducted by the Soviet authorities in the Caucasus and Central Asia. Important new light has been thrown on the circumstances and consequences of this campaign in Baymirza Hayit's recent book (2) of which an extract is given below. There is no doubt that "bourgeois nationalism" as practised inside the Soviet Union has not hitherto been regarded with any indulgence, nor have the drastic punishments meted out to its leaders so far been attributed solely to Stalin.

Reports of the subsistence of pockets of nationalist sentiment which were given currency in the Soviet press until 1953 have now largely died down and "bourgeois nationalism" was not among the charges brought against Bagirov, formerly First Secretary of the Communist Party of Azerbaijan, who was the latest prominent Asian to be executed for political reasons. Since, therefore, "bourgeois nationalism" is no longer recognized as existing in the USSR the question of any new attitude to it

there will now hardly arise.

The charges brought against Faizulla Khodzhayev, Ikramov and many other "bourgeois nationalists" generally included one of collaboration with the enemies of the Soviet Union; but the conception of the "national bourgeoisie" as "the faithful allies of imperialism" is now stated to be prejudiced. This might serve to reassure bourgeois nationalist leaders in independent eastern countries who seek closer association with the USSR, but have hitherto been discouraged by the fate of nationalist leaders in the Caucasus and Central Asia.

It would be wrong to suppose that this change of attitude springs from a change of heart or that it is inconsistent with basic Soviet policy. The criterion must always be whether or not "bourgeois nationalist" activities are to the advantage of Soviet leadership. Inside the USSR they can never be; but outside they may be, if they can be mobilized against the Union's major adversaries.

Notes

- (1) See Central Asian Review Vol.III, No.3, 1955, p.251.
- (2) TURKESTAN IM XX JAHRHUNDERT by Baymirza Hayit. Darmstadt: Leske Verlag.

A N N E X I

The following is an abridged extract from an article entitled "The XXth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the tasks set for the study of the Contemporary East" which appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEZENIYE No.1 of 1956. This article was not included in the summary in English of the contents of this issue which accompanied it.

. . .

The study of eastern affairs has been gravely prejudiced by failure to understand the character and depth of the contradictions existing in the non-socialist countries of the East between the forces of imperialism and internal reaction on the one hand, and the forces of national progress on the other. Our oriental economists have mainly studied the activity of foreign capital in the economy of countries of the East: the inner processes have not been sufficiently carefully analysed; and there has not been due appreciation of the objective tendency to independent capitalist development which has undermined the dominant position of imperialism. A most important factor undermining the positions of foreign financing capital in the countries of the East has been the formation of a world system of socialism. Thus countries on the road to independent development have now no need to bow and scrape to their former oppressors in order to obtain modern equipment, since the socialist countries can supply them with this equipment without any conditions of a political or military character.

Since the second world war, owing to basic changes in the relation of forces on the international scale, the dominant position of foreign capital in the economy of some countries of the East is no longer such that imperialism inevitably dominates their political life. For example, such countries as Indonesia and Saudi Arabia, which are not yet free from the economic pressure of imperialism, are now sovereign states politically.

This underestimation of the objective processes of independent economic development in the countries of the East resulted from an academic notion that the general tendency of capitalism to decay is automatically extended to all the countries of the non-Socialist East and excludes the possibility of the development of their productive forces. Many specialists in eastern affairs have exaggerated the part played by feudal survivals and have not remarked the changes in the economy of eastern countries resulting from the development of capitalist relations. The matter has come to such a pass that some specialists in eastern affairs have advanced the far-fetched and

doctrinaire theory of an "extension of feudal exploitation" in the contemporary Indian village.

Over simplification like this results from failure to bear in mind Lenin's precept that in the epoch of imperialism the general tendency to decay does not exclude a quick growth of capital in some countries. The facts show that in eastern countries with the growth of national capitalist enterprise the contradictions between the local bourgeoisie and foreign financing capital and feudal landownership are made more acute.

There is a well-known proposition of Marxism-Leninism which declares that in the epoch of the general crisis of capitalism the proletariat of those colonial and dependent countries where capitalism is comparatively developed may become the leader of a national liberation and anti-feudal revolution. This article has been brilliantly confirmed by the great victory of the Chinese people and of other people's democracies in the East. But from this unquestionably correct proposition the incorrect deduction has been made that only the leadership of the proletariat can ensure victory in a struggle for national independence. Therefore when India, Burma, Indonesia, Egypt, and some other countries where the proletariat, the avant-garde of the patriotic forces, has not yet been able to take the lead, won their sovereignty under the leadership of the national bourgeoisie, many eastern experts were unable to appreciate objectively enough the great importance of this occurrence in the history of the East. Moreover, this way of winning sovereignty was treated in some works as a "final deal of the grande bourgeoisie with imperialism". There is, of course, a difference in principle between these two ways of gaining independence; but this does not in any way justify a negative attitude to many important processes operating in the East both now and in the past.

This inability to understand the essence of the "objective contradictions" between the national bourgeoisie and imperialism has caused the political attitude of the bourgeoisie to be narrowed down to fear of the class struggle of the masses. This has resulted in the dialectical conception of the duality of the nature of the national bourgeoisie being replaced by a one-sided conception of it as the faithful ally of imperialism in the struggle against the working masses. From such a standpoint the political activity of the national bourgeoisie could only be represented as a series of capitulations, betrayals and demagogic manoeuvres. In particular, the political line of the bourgeoisie in India and the National Congress headed by M.K. Gandhi has for some years been represented in this way. Of course, Soviet eastern experts do not share the philosophical outlook of Gandhism; but this does not in any way preclude acknowledgment of the positive and outstanding part played by Gandhi in the history of the struggle of the Indian people. Similar errors of

appreciation have been made in the study of the bourgeois parties of Turkey, the Arab countries, Burma and Indonesia, and of their leaders. At certain moments in the anti-imperialist struggle the interests of the bourgeoisie and those of the majority of the people have basically coincided. When the colonialists made concessions, they were yielding in fact not to the diplomacy of the bourgeois leaders, but to the pressure of the popular masses.

Sectarian errors were also manifest in a tendency to leave unremarked the manifold nature of the forms of the national liberation struggle in the East, and in particular the possibility in certain historical circumstances of winning independence by political means. Specific peculiarities of some eastern countries have been ignored as has also the decisive change in the interrelation of the forces of reaction and of progress that has taken place both on an international scale and within the countries of the East themselves. The facts attest that the growth of the authority of the Soviet Union, the enormous strengthening of the whole socialist camp, especially since the formation of the Chinese People's Republic, the defeat of imperialist armies in Korea and Viet Nam, the dimensions attained by demonstrations of solidarity by metropolitan workers and colonial peoples, and finally the general upsurge of the national liberation struggle in which the decisive part is played by the working class and the peasantry are in some cases compelling the colonialists to withdraw without large-scale colonial wars.

There have also been cases of an unobjective and inattentive attitude to the first, perhaps as yet modest, but important successes of young states in overcoming at the cost of enormous efforts the terrible aftermath of colonialism. Thus the concrete meaning of the land reforms in India, Egypt, Burma, Syria and other countries has as yet not been disclosed in our writings. Of course, these reforms do not satisfy the longings of all sections of the peasantry. But they weaken or even destroy the system of feudal exploitation of the peasants. The incipient industrialization of these countries also helps to consolidate their national independence and sharpens the economic contradictions between these countries and imperialism. In these are included the contradictions between the national bourgeoisie and foreign monopolies on the one hand and the local feudal reaction on the other.

. . .

A N N E X II

THE PURGE OF NATIONALISTS FROM STATE AND PARTY ORGANIZATIONS
IN UZBEKISTAN 1936-1939

Translated with acknowledgment from TURKESTAN IM XX. JAHRHUNDERT
by Baymirza Hayit. Darmstadt: Leske Verlag, 1956

The aim of the Sovietization policy in Turkestan was to shatter the strength of national resistance groups, and to educate up a new Soviet intelligentsia. After the Nationalists had been defeated in open struggle in 1926, they tried to secure key positions in State and Party in order to lend their support from these positions to the national freedom movement. The endeavours of the Soviet Government to induce a number of Turkestanis to collaborate with them enabled the Nationalists to get their own men installed. Thus, a high proportion of these officials formed the potential strength of the national cadre.

In February 1937 Stalin announced to the Plenary Session of the Central Committee a purge of Trotskyists, Nationalists, enemies of the people, and elements alien to the working classes from Party and State organizations. Following this, a purge also began in Turkestan in which the reliability of each single official was investigated. It was conducted by People's Commissar Yezhov himself, working in collaboration with Andreyev, the Secretary of the Central Committee of the Party, and a Politburo member.

The first attack was on the President of the Council of People's Commissars for Uzbekistan, Faizulla Khodzha (1). In May 1937 the Secretary of the Communist Youth Organization of Uzbekistan, Israil Artiqoglu accused Faizulla Khodzha of having kept up the old religious feudal customs in the town of Kokand. Khodzha was said to have buried his brother, Ibad Khodzha, according to Islamic rites and to have erected a monument to him inscribed in Arabic script and bearing a star. The Turkestani Usman Yusuf, who had been relieved of his Party functions in 1934 by Akmal Ikram, the Secretary of the Uzbek Communist Party, and was living in Moscow, came back. Before May 1937 was out, the President of the Party Control Commission of Uzbekistan, Davlat Riza, was arrested. The OGPU official Aleksandrovskiy, who when in Uzbekistan in 1926 had been "placed at the disposal of the Central Committee of the Communist Party", i.e. sent to Moscow, and had not since been seen in Turkestan, turned up

as PRAVDA correspondent in Tashkent in May 1937. The arrival of these people in Turkestan, and the arrest of some collaborators of the State and Party organizations, were simply preparations for the onslaught on the Nationalists.

The VIIth Congress of the Uzbek Communist Party was held from the 10th to the 17th of June 1937. During it, Faizulla Khodzha was attacked for having buried his brother according to Islamic rites, and was not re-elected a member of the Bureau of the Central Committee. In this way the Party expressed their mistrust of him. Thereupon, the President of the Uzbekistan Supreme Soviet, acting on behalf of the Party, dismissed the President of the Council of People's Commissars from office on 26th June 1937. Stalin ordered Faizulla Khodzha to report to Moscow for personal consultations and as soon as he arrived in the capital he was arrested.

Aleksandrovskiy, the former NKVD official in Soviet Uzbekistan, now a special correspondent for PRAVDA, published in his paper on September 1st 1937 an article accusing the Secretary of the Uzbek Communist Party, Akmal Ikram, of supporting "those enemies of the people, the Nationalists." On 3rd September 1937 he published in the same paper an article reproaching Ikram for backing nationalist poets and writers such as Usman Nasir, Cholpan and Aybek. On 6th September 1937 in an article entitled "Bourgeois Nationalists and their Helpers", he again accused Akmal Ikram of supporting nationalists like the President of the Tashkent Town Council, Abdulhay Hadzhi, the Secretary of the Tashkent Town Committee of the Party, Baltabay, and others. Ikram himself was portrayed as a bitter enemy of the Soviets and a nationalist. After these three articles by Aleksandrovskiy had been published, Akmal Ikram was sent for to Moscow, ostensibly for consultations with Stalin on the PRAVDA articles. Up to the time of these public attacks in PRAVDA Akmal Ikram had been considered one of Stalin's star pupils; he was not received in Moscow by the Leader, and returned to Tashkent with Andreyev, the Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. Moscow decreed that the full assembly of the Central Committee of the Uzbek Communist Party was to be summoned for the arrival of Andreyev on 25th September 1937. Andreyev and Ikram arrived straight from the railway station, whereupon Andreyev declared the Assembly open and raised the question of deposing Ikram. Witnesses against Ikram were: Aleksandrovskiy, who produced documents which he admitted he had been assembling for use against Ikram since 1920; Zagvotsdin, the People's Commissar for Internal Affairs (NKVD) in Uzbekistan, and Usman Yusuf. They all accused Ikram of having been, and still being, a Nationalist. Andreyev told the Assembly that Stalin placed no trust in Ikram, and that the Central Committee of the Party was demanding his deposition. The remaining members of the gathering kept silence. All Ikram said was: "I have carried a Party membership card since 1918,

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but I have never been a Communist." (2) He was arrested immediately the meeting was over, and Usman Yusuf was appointed in his place. This prelude to the purge gave the Government a chance of locking up one Nationalist after another, under the pretext of searching for adherents of Faizulla Khodzha and Akmal Ikram.

Prior to the 1917 Revolution Faizulla Khodzha had been a member of the Constitutional Democratic Party of Russia, but left it in 1917 and joined the "Young Bukharans". From 1920 till 1924 when he was Prime Minister of the Bukharan People's Republic, he did his best to maintain the independence of Bukhara. In 1920 he joined the illegal anti-Soviet party in Turkestan, the "Millī Ittihād" ("National Unity"), and became its President in 1924. As from that year he was President of the Council of People's Commissars of Uzbekistan.

Akmal Ikram, the son of a well-known Tashkent cleric, was a teacher before the Revolution and was influenced by the Reformists. In 1918 he joined the Communist Party and until 1924 climbed to higher Party posts. In 1923 he took part in a Conference of the Central Committee of the Russian Communist Party, to which the Party functionaries of the "National Republics" had been summoned. There he engaged in polemics with Stalin. Ikram accused the Central Committee of carrying out a colonial policy in Turkestan. As at that time a few remnants of Party democracy survived, Stalin admitted that he had made mistakes in his Turkestan policy. Akmal Ikram was elected in 1924 as First Secretary of the Uzbek Communist Party, and remained in this position till his arrest. In 1918 he joined the national "Young Turkestan" organization, which became in 1923 the "Millī Istiqlāl", or "National Independence". As from 1928 he led this illegal organization, which was one of the strongest anti-Soviet movements, in the capacity of Secretary-General.

From 3rd to 13th March 1938, Faizulla Khodzha and Akmal Ikram sat in the dock with twenty-one other accused, among them Bukharin and Rykov, at the Moscow public trial. Vyshinskiy, as prosecutor for the Soviet State, declared Faizulla Khodzha to be guilty on the following counts:

1. Of having fought against Soviet domination in his capacity of Prime Minister of the Bukharan People's Republic.
2. Of having made preparations in Turkestan for the creation of a bourgeois national State in his capacity of member of the "National Unity" Party, and later as its leader.
3. Of having despatched students to Germany and Turkey in order to build up anti-Soviet national cadres.

4. Of having recruited numerous Turkestanis into the police force in order to build up national fighting forces.
5. Of having fought in 1923 against the economic integration of the Soviet Republic of Turkestan and the People's Republics of Bukhara and Khorezm, in order to defeat the Soviet Government's policy of concentration of economic power.
6. Of having offered resistance to the Soviet policy of national organization.
7. Of having formed the "Group of 18" (3), in order to sabotage the land reform plans of the Soviet Government.
8. Of having striven for the economic independence of Central Asia during the elaboration of the first Five Year Plan (1928-1933).
9. Of having worked against the Soviet cotton policy, and therefore of having sabotaged the One-Crop Plan.
10. Of having assisted the Basmachi movement; of having thrice had secret talks with Enver Pasha; and of having placed former members of the Basmachi movement under his protection up to recent times.
11. Of having placed numerous Nationalists in Soviet state organizations.
12. Of having been a British agent.

Faizulla Khodzha admitted that he had worked for the national independence of Turkestan. He denied hotly ever having been a British agent and Vyshinskiy was unable to prove this. He argued in this context that in any case the formation of a national bourgeois state would mean Britain's mastery in Central Asia.

Alkamal Ikram was declared in principle to be guilty on the following counts:

1. Of having fought Soviet domination since 1918 as a member of the Nationalist Youth Group.

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2. Of having in his capacity as leader of the "National Independence" Party made considerable efforts to separate Turkestan from the Soviet Union.
3. Of having organized armed forces against Soviet Russia.
4. Of having stirred up unrest among the peasants, by increasing the cultivation of cotton (sic).
5. Of having introduced Nationalists into the Party structure.
6. Of having been in touch with foreign powers such as England and Japan, in order to bring Turkestan under the influence of these powers.

Ikram likewise contested the accusation that he had ever dealt with a foreign Power, or that he had ever intended to place his country under foreign influence.

Faizulla Khodzha and Ikram stressed that their action against the Soviet Union had been conditioned by their national feelings, and that neither Russian anti-Bolshevik forces nor any foreign Power, had induced this action. Both men were condemned to death. From 1937 to 1939 each town and each province of Turkestan saw several public trials of "bourgeois Nationalists". (4) Numerous highly-placed State and Party officials were condemned as nationalists by the NKVD "Troyka" or three-man court.

Only one higher official, Yoldash Akhunbaba, the President of the Central Executive Committee, or State President, of Uzbekistan survived. He was illiterate and had nothing whatever to do with politics, but merely appended his "mark" to laws until he died in office. From September 1937 till December 1939 every Party Secretary and Soviet official in the various oblasts, rayons and towns, was arrested. To this day the number of those arrested is unknown.

Notes

- (1) Throughout his book Hayit omits the Russian suffixes commonly added to Turkic proper names. In Soviet sources Faizulla Khodzha is always referred to as Khodzhaev, and Akmal Ikram as Ikramov, etc.
- (2) See KYZYL UZBEKISTON (Red Uzbekistan), published Tashkent, 1st February 1938.

- (3) At the time of the Land Reform (1925-27) eighteen Turkestanis, all of them high officials in State and Party, rose in revolt under the leadership of Faizulla Khodzha against the methods employed in Land Reform. They maintained that these methods were upsetting the social structure and ruining agriculture. They organized protest meetings and sabotage. This group was known as the "Group of 18".
- (4) For instance, the following were condemned to death: Alma-Ata region and East Kazakhstan 19 men, Karaganda (16th-22nd November 1937) 6 men, see SOTSIAL'DY KAZAKHSTAN, 23.11.37; in Ashkhabad 5, in Yangi-Yul' near Tashkent 6, in Balykchi 7, see KYZYL UZBEKISTON, 12.11.37; at the second Karaganda trial (15th-21st November 1937) 7, in Margelan 11, in the Kyzyl-Tepa rayon 5, in Issyk-Kul' rayon 10, see SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of 11.1.38; in Khasan-say 15, in Dzhizak 23, in Kagan 14, in the Surkhan-Dar'ya area 31, Kanimekh 13, Kokand 17, and Namangan 21 men, see KYZYL UZBEKISTON, 17.1.38.
-

Discovery of complete copy of "Abulhairkhan's Chronicle"

The Uzbek Academy of Sciences has recently obtained from a "Mr. M." of Andizhan a manuscript of "Abulhairkhan's Chronicle". Another manuscript of the same work is already in the possession of the Institute, and there is a third in the British Museum. The newly discovered manuscript is, in contrast to the two already known, preserved in its entirety and seems to be the earliest of the three - it is of the sixteenth century. The Chronicle deals with the history of Central Asia from the early Middle Ages to the sixteenth century; it is written in black Indian ink in nasta'liq script and illustrated with twenty-seven miniatures.

PV. 17th August 1956

POLITICAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

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

E X C H A N G E O F P E R I O D I C A L S

Much notice was given by the Central Asian press during the first eight months of 1956 to the exchange of publications between all the Central Asian Republican Academies of Sciences (especially that of Kazakhstan) and learned societies in England and other countries, including many of those in Western Europe, the United States of America, and Australia. There was published too, in PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 29th July, an article of about 350 words, which describes the liaison which has existed for twelve years between the firm of Luzac & Co. Ltd. of London, and the library of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences in Tashkent. The article lists some of the orientalist books for which this library has advertised through MEZHDUNARODNAYA KNIGA and which Luzac has been successful in obtaining for it.

This Centre has established contact and an exchange of publications with the following institutions in Central Asia:

The State University of Central Asia, Tashkent.
The Academy of Sciences of Tadzhikistan, Stalinabad.
The Kirgiz State University, and the Kirgiz Academy of Sciences, Frunse

The Centre has the same relationship with the USSR Academy of Sciences in Moscow, and with many foreign learned institutions outside the USSR, among them:

The Polish Academy of Sciences;

L'Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques and
The Congress for Cultural Freedom (France);

International Instituut voor Sociale Geschiedenis (Holland);

Institut International des Civilisations Differentes (Belgium);

Istituto per L'Oriente (Italy);

Die Deutsche Gesellschaft für Osteuropakunde and
Institut für Erforschung der Geschichte und Kultur der UdSSR (Germany)

The American Geographical Society and the Middle East Institute (USA).

With regard to scientific bibliographies and publications which it receives from institutions in Central Asia, the Centre is glad to furnish such lists, or copies of books which are outside its province to institutions in this country, or to act as an intermediary between institutions in both countries.

A Stalin kolkhoz changes its name

The Stalin kolkhoz in the village of Darai Mukhtar, about 50 km. north of Kulyab in Tadzhikistan, has at a general meeting of members changed its name to "Vose" kolkhoz after a local hero of the 1885 peasant rising against the Bek of Bol' dzhuan. The sculptor A.S. Shemenkov is to design a memorial to Vose for the kolkhoz.

KT. 14th September 1956

Chair of Indian Philology at the Central Asian State University

The recently founded chair of Indian Philology in the Oriental Faculty of the Central Asian State University has an ever-increasing number of pupils. The third body of students to graduate numbered fifteen; the number graduating in 1957 will be greater. Indian delegations visiting Tashkent are always shown the work of the Chair and meet the students and instructors.

PV. 7th July 1956

A new public holiday

In response to many requests the Government and Communist Party of Uzbekistan have established a new public holiday. By decree of the 14th August the holiday, a harvest festival (Pakhta-Bayrami), is to be celebrated annually on the Sunday and Monday of the last week in August.

PV. 14th August 1956

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

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

Introduction - Technical Institutes - Tekhnikums - Labour Reserve system - FZU and FZO schools - Technical schools - Numbers of technically trained workers.

For the purposes of this survey, technical education is taken to be any form of training to fit a man or woman for specialized work in industry, agriculture or the public services, but connected with production. Thus, veterinary courses are not considered here, since they have no direct relation to production, nor are courses for kolkhoz labourers, since they can hardly be said to result in specialization.

Specialization has always been a feature of the Soviet educational system, but it is only recently that technical specialization has affected school training. Since seven-year education became universal and ten-year education common, attempts have been made, notably towards the end of the last Five-Year Plan period, to "polytechnize" the schools; that is, to introduce into the curriculum lessons which will give the pupils an idea of the sort of work they may expect to do in factory or workshop on leaving school, to dispose them towards some aspect of technical work and to give them a basis of technical knowledge. This programme of "polytechnization" has as yet been little implemented, mainly because it has proved difficult to equip schools with the necessary lathes and benches. But it is being strongly pressed, and by the end of this Five-Year period in 1960, some elementary engineering will form part of the background of every school-leaver. As yet technical training is a matter of further education only.

Technical Institutes

At the highest level of technical education in Central Asia there stand thirteen establishments, of which six are in Uzbekistan. These six are the Central Asian Polytechnic Institute, the Tashkent and Uzbek Agricultural Institutes (the latter is in Samarkand), the Tashkent Textile Institute, the Tashkent Institute of Irrigation and Agricultural Mechanization Engineers, and the Tashkent Institute of Railway Engineers. In Kazakhstan there are the Technological, the Mining and Metallurgical, and

the Agricultural Institutes; in Kirgizia an Agricultural and a Polytechnic Institute; in Turkmenistan and in Tadzhikistan there are Agricultural Institutes. It is difficult to establish how many students these establishments accommodate. In general, reports of their activities only appear at the end or beginning of the educational year. It is clear, however, that there is a striking difference between the numbers of those finishing their courses and those entering on them. The Tashkent Textile Institute in 1955 admitted 400 new students; 250 graduated in the same year. In 1954, 198 graduated from the Kirgiz Agricultural Institute and 275 new students were admitted. Six hundred students were admitted in 1955 to both the Mining and Metallurgical and the Agricultural Institutes in Kazakhstan. There are two possible interpretations of this discrepancy: it is possible that these institutes are expanding rapidly, and that while five years ago (the normal length of the course) only 250 new students were admitted, the number now being admitted is much larger. This is supported by the fact that 700 applications had been received at the Tashkent Textile Institute named above. The other possible interpretation is that many students fail to finish their course. There is information to support this; it was stated at the plenum of the Tashkent Party Committee (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 25th December 1955) that only eighty-nine per cent of the students had passed the summer examinations at the Irrigation and Agricultural Mechanization Engineers' Institute, and that this was characteristic of other educational establishments in the city. Another statement to which either of these two interpretations might be applied is that the Kirgiz Agricultural Institute has at present 1,275 students, but during the twenty years 1934-54 it produced only 1,500 graduates, although in this case the Second World War may account for much. (SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 22nd June 1954.)

The curricula in these institutes is more or less uniform, since they are all directly controlled by the Union Ministry of Higher Education. Thus, the Central Asian Polytechnic Institute trains mining engineers, geologists and hydrologists, architects and building engineers, chemical and mechanical engineers, and engineers for the electric power industry. The Frunze Polytechnic Institute has the same faculties. The Tashkent Textile Institute trains engineers for cleaning and processing cotton and jute and so-called economic engineers - concerned with cost assessment - for the industry. Graduates from this Institute are sent to work in every part of the Union where cotton is grown or processed (Azerbaijan, Central Asia and southern Kazakhstan, and the cotton factories of Ivanovo-Voznesensk). The Turkmen Agricultural Institute trains agronomists for various types of agriculture, agricultural and irrigation engineers, and animal husbandry specialists (zootechnicians). The Tashkent Agricultural Institute in addition trains entomologists and phytopathologists (for the purpose of pest control), agricultural chemists and soil experts.

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Particularly interesting is the Tashkent Institute of Railway Engineers, the only such establishment in the five republics. It trains railway engineers of three types - line construction, mechanical and movement - and is under the control of the Union Ministry of Lines of Communication, forming the apex of a separate system of railway education.

Entry to an institute may only be obtained by those who have full secondary education, that is a ten-year secondary school course or a seven-year course, a three-year course at a tekhnikum and two years' work in industry or agriculture. Since as a rule ten-year schools exist only in the towns, it is understandable that the number of tekhnikums - or, as they are sometimes called, secondary specialized educational establishments - is very many times larger than the number of institutes. It may be useful to give approximate figures of establishments giving a technical education at this level for the whole USSR: 1,420 tekhnikums (1951 figure) to 250 institutes (1950 figure). In Kazakhstan there are 64 tekhnikums and 7 agronomists' schools of a similar level (1951) as against 3 institutes; in Uzbekistan 18 industrial tekhnikums, 18 agricultural and 7 of other types (1953) as against 6 institutes; in Kirgizia 5 agricultural tekhnikums and 23 of all other types, including teacher-training (1952) as against 2 institutes; in Tadzhikistan 35 (1955) and in Turkmenistan 29 (1954), in both cases of all types of tekhnikum including teacher-training, as against one institute in each republic. It will thus be seen that the proportion of tekhnikums to institutes in Central Asia is much higher than it is in the Union as a whole.

Tekhnikums

The tekhnikums train men and women for immediate production work, whereas the institutes prepare their graduates for work of an advisory or supervisory nature. All the tekhnikums are under the control of the appropriate ministry; in Uzbekistan, for example, the 18 industrial tekhnikums are allied to the appropriate Union ministry, the 18 agricultural tekhnikums to the Uzbek Ministry of Agriculture, and the 7 of other types to various Uzbek ministries - Light Industry, Local Industries, Building. The agricultural tekhnikums train tractor mechanics, irrigation construction workers, and junior agronomists for work in kolkhozes - agronomists from institutes will usually work at an MTS or sovkhos. The industrial tekhnikums train mechanics, metal-cutters, machine-tool makers and machine operators in general - the men in charge of the more complicated machinery and the more delicate tasks.

It is possible both at this level of training and in the institutes to study by correspondence, and a considerable proportion do so, though the course takes longer. The normal course in a tekhnikum is from three to four

years; by correspondence this is five years, but three for those who already have a ten-year school education. This is because the tekhnikum course includes the training in general educational subjects and "political economy" given in the last three years of secondary education. There is some reason for thinking that in recent years, with the extension of ten-year education to all towns, the standard of admittance to institutes has risen, and that in consequence the number of those with full secondary education attending tekhnikums has also risen. Thus, of the 5,000 admitted to the agricultural tekhnikums of Kazakhstan in 1955 about forty per cent already had a ten-year education, though it was stated that this was a great advance on the previous year (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 1st July 1955). The number of entrants has also risen in some tekhnikums. Thus the Talgar tekhnikum of the Mechanization of Agriculture had in 1955, 800 pupils and 300 graduates in that year, while during the previous ten years the total number of graduates had been little more than 400. It is not surprising, perhaps, that the standard of this establishment had fallen; in the winter examinations 1954-55 of 776 pupils only 57 received the mark "Excellent", 147 "Good", and 36 "Unsatisfactory" in more than one subject, which meant they had to remain at the same level for another year or be dismissed. It was stated that "the material and technical basis of the tekhnikum (the staff and resources) have remained the same as they were five or six years ago". (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 19th April 1955.)

Labour Reserve system and FZU and FZO schools

It is, however, at the lowest level of technical education that the most impressive effects have been obtained. Such education was begun very early by the opening of FZU Schools (Fabrichno-zavodskoye uchenichestvo, Factory Training) in 1920. These schools, reorganized in 1933 to cut down the time spent on general educational teaching, continued as the only lower technical training until October 1940, when they were largely replaced by the Labour Reserves system of Two-year Trade and Railway Schools and six-month FZO Schools (Fabrichno-zavodskoye obucheniye, Factory Teaching). The latter differed from the FZU schools in that they had a slightly different title and only a six-month course instead of a course of from six months to two years, and that they were not organized immediately at the factories where their pupils were to work. A few FZU schools were retained after the change-over. Later Mining Industry Schools (1948) and Schools for the Mechanization of Agriculture (1953) were established as part of the same Labour Reserves system, under the Chief Labour Reserves Authority (for a time the Ministry of Labour Reserves). It is noteworthy that these latter two types of school are called uchilishche and not shkola, to denote the complexity of the subjects taught, although the course is the same length. The total number of workers passing out from these schools (not including FZU) in the whole USSR in 1953 was 320,000.

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Figures given for the number of such schools in Central Asia are as follows: Kazakhstan; 75 FZO with 12,000 pupils, 23 trade schools with 5,000 pupils and 10 railway schools with 3,000 pupils (1950); Kirgizia; 3 trade schools, 1 railway and 1 mining industry school, 4 FZO and 1 FZU schools (1952); for the other republics no totals are available for previous years. However, 1955 saw the fifteenth anniversary of the creation of the Labour Reserves system, and some details were given in commemorative articles in the republican newspapers. There are in Uzbekistan 47 schools of this system, which have during the years 1940-55 produced over 140,000 trained workers (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 2nd October 1955). During the same period the Tadzhik schools produced over 20,000 workers; in 1955-56 there were twelve such schools - five mechanization of agriculture schools and three trade schools training agricultural mechanics - with 3,000 pupils (KOMMUNIST TALZHIIKISTANA, 2nd October 1955). An article in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA has stated that in the two years 1954-56 the number of such schools in Kirgizia has been doubled and that they now contain 3,000 pupils (12th January 1956). An advertisement in TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA states that there are five schools for the mechanization of agriculture in Turkmenistan, one trade school for rural electromechanics, and two FZO schools, one in Kizyl-Arvat for training tractor repairers and the other in Chardzhou for carpenters and masons, but this list is obviously not exhaustive (4th September 1955). From 1940-55 the Kazakh Labour Reserve schools produced over 300,000 workers; there were 61 such schools with 9,800 pupils in the republic in 1953 and in 1955, 122 with 26,000 pupils. This startling development was occasioned by the New Lands campaign (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 2nd October 1955). In 1955 there were 16,000 pupils in mechanization of agriculture schools in Kazakhstan (1st June 1955) which number was shortly to be increased by 7,000 of the new settlers.

Of the FZU schools an isolated example is to be found at the Tashkent Textile Kombinat. At this school girls and boys of 16-19 years with from seven to ten years' education are trained on courses of a year to become weavers and spinners. Those with four to six years' education are given a course of six to nine months to become doublers, reelers and minor operators. The school does not normally provide clothing or living accommodation. The FZO schools do provide this; the pupils wear uniform and live in a hostel. They usually accommodate from 100 to 200 pupils, and give a six to nine months' course in the most varied subjects according to the industries of the town or district where they are situated. The level of instruction seems also to vary greatly. Thus in Kirgizia of 132 production instructors, 91 have not completed ten years' education (30th March 1955). In Uzbekistan at the Khiva Mechanization School not one of the teachers (of theory as opposed to production) has any higher education (21st August 1955). On the other hand, the pupils' level of education seems to be

rising. In Uzbekistan in 1955-56 all the pupils entering mechanization schools, who are drawn from rural areas and might be expected to be backward, had already seven years education (20th August 1955).

The railway schools have in general a higher standard of entrance and training, forming as they do an enclosed and separate system. It is perhaps worthy of remark that the Tashkent Railway School, the oldest in the republic, has a close association with the Tashkent Suvorov Military School (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 30th September 1955). A more typical school, the Ashkhabad Three-Year Diesel Engine-Driver School, accepts men of 23-30 with at least seven years' education, and pays them 100 rubles a month in addition to full maintenance and clothing.

Technical schools

The latest addition to the Labour Reserves system are the technical schools established in 1954 to meet growing demands for junior technicians. Much attention to such schools has been devoted in the press recently. In Uzbekistan six have already been opened, in Fergana (hydrolysis technicians), Tashkent (posts and telephones and metal workers), in Angren (coal mining), in Andizhan (metal workers) and in Kokand (railway workers). These schools will accommodate 1,500 boys and girls in the year 1955-56, all with full secondary education (PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 19th August 1955). In Kazakhstan eight such schools with 1,200 pupils were opened in 1954 and their number was to be raised to thirteen with 3,000 pupils in 1955-56 (2nd October 1955). The eight schools opened in 1954 are in Alma-Ata, Karaganda, Balkhash, Temir-Tau, Ust'-Kamenogorsk, Kustanay, Akmolinsk and Tekeli. In Frunze there are two of these schools; there is no information about them in Tadzhikistan or Turkmenistan. Admission to them seems to be by application, and not by conscription, as has been the case with the other Labour Reserves schools. All applicants must have a full ten-year education.

It will thus be seen that although the arrangements for ensuring a supply of trained technical personnel are of long standing the first real enlargement and the introduction of industrial conscription came only in 1940, and was interrupted by the years of war and reconstruction, while the period of greatest expansion has been the last two or three years. Yet even the present rate of output is not sufficient for present needs. A survey of the Labour Reserves system in PRAVDA (20th August 1956), showed that especially in the field of building - both domestic and industrial (in the metallurgical, chemical and coal industries) - there was a great shortage of trained workers. It had been calculated that in 1956, 897,000 pupils would leave seven-year schools and 744,000 ten-year schools, not including in these figures those who would attend tekhnikums or VUZ; all these should receive some production training. (It may be remembered that

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in 1953, before the creation of Mechanization and Technical Schools, the Labour Reserves system embraced 320,000). It is interesting to note that a very great number of the trainees were to go to Kazakhstan.

The reports of the State Planning Commission and the republican Statistical Authorities on the fulfilment of the last Five-Year Plan, which appeared during June, give interesting information on the number of trained workers in industry and agriculture and are reproduced below in tabular form. The relevant newspapers are: PRAVDA VOSTOKA, 12th June 1956; KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 12th June 1956; SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 16th June 1956; KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA, 13th June 1956; TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 26th June 1956.

Trained Workers in Industry and Agriculture

	Uzbekistan	Kazakhstan	Kirgizia	Tadzhikistan	Turkmenistan
Number with VUZ or tekhnikum education working on 1st July 1955	125,000	180,000	40,000	-	-
Technical, trade and railway schools	12,000	15,000	1,600	3,000 (incl.FZO)	10,000 (for the whole Labour Reserves)
Mechanization schools	16,000	44,000	3,500	2,700	-
FZO schools	7,000	35,000	2,400	-	-
FZU schools	10,000	12,500	2,400	3,000	-
Factory training	160,000	240,000	42,000	31,000	40,000

The value of the last figures given is doubtful; it includes all production courses taken in factories.

Sources

Where no reference to a republican newspaper has been given, the source has been the GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA, under the appropriate article, or of the standard works on the five Central Asian republics. Some use has been

made of NARODNOYE OBRAZOVANIYE V SSSR by Ye. N. Medynskiy, Moscow, 1952. The chart attached to "Primary and Secondary Education in Kazakhstan" in CAR Vol.II, No.2, p.184, will be found helpful.

Institute of Nuclear Physics for Uzbekistan

By a resolution of the USSR Council of Ministers of the 5th August an Institute of Nuclear Physics has been set up in connection with the Uzbek Academy of Sciences. The Institute, which will be situated in Tashkent, is to have an experimental atomic reactor and all the necessary equipment to go with it. The Director is to be Professor Ubay Arifov and the Deputy Director Dr. Sadyk Azimovich Azimov. The decision to establish the Institute was greeted in PRAVDA VOSTOKA as a signal mark of respect for the achievements of Uzbek scientists.

PV. 5th, 7th and
25th August 1956

Proposed station for study of cosmic radiation

The Kazakh Council of Ministers has passed a resolution on the building of a station for the study of cosmic radiation in the Sarty-Bulak valley, 3,400 metres above sea level in the Trans-Ili Ala-Tau near Alma-Ata. The present station of the USSR Academy of Sciences in the Pamirs will be transferred to the new buildings which will contain two Wilson chambers.

KP. 7th August 1956

A G R I C U L T U R E

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

General survey - Manpower problems - Agricultural machinery and equipment - Harvesting methods - Harvest results.

An article entitled "Land Reclamation in Kazakhstan" which was published in *CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW* Vol.III, No.4, gave a comprehensive account of the aims, difficulties and achievements of the vast land reclamation scheme for Kazakhstan which purposes to turn the republic into the largest agricultural producer in the USSR. The following article gives a brief account of the present situation and the 1956 harvest results as at the end of September.

General survey

On the 27th July 1956 a conference of sovkhos, kolkhoz and MTS representatives, secretaries of rayon and oblast committees of the Communist Party, chairmen of rayon and oblast soviets, etc., was convened at Alma-Ata. Khrushchev himself was present and in his speech to the conference said: "Not long ago Kazakhstan was considered as a backward republic with very small prospects. Now we see that radical changes have taken place here within the last two years. Formerly kolkhozes and sovkhoszes were giving to the State only tens of million puds (1) of grain, but this year one-thousand million puds are to be delivered, as compared with 2.2 thousand million puds from the Russian Federation and five-hundred million puds from the Ukraine. At present Kazakhstan occupies the second place amongst the grain producing republics of the Soviet Union." Khrushchev went on to say that with a good grain crop next year the State would be able to reduce grain purchases (at present compulsory and at a low price) from kolkhozes. Kolkhozes would then enjoy still more favourable conditions for the development of animal husbandry, and could also sell bread in the open markets "resulting in the reduction of the price of it which would contribute to a new rise of prosperity for the people." (SEL'SKOYE KHOZAYSTVO, 29th July 1956.)

(1) 1 pud = 16 kg.

In 1956, 27.8m. hectares have been sown to various crops including 23.5m. hectares to corn (18.8m. hectares to wheat and 1.7m. to maize). The cultivated area was 9.7m. hectares in 1953. Thus eighteen million hectares of virgin and derelict land have been brought under cultivation in 1954-56 and the Republic now produces sixteen times as much grain as it did two years ago (SOVIET WEEKLY, 23rd August 1956). The main wheat-producing regions are the oblasts of Kustanay, Akmolinsk, Kokchetav, Pavlodar and North-Kazakhstan and these are responsible for 76.2 per cent of the grain-procurement quota planned for 1956.

Between 1954 and 1956, 337 new grain-producing sovkhoses have been created; many of these will each deliver two to three million puds of grain to the State granaries this year. The sovkhoses of Kazakhstan are expected to produce 62 per cent of the total wheat crop. In 1956 exceptionally good crops have been obtained nearly everywhere and an average yield of 16 centners of grain (1.6 tons) should be produced per hectare, and in certain areas this will be much exceeded.

Manpower problems

A considerable shortage of manpower to cope with such a rich harvest has led to a new campaign in the Soviet press, inviting University students, industrial and office workers, and other town-dwellers to come to Kazakhstan and help bring in the harvest. As a result of this appeal thousands of townspeople from Moscow, Khar'kov, Kirov, Odessa, Minsk, Latvia, Belorussia and other parts of the Soviet Union began to stream into Kazakhstan in July. Moscow University had a special student train, with male and female students dressed in kovboyka (cowboy shirt) and breeches of a uniform pattern, which left the University siding to the cheers of the crowd. These groups of students are usually well equipped with blankets, crockery, musical instruments and other necessities, and as a general rule they are well received and cared for at the sovkhoses and MTS; but some complaints do appear in the regional press about the lack of due attention from the local administration. Altogether over 200,000 people came to Kazakhstan to help with this summer's harvest. They are supposed to return to their normal occupation when the season's work is over, but already a new movement has begun - of students volunteering to stay in the New Lands for good. In addition to young people from the Soviet Union, representatives of satellite countries have also answered the appeal for help. SEL'SKOYE KHOZYAYSTVO of the 11th August reporting the arrival of Soviet volunteers at Kokchetav adds: "On the 9th August young men and girls from Czechoslovakia and Rumania joined them. Bulgarians, too, are now working on virgin land."

AGRICULTURE

Agricultural machinery and equipment

Between 1956 and 1960 grain elevators and granaries are to be built in Kazakhstan with a total capacity of 13m. tons of grain. In 1956, 650 granaries with a total capacity of 2.1m. tons are to be built by the ZAGOTZERNO (Grain Procurement Organization) alone. In addition new elevators, grain-driers, asphalted or cemented threshing floors, and sidings will have to be completed this year. Four specialized trusts of the GLAVZAGOTSTROY (Main Procurement Construction), the Ministry of Town and Country Building of Kazakhstan and a number of building organizations are responsible for their construction. (KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 29th July 1956.)

However, building is behind schedule and there are numerous complaints in the press regarding shortage of storage space, elevators, timber for new granaries, lorries to move the grain from the farms to the granaries, spare parts for the lorries and so on. The total capacity of the granaries has in fact been almost trebled in the past two years, but the shortage is obviously acute in some areas (especially in the north-west) where grain is stored by piling it up on asphalted open-air floors, and wheat is being temporarily stored in heaps which are covered with straw to protect them from the rain. Grain-screening towers are also under construction; these serve to screen and load the corn and each can treat about 30,000 puds (480 tons) of grain a day, but only a quarter of the planned number of these driers has been completed in northern Kazakhstan.

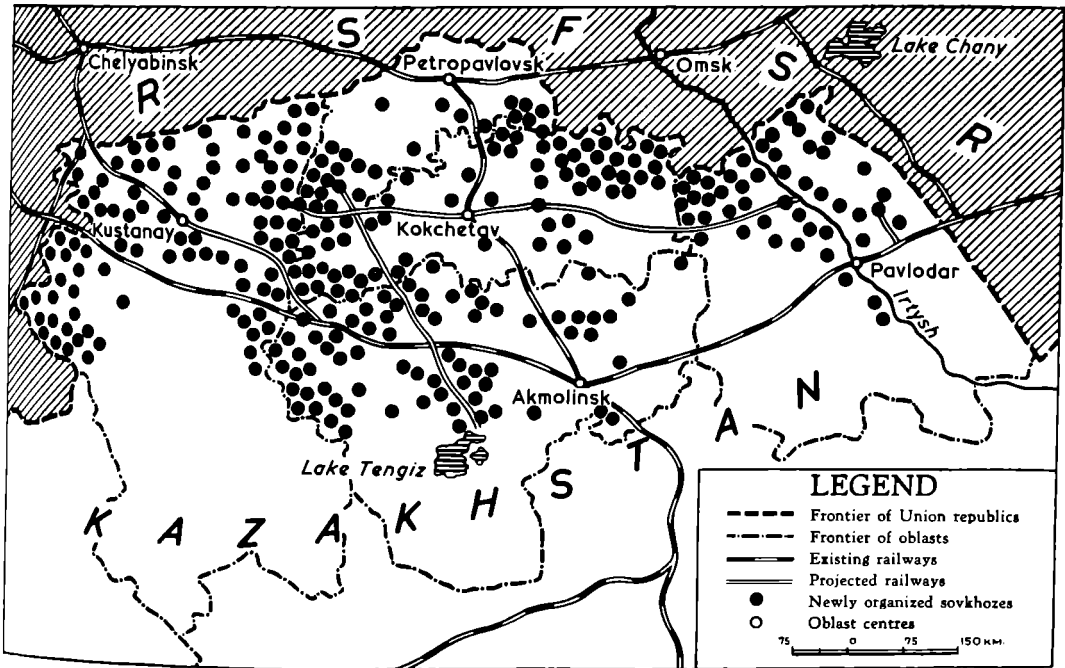
Owing to the shortage of machinery their "harvest quotas" are having to be exceeded in some instances. Combine-harvesters, for instance, are harvesting 385 hectares of crops each which is considerably more than it should be. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 31st July publishes the average quotas for various types of agricultural machines: reaping machines 40 hectares a day; S6 combine-harvesters 30; S4 combine-harvesters 25. These figures are for reaping only, for combined reaping-threshing they are much lower: 18-20 hectares a day for the S6 combine-harvester, and 14-16 hectares for self-propelled combines.

Harvesting methods

During the last few years it has been the practice in Kazakhstan to take thirty days over the harvest. Discussing this, SEL'SKOYE KHOZYAYSTVO of 28th July 1956 says that by taking so long and harvesting in three stages, as has been the custom, a great deal of the crop was lost. The first third would be harvested in full, about eight per cent of the second third was lost and up to thirty-three per cent of the last third. This

THE NEW GRAIN SOVKHOZES OF KAZAKHSTAN

(Reproduced from *Pravda*, 12th October, 1956.)



appears to be due to the slowness of the combine-harvester when it is reaping and threshing together. The two-stage harvesting method is now being advocated in Soviet daily papers and specialized journals. By this method grain crops are harvested by reaping-machines before they are fully ripened and left in the fields for a few days to dry, after which combine-harvesters thresh them on the spot; the grain is then transferred by lorry to elevators, granaries, and open-air cemented or asphalted floors for screening and drying. Two-stage harvesting avoids the considerable loss of time usual with complete combine-harvesting, which necessitates waiting till the crop is fully ripe before reaping-threshing can begin, moreover the combine-harvester which is reaping and threshing together can cover only half, or less than half, the hectarage that the reaping machines can cover in a day (see previous paragraph). During the harvesting season in north-western Kazakhstan rains are frequent, the importance of bringing the crops in quickly is therefore obvious.

Apart from delays in receiving necessary machinery and the construction of granaries, etc., individual sovkhoses do not always make the best use of the equipment they have. Screening is often done by hand even when machines are available, and lorries are loaded and unloaded manually; thus machines and lorries lie idle and the completion of the harvest is unnecessarily delayed.

1956 Harvest results

The Alma-Ata agricultural conference of 27th July published an appeal to all those employed in agriculture, in KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA on the 31st July. Two of the many points made were: (a) that the 1956 spring sowing quota had been "overfulfilled" by 835,000 hectares and (b) a pledge to harvest 1,400m. puds of grain and thus considerably to exceed the State grain procurement plan. PRAVDA of the 12th October says that by the 10th October Kazakhstan had yielded 1,000m. puds of grain to the State. The following tables give the quotas pledged and the latest information on the grain harvest available at the time of going to press:

TABLE I

Production Pledged by Grain-Producing Oblasts (1)

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Million puds</u>
Kustanay	260
Kokchetav	165
Akmolinsk	175
Pavlodar	110
North-Kazakhstan	90
Karaganda	21
Semipalatinsk	22
East-Kazakhstan	20
West-Kazakhstan	28
Aktyubinsk	30
Dzhambul	24
Alma-Ata	20
Taldy-Kurgan	17
South-Kazakhstan	10
Kzyl-Orda	3
Gur'yev	no figure available

(1) KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 31st July 1956

TABLE II

Grain Deliveries to State Procurement Organizations

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Fulfilment of plan (in percentages)(1)</u>	<u>In percentages of the pledges undertaken for deliveries in 1956(2)</u>	
		<u>Kolkhozes</u>	<u>Sovkhozes</u>
Kustanay(3)	98.5	81.5	76.8
Kokchetav	87.7	65.8	60.1
Akmolinsk	100.2	89.2	81
Pavlodar(4)	60.8	59.7	45.1
North-Kazakhstan(4)	72.3	44.7	54.5
Karaganda(4)	75.3	95.3	61
Semipalatinsk	85.3	86.5	62.1
East-Kazakhstan	105.5	76.5	70.7
West-Kazakhstan	107.9	94.6	116.7
Aktyubinsk	126.5	122	92.9
Dzhambul	100.3	112.6	86.2
Alma-Ata	90.3	87.6	79.2
Taldy-Kurgan	96.3	98.8	84.4
South-Kazakhstan	100.7	113.6	86.1
Kzyl-Orda	31.5	15.2	-
Gur'yev	.4	-	-

- (1) These figures are taken from KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 28th September 1956.
- (2) Taken from KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 12th September 1956.
- (3) KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 28th September gives great praise to the success of the Kustanay oblast which has yielded to the State 262,770,999 puds of wheat. This is, according to the paper, 127m. puds in excess of the State plan for 1956; the wheat harvest this year was 12m. puds more than in the previous 22 years put together. It will be seen that these figures cannot be reconciled with:
 (a) the "pledge" given in Table I and (b) the percentage of 98.5 shown in column 1 above. It is possible that the State plan was very much lower than the "pledge" given by the oblast. It is also possible that 127m. puds is a misprint for 2.7m. Unfortunately the figures for the State plan are not available. Ed. CAR
- (4) These oblasts are singled out for considerable criticism by KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 12th September for their low yields.

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TABLE III

Harvest Progress as at 28th September 1956 (1)

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Million puds</u>
Kustanay	262.5
Kokchetav	131.6
Akmolinsk	175
Pavlodar	66
North-Kazakhstan	58.6

- (1) PRAVDA, 22nd, 26th, 27th, 28th September 1956. These figures are for the total grain harvest, whilst the percentages given in Table II cover only grain delivered to State Procurement Organizations.

TABLE IV

Kolkhoz and Sovkhoz Harvest Progress as at 12th September 1956 (1)

<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Percentages of planned quotas</u>		<u>Oblast</u>	<u>Percentages of planned quotas</u>	
	<u>Kolkhozes</u>	<u>Sovkhozes</u>		<u>Kolkhozes</u>	<u>Sovkhozes</u>
Kustanay	93.2	91.9	W-Kazakhstan	88.9	95.2
Kokchetav	95	83.5	Aktyubinsk	93.1	94.3
Akmolinsk	98.9	95.3	Dzhambul	99.4	99.3
Pavlodar	89.1	88.9	Alma-Ata	99.2	93.9
N-Kazakhstan	82.2	89.9	Taldy-Kurgan	98.3	99.2
Karaganda	99.7	98.4	S-Kazakhstan	100	100
Semipalatinsk	92.1	96.9	Kzyl-Orda	56.7	100
E-Kazakhstan	68.4	94.8	Gur'yev	54.2	-

- (1) KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 12th September 1956. These percentages cover the total grain harvest.

Sources

- Sel'skoye Khozyaystvo.
- Pravda.
- Izvestiya.
- Kazakhstanskaya Pravda.
- Soviet Weekly.

A G R I C U L T U R E

P I G - F A R M I N G

Introduction - Pork production - Breeding and fattening - Industrial pig farms.

Until very recently pig-farming was of minor importance in both Central Asia and Kazakhstan. What herds there were, were mainly to be found in the agricultural areas of Kazakhstan which had a Russian or Ukrainian population and on the outskirts of large towns where also there would be a high proportion of non-Muslims.(1) This is equally true of Kirgizia where there is a large agricultural Russian minority; in Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan with their predominantly Muslim population, pig-breeding is only now being introduced, probably on a fairly small scale. The encouragement of pig-keeping in Muslim countries is apparently due to the still widespread meat shortage. Piggeries are being organized at collective farms in Uzbekistan and fodder silos for their feeding according to PRAVDA VOSTOKA of the 6th August 1955. TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 5th August 1955 reports that in Turkmenistan ten pig farms have been started in kolkhozes of the Tel'man rayon and the number of pigs is increasing fast.

The rapid growth of grain production in Kazakhstan is exceptionally favourable for pig-farming and the Soviet agricultural press is now stressing the importance of maize silage for fattening during the winter. Animal husbandry is to be completely reorganized at state and collective farms and new areas of northern Kazakhstan are to be brought under cultivation to provide fodder for the expanding pig population. If properly organized most kolkhozes could produce twenty-five to thirty centners of pork per hundred hectares of cultivated land.(2)

The Sixth Five-Year Plan provides for the following increased meat production in Central Asia: Uzbekistan 140 per cent, Tadzhikistan 120 per cent; Kirgizia 60 per cent; Turkmenistan 80 per cent and Kazakhstan 50 per cent. Pork is to form between 40 and 50 per cent of this total (3), (in Kazakhstan in 1955 it amounted to little over two per cent of total meat deliveries). There is still a general shortage of meat throughout the Soviet Union and to counter this and help to achieve the 1960 target, a series of special measures were recently taken to promote a rapid improve-

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ment in animal husbandry. Among these was a resolution on "means of pork production and delivery to the State" made at the VIIIth Congress of the Kazakh Communist Party and which, according to KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 26th January 1956, "will make it possible for kolkhozes and sovkhozes to increase pig-breeding considerably, and by delivering pork (to the State procurement organizations) to limit the slaughter of cattle and sheep." "At present", the paper continues, "pig-breeding is much neglected with us, so much so that 824 kolkhozes and 391 sovkhozes have no pigs at all." In order to achieve the pork target in the Sixth Five-Year Plan improved methods of fattening and breeding are to be brought into use.

The northern regions of Kazakhstan - the North-Kazakhstan, Akmolinsk, Kustanay, Kokchetav and Pavlodar oblasts - are the most suitable for large-scale pig-farming. This is the area of the New Lands where, apart from the agricultural suitability of the region for pig-breeding, it is naturally easier to effect changes from traditional farming methods than in the older settlements. The cultivation of maize (for fodder), for instance, is being organized precisely in these regions; in 1956 many of the new state farms are to expand pig-production and consequently pork supplies and farms specializing in large-scale pig-breeding are to be set up. Previously pigs were mainly fattened for lard and fat in Kazakhstan, but now fattening for pork is being given priority; this should make a considerable contribution towards alleviating the meat shortage in urban districts. By fattening for pork instead of lard a gain in live-weight of 20-22 per cent is obtained from the same quantity of fodder. The systems of feeding to be used for fattening stock for pork are to be largely outdoor fattening and green fodder.

At the Shemonakhskiy pig-breeding sovkhov every sow is expected to farrow three times a year; the resultant number of young pigs should be 18,500 and the majority of these will be fattened for pork. This particular sovkhov has 6,188 hectares under cultivation; 17,000 centners of pork are scheduled to be delivered to the state procurement organization in 1956 which gives an average of 270 centners per 100 hectares. (4) According to SEL'SKOYEKHOZYAYSTVO of the 25th March 1956 the kolkhozes of the Alma-Ata oblast, however, have not yet learned how to breed pigs. In most of the kolkhozes sows have only one litter of ten a year. Between October 1955 and January 1956 over 9,000 piglets either died or were sold too young thus resulting in a considerable rise in the price of pork. Sucking pigs are sold instead of being fattened for pork or lard and the profit made from this does not cover the expense of breeding. Out of 28,000 pigs, 14,000 were sold very young. Another complaint is that some kolkhozes with large piggeries deliver either no pork at all or far too small a quantity; the kolkhozes of the Dzhambul rayon (Alma-Ata oblast) delivered only nine pigs

out of a possible 1,900 to the procurement organizations in 1955, and farms of the Alma-Ata rayon only 55 animals out of the 3,000 which should have been available.(5) Even so, in 1955 the pig population of Kazakhstan was considerably larger than in 1954.

In Kirgizia more attention is now being given to pig-farming and many kolkhozes have started piggeries which are already delivering large quantities of pork to the state procurement organizations. SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of the 7th January 1956 writes that the expansion of the pig industry at the Kant sugar-beet sovkhov is of particular interest. In 1955, 86 centners of meat, which included 51 centners of pork, per 100 hectares of cultivated land were produced on this farm. But in the kolkhozes of the Frunze oblast as a whole only 5.2 centners of pork per 100 hectares were produced in 1955 instead of the target of 11.5 centners. The position is equally unsatisfactory in many other sovkhovs and kolkhozes and only twelve per cent of the pigs bred in 1955 were fattened and delivered to the state procurement organizations. The same paper goes on to analyse the reasons for this general failure and gives shortage of fodder and lack of modern piggeries where herds can be rapidly increased as the main causes.

Despite difficulties good results are usually obtained at farms where pig-breeding is efficiently organized. As has already been stated, in northern Kazakhstan pigs are chiefly bred and fattened for pork, but in the grain-producing areas of south-east Kazakhstan breeding is for fat and lard. The Large White breed has been chosen by the majority of Kazakh kolkhozes for fat and lard fattening-stock and has given very satisfactory results. Large Whites and cross-breeds from them are being purchased by the sovkhovs and kolkhozes of the New Lands, and these farms are starting to experiment with cross-breeding themselves, in particular they are crossing Large White sows with Bashkirian boars. Soviet publications on pig-keeping recommend crossing the Berkshire boars with Large White sows. Berkshires are considered one of the best breeds, the average live-weight varying between 280 and 320 kg.

Pig-breeding is particularly well organized in the Sokolovskiy sovkhov, Kustanay oblast, where 6,709 pigs were fattened and produced 64.8 centners of pork (live weight) per 100 hectares of cultivated land in two years of pig-breeding. The pigs are fattened on concentrated fodder, ground grain and steamed root vegetables. Oats and alfalfa are also used for fattening, and the sovkhov is growing carrots, pumpkins and forage-beet for pig fodder.(6)

One of the causes of the comparatively slow progress in pig-production in Kazakhstan is the shortage of fodder (7), and for this reason official circles are campaigning for a further increase in maize cultivation.

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KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 15th November 1955 goes so far as to say that maize cultivation "can easily be doubled at the majority of pig farms and is essential for the rapid and substantial development of pig-breeding in Kazakhstan."

In KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the same date there is the following account of pig-farms which have been started by certain industrial firms; the expansion of this scheme is being encouraged as an additional means of overcoming the meat shortage: "Various industrial undertakings in Kazakhstan are now breeding pigs, among them the Leninogorsk Polymetal Kombinat, the Ust'-Kamenogorsk Lead-Zinc Kombinat where 450 pigs were fattened in 1955, and a number of others. The cost of pork, however, is still very high as restaurant and factory canteen waste is not yet in general use as pig food. Ust'-Kamenogorsk has twenty-four industrial canteens and could fatten at least 500 to 550 animals every year. . . Waste from restaurants, snack-bars, buffets, bakeries and greengrocers is not fully utilized. At certain piggeries animals are slaughtered before they have attained the proper weight. At the Chimkent Lead Works pig farm the average weight does not exceed 95 kg. a head and a similar situation exists on the farms of the Irtysh and Ust'-Kamenogorsk foodstuff procurement organizations." The article goes on to say that maize should be used more for fodder and though some factories are planting sufficient maize on their pig-farms, others are not. The paper concludes that pig-keeping should be rapidly expanded by industrial organizations.

From the foregoing it can be seen that the official aim is to expand and reorganize the pig industry in Central Asia and Kazakhstan as quickly as possible so as to ensure adequate meat supplies for the urban population in the minimum time. Increased maize cultivation is to provide most of the necessary fodder, and the main burden of the expansion is to be carried by the creation of large, specialized state pig-farms, industrial piggeries and the introduction of pig-farming in the largely Muslim republics of Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan will also play their part.

Notes

- (1) EKONOMICHESKAYA GEOGRAFIYA SSSR. G.N. Cherdantsev. Moscow, 1954, p.²
- (2) SISTEMA VEDENIYA ZHIVOTNOVODSTVA. I.M. Goryachkovskiy. Moscow, 1955, pp.146-7.
- (3) Article by A. Seitov, animal husbandry specialist, in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA, 11th November 1955.

- (4) KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA, 14th December 1955.
- (5) Article by F. Karibshyanov entitled "Perspektivy Razvitiya Sel'skogo Khozyaystva v Kazakhstane" in SOTSIALISTICHESKOYE SEL'SKOYE KHOZYAYSTVO, 1955, No.5, p.21.
- (6) I.M. Goryachanskiy, op.cit. p.147.
- (7) F. Karibzhanov, op.cit. p.20.

Additional Sources

1. Sovkhoznoye Proizvodstvo.
 2. Sel'skoye Khozyaystvo, 1956.
 3. Central Asian Press.
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Floods in Alma-Ata

On the 7th August there was a flood of mud and boulders in the Little Alma-Atinka river caused by the melting of snow and glaciers under the action of sun and heavy rains near Tuyuk-Su in the Trans-Ili Ala-Tau. The flood came in waves at intervals of fifteen to thirty minutes and was diverted by a sluice into the Vesnovka brook. The inhabitants of Alma-Ata came out to strengthen the banks and avert disaster from the city; the town anti-flood commission has taken measures to deal with the consequences of the inundation, the worst since 1921.

KP. 9th August 1956

A G R I C U L T U R E

F R U I T C U L T I V A T I O N

Introduction - I. Kazakhstan - II. Uzbekistan - III. Kirgizia -
IV. Tadzhikistan - V. Turkmenistan - Conclusion.

Although orchards and vineyards have long flourished in parts of Central Asia and Kazakhstan - such as the Fergana valley, the northern valleys of Tadzhikistan and the Alma-Ata region - fruit-growing as an industry has been much neglected even in areas where its cultivation was traditional. This seems to have been because until recently there was little demand for fruit and it was thought that the climatic conditions and lack of water in large areas of the republics made them impossible for fruit-farming. However, the development of the fruit-canning industry and the rapidly increasing population in urban districts has created a new and growing demand. In addition, the research work of the few existing fruit nurseries and experimental orchards over the past ten or fifteen years has shown that specially selected varieties of trees and bushes can be successfully cultivated even in such inhospitable areas as northern Kazakhstan. Frost-resistant varieties of apple-trees, chiefly from Siberia, are being introduced, pears which will withstand a hard continental winter, plum-cherry hybrids and many kinds of soft fruit are all being developed in newly-created fruit nurseries. The Sixth Five-Year Plan calls for a large expansion in fruit production, to be achieved by the restoration and extension of old, neglected orchards and vineyards, by the creation of many new fruit sovkhoses and kolkhoses and by the cultivation of small orchards and gardens in individual peasant holdings and factory yards.

I. KAZAKHSTAN

The policy of land reclamation in Kazakhstan has created favourable conditions for the expansion of horticulture. Orchards are being laid out in the new sovkhoses and kolkhoses in the northern part of the republic, but at present fruit-farming is still in its infancy in these regions (Kustanay, Kokchetav, North-Kazakhstan, Akmolinsk and Pavlodar oblasts). A considerable difficulty is the climate; north Kazakhstan has a cold winter,

a relatively short vegetation season, insufficient rain, and strong winds in summer as well as winter, all of which makes for poor fruit-growing country. However, the proceedings of the inter-regional horticultural conference which took place at Karaganda in 1955 showed that experimental work carried out by research organizations of the Kazakh Agricultural Institute and the Karaganda Experimental Agricultural Station confirms the possibility of large-scale fruit-farming in the New Lands. In fact, 1,600 hectares of orchard and garden were laid out in the new sovkhoses in 1955.

Special varieties of fruit-trees and bush fruits, highly resistant to cold and wind, have been selected for cultivation in this region. A number of northern varieties of strawberry, black- and red-currants, raspberry and gooseberry are to be tried out in northern Kazakhstan. Apple, pear, plum and cherry trees will be specially selected for each type of climate. Existing nurseries in Kazakhstan are to supply 100,000 seedlings a year apiece, and new nurseries are being set up in the Yesil' rayon in the Akmolinsk oblast, the Ruzayev and Aryk-Balyuk rayons of the Kokchetav oblast and in the Kustanay rayon. Plans are being made for orchards and gardens of twenty to thirty hectares to be laid out in every kolkhoz; the standard size in the new sovkhoses and kolkhozes is to be 100 to 200 hectares.

KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of the 28th December 1955 reports that due to frost and unsatisfactory care in recent years the total area planted with fruit-trees and bush fruits has declined by 11,000 hectares; this being particularly true of the South-Kazakhstan, Alma-Ata, Dzhangul and Taldy-Kurgan oblasts. Lack of seedlings hinders the desired expansion on many farms, and the majority of kolkhozes have not organized "specialized teams of gardeners". There is a growing demand in the towns and industrial settlements for fruit; to satisfy this and also to ensure the delivery of raw materials to the food industry, apple, soft fruit and grape production is to be considerably increased. The Kazakh Council of Ministers and the Central Committee of the Communist Party consider the development of orchards and vineyards as one of the most important tasks of the Party, the kolkhozes, sovkhoses and the MTS. Special attention is to be given to the establishment of orchards and gardens in the foothills of the Trans-Ili, Dzhangul and Talas Ala-Tau ranges; all orchards and gardens which were destroyed by the frost of 1954 are to be restored by 1958. The MTS are to provide adequate machinery to ensure that the new orchards, gardens and vineyards can be properly laid out. In addition, between fifteen and twenty fruit-trees should be planted in every individual peasant holding. The total area devoted to nurseries is to be increased - to 285 hectares for fruit-trees, 145 hectares for vineyards and up to 35 hectares for bush fruits. Five new nurseries are to be set up in the land reclamation areas. The question of creating specialized "fruit garden" and vineyard sovkhoses

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is being studied by the State Planning Authority (GOSPLAN) and the Ministry of Agriculture and Sovkhozes in Kazakhstan.

Northern Kazakhstan

In 1954 a fruit-growers' conference at Karaganda recommended that fruit should be grown in the following proportions in northern Kazakhstan: fifty-eight per cent apple-trees; one per cent pear-trees; ten per cent plum-trees; eight per cent cherry-trees and twenty-three per cent bush fruits. This selection is, of course, largely influenced by the difficult climatic conditions for fruit-farming already mentioned.

Kustanay oblast

Apple and plum are the main fruit crop of this oblast, though tomatoes and melons are also cultivated and the climate is warm enough for bush fruits. In 1955 there were 125 hectares of orchard and 16.2 hectares of bush fruit plantations; about half of these are in the Kustanay and Zabol rayons. The average fruit crop amounted to 34 centners per hectare in 1955, but at some kolkhozes 40 and 60 centners were obtained.

Kokchetav oblast

S.A. Khabibullin writing in RAZVITIYE SADOVODSTVA NA SEVERE KAZAKHSTANA (1955) states that fruit-farming could be further developed in the Kokchetav oblast, particularly in the woodland steppe area. The total area planted with fruit trees in 1955 was 71 hectares; there were only 30 hectares of fruit gardens. The Borovskiy Agricultural Tekhnikum was the only specialist organization which was cultivating fruit; its nurseries contained various kinds of apple and plum seedlings, currants, gooseberry, raspberry and strawberry. Eighteen collectives have orchards of between one and four hectares and only two collectives cultivate fruit on a larger scale: of seven or eight hectares. According to S.A. Khabibullin the sovkhozes founded in 1955 have much larger "fruit gardens" (fifteen to twenty-five hectares each).

Central Kazakhstan

Karaganda oblast

The area devoted to fruit-farming is growing fast. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 1st November 1955 writes that 150 hectares were planted with fruit trees and bushes in 1955; in the Ozakerovskiy and Tel'man rayons 115 hectan

were laid out. The total area to be so planted is to reach over 2,000 hectares in 1956. In 1955 the Tel'man rayon made a profit of one million rubles on its 107 hectares of fruit orchards and gardens.

Despite the difficult climatic conditions the experience of the last fifteen to eighteen years shows that fruit trees and bushes can yield good crops. The first experimental orchard was laid out in 1932; a great variety of trees, bushes and vines have since been evolved by the experimental stations of Karaganda, Balkhash and Dzheskazgan.

Akmolinsk oblast

Fruit-farming started here with an experimental orchard in 1936. Since then 154 varieties of apple and many varieties of pear, apricot, plum, cherry, currant, raspberry and gooseberry have been cultivated in this region. In 1955, however, only 155 hectares of land were being used for fruit growing though in the autumn the Buzuluk sovkhov (Yesil' rayon) planted 2,000 apple-trees on ten hectares of land.

The Shortandinskiy experimental station has done a great deal of selection work, cultivating strains of plum, apple and currant which will withstand the rugged winter conditions of the Akmolinsk oblast.

Southern Kazakhstan

South-Kazakhstan oblast

Over 500,000 hectares in the Bostandyk rayon have been found suitable as regards soil and climate for the development of horticulture on a commercial scale. Reporting this, TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of the 12th August 1955 adds that up to 10,000 hectares of orchards are to be laid out and two large fruit-growing sovkhovs will be organized in the hilly area. The existing forestry stations will be reorganized into orchard nurseries. In this region there are also wild apple, walnut and almond trees.

Eastern Kazakhstan

East-Kazakhstan and Pavlodar oblasts

Fruit gardens of commercial importance, as well as small individual orchards, are being laid out in these oblasts. In the Zaysan rayon (East-Kazakhstan oblast) there are also vineyards; the banks of the Irtysh river (Pavlodar oblast) are considered suitable for fruit growing. The Ust'-

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Kamenogorsk experimental station of the Kazakh Agricultural Institute has developed the best varieties of bush fruits for this part of Kazakhstan; the steppe cherry-tree and most frost resistant Middle-Russian varieties of apple can be grown here.

II. UZBEKISTAN

In an article in EKONOMICHESKAYA GEOGRAFIYA SSSR (Moscow, 1954) G.N. Cherdantsev says that Uzbekistan is an important horticultural and viticultural region of "all-Union significance". The republic is the main producer of raisins in the Soviet Union and her grapes, including the wine varieties, are famous. Dried apricots and cherries are another of the specialities. Many different varieties of apples, pears, apricots, peaches, cherries and quinces are cultivated and in certain areas fig and pomegranate trees are also to be found. G.N. Cherdantsev states that in 1941, 34,465 hectares were under orchard and since the war this hectarage has been considerably extended. By 1960 fruit production, including grapes, is to be 50 to 100 per cent above the 1955 level.

Vineyards occupied 26,224 hectares in 1941 and these again have been much extended since then. A great variety of grapes is grown, the chief vineyard area being in the Samarkand, Tashkent and Bukhara oblasts and the Fergana valley. The vineyards and orchards are very often combined.

Despite the general progress in fruit-farming, shortcomings are reported from individual areas and the early frosts of 1954 caused substantial losses. In addition certain regions, for example the Khorezm and Bukhara oblasts, are behind with their new planting, but in the Namangan oblast restoration of orchards and vineyards which were destroyed by the 1954 frost is well ahead. Many new fruit and vine nurseries are planned to supply sovkhoses and kolkhozes with the most suitable varieties of seedlings.

III. KIRGIZIA

Orchards and fruit gardens are numerous in the Przheval'sk rayon and in the Chu valley; in the latter and in the northern regions of the republic there are also vineyards. There was in 1950 a total area of 14,000 hectares devoted to fruit and 1,800 hectares to vineyard cultivation. SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of the 28th March 1956 reports that new orchards and fruit gardens are being laid out in the Chu valley and in southern Kirgizia and that four times as many orchards were planted in 1956 as in 1955. Altogether 2,300 hectares of fruit of all kinds and 400 hectares of vineyard are to be planted in these areas. Most of the new fruit gardens and orchards are to be in the

hilly regions of the Frunze, Osh and Dzhahalal-Abad oblasts, and in the Issyk-Kul area. In central Tyan'-Shan' 50 hectares are to be planted with apple-trees in 1956. Between 1955 and 1960 the hectarage under orchard and bush fruits is to be more than doubled.

IV. TADZHIKISTAN

About 30,000 hectares in Tadzhikistan are covered with orchards and vineyards. Most of the fruit is grown in the Kanibadam, Isfara and Leninabad rayons of the Leninabad oblast, while the vineyards are concentrated in the Gissar valley and in the Ura-Tyube and Leninabad rayons. The apricot predominates in the orchards, but pomegranate and fig-trees are grown in the Vakhsh valley. Fruit, including bush fruits, and grape production is to be increased by from 50 to 100 per cent between 1955 and 1960.

Citrus fruits

The cultivation of citrus fruit is beginning to play an important part in Tadzhikistan. At the KHRUSHCHEV kolkhoz (Kaganovichabad rayon) the first commercial crop of lemons was harvested in 1955; in April 1956 the kolkhoz had 1,940 lemon trees, including over a thousand of Chinese variety which, according to KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of the 13th April 1956, produces the best crops. In 1956 at least 70,000 rubles worth of lemons are to be sold by this kolkhoz at the retail price of 2,75 rubles each (about 2/9d. at the official rate of exchange). By 1957 all the lemon-tree seedlings should be fruit-bearing and the kolkhoz should therefore earn 500,000 rubles from this source.

The lemon-trees are planted in trenches, which during the winter are covered with glass frames; in the coldest weather the frames are protected by straw or reed mats. Late in March or April the frames are removed and the trees continue to grow without protection. Twenty-five to thirty waterings are required during the vegetation period and the trees are fertilized with ten kilogrammes of manure to 300 grammes of superphosphates.

Orchards

The KHRUSHCHEV kolkhoz has a 56 hectare orchard with apple, pear, peach, almond, quince, fig and pomegranate trees. The present 100 hectare orchard at the Lenin kolkhoz (Kurgan-Tyube rayon) is to be extended to 300 hectares by 1960; fruit trees are also to be planted along the roads and irrigation canals and within two or three years each privately-owned house will have its own orchard; seedlings for this purpose are being grown at

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the kolkhoz nursery. Other kolkhozes of the Leninabad, Kanibadam and Nau rayons are planting large orchards; in the Shor-Su canyon 43 hectares of orchard was recently planted. The first fruit nursery in the Pamirs was laid out in 1954 and now hundreds of its seedlings are being planted in gardens.

Vineyards

The Ura-Tyube rayon is one of the chief vine-growing regions of Central Asia. Nine kolkhozes of this rayon obtain about seventy per cent of their income from their vineyards. At the Kaganovich kolkhoz vineyards will cover 495 hectares by 1960; at present an average yield of 75 centners of grapes per hectare is obtained, but the general situation in the rayon is not so satisfactory. KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of the 4th March 1956 published the following much less favourable figures:

	<u>1940</u>	<u>1951</u>	<u>1952</u>	<u>1954</u>
Vineyard hectarage	3,130	2,756	2,938	2,988
Average crop of grapes (per ha.)	71.22	27.4	12.8	10.5

The paper goes on to say that vines are neglected, pests and weeds destroy old vineyards and kolkhozes lack insecticides and modern apparatus with which to destroy the pests.

It is now planned to restore all old vineyards by the end of 1960, and considerably to extend the total area of new ones. Shortage of water is a great handicap for the development of viticulture but a large reservoir to be built at Katta-Kurgan will remedy the precarious water supply in the Ura-Tyube rayon.

V. TURKMENISTAN

A number of sovkhoses and kolkhozes specialize in horticulture in Turkmenistan. More than half the orchards are concentrated at sovkhoses, while kolkhozes have most of the vineyards and vegetable gardens. With the completion of the Kara-Kum canal orchards and vineyards will be laid out in the newly-irrigated land in the Murgab and Tedzhen valleys.

Many kolkhozes of the Ashkhabad and other rayons obtain more than half their income from fruit-farming. Fruit and grape production is to be

trebled between 1956 and 1960; collective and private gardens are to be encouraged. The importance of increasing fruit production by planting trees and vines in individual plots and factory yards is being emphasized in public lectures. New orchards are being laid out at kolkhozes and existing ones enlarged. A number of new nurseries are being created and existing ones improved. Kolkhozes and sovkhoses with large vineyards are obliged to organize vine-growing training courses.

In spite of the fact that vast areas of Central Asia and Kazakhstan are climatically unsuitable for large-scale fruit-farming, research and experimental orchards have shown that specially selected strains of most kinds of fruit can be successfully cultivated provided the proper methods are followed and the necessary seedlings and equipment are readily available. Much is being done to make the peasants "fruit conscious" and if the 1956-1960 plan for new nurseries, orchards and vineyards, and for the restoration of the old is achieved, and above all if the necessary insecticides are available and irrigation projects completed on time, fruit cultivation could be a successful and sound economic undertaking, and able to supply both the urban population and the canning industry with as much fruit as they need.

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Moscow, 1955.
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THE BORDERLANDS OF
SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA

P E R S I A

Part II

The first part of the analysis of Soviet views on Persian affairs appeared in the last issue of *CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW* and dealt with historical events from 1905 to 1947. The second part of the analysis presented below consists of four sections: the first carries the History Section up to the Shah's visit to Russia in July 1956; the remaining three sections deal with Persian economy, ethnography, and language and literature.

The past year has seen a marked change in Soviet policy towards the "national bourgeois" governments and economies of eastern countries. The previously held notions that the "national bourgeoisie" is necessarily "the faithful ally of imperialism" and that "its political activity could only be represented as a series of capitulations, betrayals, and demagogic manoeuvres" are now found to be mistaken. Thus agrarian reforms in Persia sneered at in 1954 as a "demagogic fraud" (see below: *The Persian Economy*) might now seem to Soviet writers (as in the case of "India, Burma, Syria, and other countries") to have a "concrete meaning" and to "weaken or even destroy the system of feudal exploitation of the masses." (50) (See "Revaluation of bourgeois nationalism" in this issue.) Although Persia has not been specifically mentioned as one of those countries whose development has been wrongly interpreted (evidently on account of her adherence to the Baghdad Pact which in Soviet view would presuppose the domination of the "imperialists" and "feudal elements"), yet the invitation to the Shah to visit the USSR in July 1956 seems to be one more indication of many of the change in the Soviet attitude. It may yet be that Dr. Mosaddeq and even Reza Shah will come to be viewed by Soviet historians as having a "progressive significance".

I. HISTORY (CONTINUED)

Introduction - The Western Powers in Persia, 1947-51 - The nationalization of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company - The American attitude - Persia, 1951-54 - The Consortium - Persia and the Baghdad Pact - The Shah's visit to the USSR - Supplement.

In the last issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW some account was given of the Soviet version of events in Persia from 1905 to 1947. The following is a brief analysis of Soviet writings on events in Persia since the Persian rejection of the Soviet-Persian Oil Agreement in 1947 up to the present day.

It is noticeable that in the period 1947-51 there was comparatively little Soviet writing about current Persian affairs. The fullest account of the period is that in M. S. Ivanov's OCHERK ISTORII IRANA (Outline of the history of Iran) which appeared in 1952. The Anglo-Iranian crisis (the first part of which is dealt with by Ivanov) and its subsequent solution have, however, been the subject of several articles in Soviet publications, as has Persia's accession to the Baghdad Pact.

Since the last issue of the Review went to press we have been fortunate enough to receive four books on Persia from the Soviet Union, all of which have bearing on the period 1905-47, which was dealt with in the last issue of the Review. We have therefore included at the end of this section a Supplement giving some of the main points from these books.

The Western Powers in Persia, 1947-50

The years following 1946 are seen by Soviet writers as years of "black reaction" in Persia, of growing American influence there and of consequent "contradictions" between the British and Americans. Ivanov, the chief source for the period, writes thus: "In June 1947, in defiance of the Persian constitution and without the knowledge or sanction of the majles, a Persian-American agreement was signed in Washington, by which the USA was to give Persia 25m. dollars credit for the purchase of armaments." (1) Ivanov recounts how before this Admiral Conolly had visited Persia and raised the question of "the necessity of creating a Persian fleet in the Caspian Sea." (2)

It is to the increase of American influence that Ivanov ascribes the rejection by the majles of the Soviet-Persian Oil Agreement: "The official

representatives of the USA in Persia openly instigated Qavām and the reactionaries to violate the Soviet-Persian Agreement of 4th April . On 11th September 1947, Allen, the United States Ambassador in his speech to the Persian-American Cultural Relations Society in provocatively assured the ruling classes of Persia that they would every support from the USA in this matter."(3) Qavām therefore the rejection of the agreement in the majles in October 1947. The , however, according to Ivanov, fearing the growth of American ce, sought the removal of Qavām; but, he continues, the main cause im's downfall was the Soviet Note of 20th November 1947: "After the Note, Qavām was deprived of any support from public opinion which come convinced that he was an adventurer who had sold himself to the ns."(4)

nder Hakimi, who succeeded Qavām as Prime Minister, British influence posed to have grown at the expense of American. Thus Ivanov says akimi's announcement that he would reduce the amount of the American o 10m. dollars and refuse the 250m. dollar loan from the World Bank, revenues from the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company were sufficient for the es of government, "was propaganda benefiting the British."(5) Hakimi, er, continues Ivanov, omitted any mention of the re-appraisal of the Iranian concession or of the question of the Bahrayn Islands; this gratify Britain, and it was to discuss these problems that Eden d Tehrān in December 1947. One result of his visit was "a noticeable d of the activity of the Persian reactionary spiritual leaders in t with the British imperialists, and of other pro-British reactionary s."(6) British agents, continues Ivanov, also managed to secure a e of schism in the Tudeh Party - the defection of Maleki with a small but "the failure of this provocation was so obvious that within nine- lays the group of traitors was forced to announce its own dissolution."(7)

Khalil Maleki, a teacher of chemistry by profession, was a man of sincere and strongly held socialist views. He had been an important member of the Tudeh Party and was for a time editor of the Party news- paper MARDOM (otherwise RAHBAR). He appears to have left the Tudeh Party because of its Soviet affiliations, but he did not abandon his socialist views.)

Ivanov's treatment of the years succeeding 1947 is perfunctory, and is elled by the general dearth of Soviet material on the period, both con- ary and otherwise. Ivanov continues to emphasize the growth of Ameri- onomic and military influence in Persia. The orders for material placed ican military advisers, he writes, were sufficient for an army four the size of Persia's; the Americans built twenty aerodromes, three naval and many strategic roads; these measures and the flooding of the market

with American goods contributed to the ruin of the Persian economy. terms of residence of the American mission, established by the treaty of October 1947, were greatly expanded by the treaty of 23rd May 1950; the Americans were not satisfied with the measure of their control over the Persian armed forces: "They were busy with plans for arming the Persian nomadic tribes. . . for the purpose of military operations in mountainous terrain, and for combating democratic organizations." (8) This, writes Ivanov, were connected to the bill presented to the Majlis in July 1950 for centralizing provincial administration, and the visit of the Supreme Court Judge William Douglas in August, under the pretext of "a mountaineering holiday. . . During his tour, Douglas acted as a provocateur, calling on the tribes to resist and to wage guerilla warfare." (9) The immediate result of this propaganda, continues Ivanov, was the revolt of the Javānrud tribe in September 1950, when the government attempted to disarm it.

The Nationalization of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company

The Persian oil crisis has evoked a considerable amount of comment from the Soviet press during the past five years, and recently a few articles have appeared on the Oil Consortium. The common theme running through all Soviet articles on Persian oil is that while the nationalization was a good thing achieved largely by pressure from "the popular masses", it has enabled American "Imperialists" to gain control of the oil industry, and Persia is, in the Soviet view, no better off with the Consortium than she was with the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company.

To Soviet writers the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company is a classical example of imperialism in action. "From the moment," says one writer "that the Shah for an insignificant amount granted the oil deposits of a territory of approximately four-fifths of Persia to the British concessionaries, British imperialism was absolute master here for half a century. . . During the period of its existence the Company realized five billion dollars of profits but paid only ten per cent of this amount to the Persian Government. A British bank operating in Persia was pumping hard currency out of the country and kept under its control all her foreign trade and internal commerce. British colonialists interfered with the election of deputies to the Majlis, bribed government officials, and caused financial and economic difficulties." The Soviet version of labour conditions at the AIOC installations is given in another article (11): "In the oilfields and at the refineries of the AIOC, slave labour was in fact employed. The duration of the work

unskilled oil-workers reached 12 to 16 hours - almost double that of British employees. Persian workers, who represented the bulk of the force in the concessions, were paid the lowest wages: unskilled - 12 to 18 rials a day, other workers - up to 40 rials. Hunger, misery and illiteracy were the destiny of the Persian workers."

(Several points call for comment here. In the first place it should be borne in mind that the oil concession was granted in 1901 for a down payment of £20,000 and a royalty of sixteen per cent of the annual net profit. Secondly, Soviet writers omit to mention that the AIOC spent large sums of money in Persia: for instance, £9m. was spent on housing, health, and education for AIOC employees in 1948-50, and in 1950 £21½m. on purchases of Persian currency for the company's expenditure in Persia. Thirdly, on the question of working conditions, it may be remembered that the AIOC conditions and amenities were highly commended by an International Labour Office mission in 1948. The Soviet writer quoted above does not say to what period his figures refer but the facts in 1951 were as follows: weekly hours of work were 43½ in summer and 44½ in winter; the average weekly wage earned at Ābādān was about 470 rials and that of a skilled man, 570 rials; less than one per cent of AIOC labour was on the legal minimum wage of 280 rials a week.)

Supplemental Agreement

The course of events leading up to the nationalization are described by Ivanov. He recounts how in January 1951 the "Supplemental Agreement between the AIOC and Persia was rejected by the majles which then raised the question of nationalization. "This 'supplemental agreement'", he says, "envisaged the maintaining in force of the basic concession of 1933 in exchange for some alterations in the method of settlement of accounts between the AIOC and the Persian Government." (12) When the agreement was rejected, says Ivanov, the British resorted to "every means within their power to bring pressure on Persia." (13) Rumours were spread about the formation of a new state to include the Bahrayn Islands, Oman and Qatar as well as the Persian province of Khuzestān: "provocative rumours and threats to the territorial integrity of Persia which originated from British imperialist circles were aimed at increasing the pressure on Persia. . ." (14) Moreover, continues Ivanov, "the Imperial Bank of Iran suddenly closed two of its branches in Persia and demanded the return of its guaranteed investments of £1m. from the Government and the settlement of all private debts. . . This was accomplished by crude diplomatic pressure." (14) Finally "the British had resorted, as in 1932-33, to military threats. Several warships were sent to

the Persian Gulf and anchored in the Shatt-al-Arab near the Persian ports of Abādān and Khorramshahr. At the same time the British imperialists stirred up their provocative underground activity among the Bakhtiyāri, Qashqāy, Arab and other tribes."(14)

"However," comments Ivanov, "this time the crude threats, pressure and provocation of the British imperialists did not have the effect expected. They still more intensified the indignation of the popular masses."(15)

(On the question of the Imperial Bank, Ivanov contrives to give the impression that the bank took certain retaliatory measures following on the rejection of the Supplemental Agreement in January 1951. In fact, the events were not connected. The Bank did not decide to close down its operations in Persia until 1952 and gave six months' notice of its intention to do so in January of that year. Before finally closing down its branches (some sixteen in number) in July 1952, it recovered the £lm. which it had converted into rials under the Persian law of 1949. Ivanov is equally misleading over the question of warships: he implies that warships were sent to the Shatt-al-Arab and anchored off Abādān and Khorramshahr immediately after the failure to ratify the Supplemental Agreement. In fact no warships were sent to this area until after nationalization. See below.)

The murder of General Razmārā

Meanwhile, Ivanov explains, General Razmārā, on being appointed Premier in June 1950, "had thought that it was possible to extricate Persia from a serious economic and political crisis by receiving an American loan and by increasing the amount to be paid into the Persian treasury from the revenue of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company under the terms of the 'supplemental agreement' . . . But the Americans refused to grant Persia a loan, demanding as a preliminary condition the complete subordination of Persia. The AIOC, although seeking confirmation of the 'supplemental agreement', had no desire to give financial help to the Persian Government. In these conditions, under the ever growing pressure of the popular masses. . . Razmārā entered into talks with the Soviet Government on the question of Soviet-Persian trade. These talks ended on 4th November 1950 with the signing of a Soviet-Persian trade treaty."(16) Following this Razmārā broke off the agreement with the American company of Overseas Consultants Inc. and announced that he would no longer "insist on receiving American aid." . . . "At the same time Razmārā continued to insist on the confirmation of the 'supplemental agreement'

majles and opposed the nationalization of the oil industry. This was a hindrance to the agents of the American imperialists who the complete subordination of Persia. All this led to the adoption gangster method of physical removal often resorted to by imperial-
plomacy - on 7th March 1951 General Razmārā was murdered."(17)

lization and its effects

After the murder of Razmārā," writes Ivanov (17), "the Persian under pressure from the popular movement, decided on 15th March nationalize the oil industry. This decision was greeted by the people with joy and was applauded by all Persian patriots." then describes how "a powerful strike" broke out at the AIOC under-
"which was a threatening warning to imperialist and reactionary that they would not be able to solve the oil question without the participation of the Persian people."(18) Meanwhile "the British colon-
ad further intensified their exploitation of the Persian workers. A s after the majles's decision, the British announced their refusal the workers the thirty per cent hard-lying supplement to their hich the workers had received before. The Company also closed the ops in the area of the undertakings. In answer to this the oil of Bandar Ma'shur and Aghā-Jāri proclaimed a strike on 24th March pread rapidly to the other oil undertakings. . . The government having proclaimed martial law on behalf of the imperialists, sent troops to the oil areas. Mass arrests of workers were made. diers were ordered to fire on the strikers. In Ābādān and Bandar many workers were killed and injured. At the same time the . . . sent to the Oman and Persian gulfs two aircraft carriers, isers, twelve mine-layers and other warships which. . . brought ber of British ships of war in the area to forty. But the military of the British and the bloody reprisals of the Persian troops the strikers did not break the will of the workers to fight

(Ivanov's picture is distorted. The allowances mentioned by nov were paid by the Company to its employees to compensate for shortage of housing and social amenities. By 1951 these amenities e sufficient and the payment of the allowances was no longer ranted. In November 1950, therefore, the Company had advised its loyees of the reduction in the allowances and the reductions had n accepted by them. Ivanov's statement that the Company closed the d shops is quite untrue: but some bread shops were closed because bakers came out on strike with the oil workers. It is also untrue t there were mass arrests of workers or that many workers were

killed. The only incident when there was bloodshed was at Ābādān on 12th April 1951 when a mob attacked a cinema in which there were some British subjects and then turned on the Persian troops who attempted to defend them. The result was that two British seamen and nine Persians were killed, and six British and eleven Persians were injured.

About the despatch of British warships to the Persian gulf, Ivanov is again mistaken. In fact, apart from the frigates Wild Goose and Flamingo which paid routine visits to the Shatt-al-Arab during April, the only ship despatched to Ābādān was the cruiser Mauritius which was sent there on 26th June to protect the lives and interests of British nationals in the oil installations.)

Ivanov continues his account by saying that support for the strikers was so general that the AIOC "was forced to withdraw. On 16th April an agreement was signed at Bandar Ma'shur by which the Company bound itself to pay the workers their wages for the strike period and also the hard-lying allowances. The Company was forced to give an undertaking that the strikers would not be victimized. The Company was forced to make the same concessions in Āghā-Jāri. The strike in Ābādān and other places continued right up to the end of April."(19)

(By the agreement of 17th April between the Company and a Persian Government Commission it was agreed that the allowances should be restored to their former level for a period of some months during which the government, the Company and employee representatives were to investigate the matter. Ivanov omits to mention that the agreement ending the strike was made with a Persian Government Commission.)

Ivanov then describes the fall of Hosayn Ālā's Government and how "on 29th April Mosaddeq, the leader of the 'National Front', was appointed Prime Minister. The 'National Front' was composed of nationalistically inclined landowner-bourgeois politicians and representatives of the intelligentsia who considered that to bring the country out of its economic and financial crisis and to prevent 'the danger of communist penetration' was possibly only by liquidating the AIOC. The main point in Mosaddeq's programme was the realization of. . . the nationalization law."(20)

The American Attitude

These circumstances," continues Ivanov (20), "when as a result of the full upsurge of the anti-imperialist movement in the country the basic position of British imperialism in Persia was threatened, and there was a serious threat that this movement might disrupt the American plan for an oil, the American imperialists were forced to drop the hypocritical and demagogic game of supporting the nationalization of the Persian industry and began to join with Britain in exerting crude pressure on the Persian Government to make him capitulate to the British." Immediately after nationalization, Ivanov recounts earlier in his book, "the American imperialists attempted to make use of the situation to get an oil into their own hands. . . . Representatives of the American oil companies announced that they were ready to act as agents in realizing an oil on the international market. Several companies openly stated that the Persian Government should transfer the AIOC undertakings to them, demagogically promising to pay Persia for this sixty per cent (Texas Oil Company), sixty-five per cent (Socony Vacuum Company) and seventy-two per cent (ARAMCO) of the total profit." (17) The result, continues Ivanov, was that "the British were forced to propose to the USA that they should come to an understanding over the division of an oil. . . . In the middle of April 1951 Anglo-American talks were held in Washington about methods of 'regulating' the Anglo-Persian oil field. These Washington talks which were a crude and open interference in the internal affairs of Persia. . . . aroused the deep indignation of the Persian people." (18)

(There appears to be no confirmation for the allegations that the American companies in fact made such offers.)

The Soviet version of the postwar history of American oil interests in Persia is given in an article published in 1953 (21): "In 1945 a new American agreement was signed which recognized the British right to a monopoly of oil production in Persia while the USA obtained a similar recognition of their right in Saudi Arabia. As regards the other areas of the Middle and Near East, American and British businessmen were to act in a joint venture. Despite this agreement, American oil magnates made persistent efforts to secure control over the oil wealth of Persia. In 1946 the Iranian Oil Company was obliged to sign an agreement to sell twenty per cent of their crude oil annual output to American firms. Later on this output was doubled."

(It should be noted that the 1946 agreement referred to above was not a normal commercial transaction, and one moreover which was highly unsatisfactory to the AIOC.)

Both the appeal to the International Court of Justice at The Hague and the suggestion that the World Bank should take over the production of crude oil in Persia are seen by Soviet writers as attempts by American oil interests to gain control of Persian oil. Thus the Soviet writer, Bochkarev, writing in 1952 (22) says of the plan to submit the Anglo-Persian controversy to the Hague Court: "It should not be difficult to see that the plan provides - in a disguised form, it is true - numerous possibilities for the penetration of the American monopolist interests into the Persian oil industry. . . . In advancing these (new proposals) the US Government wanted above all to abrogate to itself a permanent part in the settlement of all questions concerning the Anglo-Persian oil dispute. Until now Washington's interference in the conflict was in the guise of a middleman; now it has decided to come out openly as one of the interested parties." On the question of the World Bank, another Soviet writer says (23): "American ruling circles openly intervene in the Anglo-Persian conflict under the pretext of acting as intermediaries, and they are trying to settle the oil crisis by securing control over Persian oil. The efforts of the so-called 'International Reconstruction and Development Bank' to take charge of crude production in Persia and also the recent negotiations of an American oil businessman, Alten Jones, at Tehrān are eloquent testimonies to this." The British appeal, "with the support of the USA", to the Security Council in October 1951 is seen by Ivanov as a last resort "after Britain had become convinced of the failure of her attempts to frighten Persia by threats of invasion by British forces. . . . The Soviet Union opposed the discussion of this question in the Security Council and upheld the Persian point of view that the nationalization of the oil industry in Persia was a purely internal affair of Persia's."(24)

Persia, 1951-54

Ivanov's book goes no further than the British appeal to the Security Council in October 1951; but he ends on a fairly optimistic note: "Further events will show whether Mosaddeq's Government will capitulate to Britain and the USA over the question of the oil, or whether, supported by the widely developing popular anti-imperialist movement, they will repulse Anglo-American pressure and blackmail, and will realize the nationalization of the oil industry. Without doubt recent events in Persia have an immense significance not only for Persia but also for the other countries of the Near and Middle East. They have roused a powerful response among the widest masses of the peoples of these countries."(24) Among the effects of the oil crisis listed by Ivanov is the fact that "a group of Egyptian youth, including journalists, lawyers, etc. have created a preparatory committee with the aim of demanding the national-

of the international company of the Suez Canal."(24)

Later Soviet publications have, however, given a less optimistic view of the results of the oil nationalization. Milov, writing in (25) says: "In 1951 the decision was taken to liquidate the company of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and to nationalize the oil industry. At the same time measures were taken which went clean contrary to the national interests of the country and which encountered sharply adverse criticism in Persia (the acceptance of 'aid' from the USA in violation of the so-called mutual security law, etc.)." Another view is given by Storin in an article published in 1954 (26): "Since May 1951 the United States and Britain have been working together to obtain from Iran the annulment of the law nationalizing the oil industry. Every kind of pressure was employed: diplomatic notes of a menacing character, military demonstrations on the Persian frontiers, economic blackmail, the blockade of Persian coasts to stop the export of Persian oil, the organization of a coup d'état to remove from power those politicians who were not prepared to capitulate before the imperialists. . . ."

(Broadly speaking, Soviet writers treat Dr. Mosaddeq's premiership and eventual overthrow with reticence and caution. The Soviet Government was evidently doubtful of the exact significance of his movement and preferred not to commit itself. Like Storin, most Soviet writers brush off General Zāhedī's coup d'état which removed Dr. Mosaddeq from power in August 1953 as an attempt by the "imperialists" to "remove from power those politicians who were not prepared to capitulate" to them. After Zāhedī's first unsuccessful coup d'état on 16th August 1953 and the consequent departure of the Shah and the Queen from Persia, the Soviet Government evidently formed the opinion that Mosaddeq had once more emerged victorious and that what they regarded as American attempts to oust him had been finally defeated. An article to this effect appeared in PRAVDA on 19th August 1953, the very day on which news was received of General Zāhedī's second and successful coup. The Soviet press was noticeably silent on this action although the coup was reported more or less actually by Moscow Radio on 20th August, and with more detail, still largely factual, on 28th August. On 5th September an article appeared in PRAVDA criticizing attacks made by the Persian press on the Soviet embassy in Tehrān, and suggesting that Zāhedī enjoyed the support of the USA. There was a marked absence of comment in Soviet periodicals.)

The Consortium

The formation of the International Oil Consortium in 1954 was described by Storin as follows (26): "As a result of the three years' war against the Persian people which has been carried on by the United States and Britain by both open and secret means, Persia has finally been forced to accept "a bondage agreement" which delivers her oil wealth once more into the hands of foreign colonialists. Such is the character of the understanding between the Persian Government and the so-called International Oil Consortium."

Storin then describes the composition of the Consortium: "Five of the largest American companies, namely, Standard Oil of New Jersey, Standard Oil of California, Texas Oil, Gulf Oil Corporation and the Socony Vacuum Company; the British Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, the Anglo-Dutch Royal Dutch Shell, and the French Compagnie Francaise des Petroles. . . are to take part in the new Consortium. . . The two latter companies do not play any important role in the Consortium; they have been included only for the sake of decorum, to make it look like an international organization and not merely an Anglo-American undertaking. The most powerful role is played by the five American companies which possess forty per cent of the shares, and by the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, which controls the same percentage of shares. . . The term of the agreement is to expire in 1994. It should be pointed out that the original concession agreement, by which the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was operating in Persia, was due to terminate in 1993. Thus the bosses of the Consortium have in fact succeeded in re-establishing the term of the concession."(26)

Storin then describes how Persia is to receive her part of the revenue in the form of a tax on profits from the oil and he comments: "This is a brutal infringement of the rights of the Persian people and a violation of the principle laid down in the nationalization law by which Persia alone possesses the right to all the profits from. . . Persian oil." In addition to this continues Storin, "the AIOC has made Persia undertake an additional obligation to compensate the Company's losses resulting from the suspension of the operation of the Persian oil industry during the last three years. It looks as if Persia has been forced not only to relinquish once again her lawful rights to her oil but also to pay a kind of penalty for having tried to restore her violated rights."

(On the question of compensation to the AIOC it may be remembered that in August 1954 the Company announced that it had agreed to accept £25m. compensation in ten equal annual instalments from the Persian Government.)

torin deplores the fact that on the boards of the new Iranian oil
ing and refining companies set up under the 1954 agreement there are
no Persians to five representatives of the Consortium: "In this way
nsortium has the right to decide all the problems while ignoring the
n of Persia's representatives."(26) Another Soviet writer, K.
y, when reviewing the first year of the Consortium's activity,
this criticism and still more deplores the fact that "the new
les have been granted unlimited rights to build all kinds of tempor-
d permanent installations, including harbours, railways, airports,
me and telegraph lines, wireless stations, etc. in the areas of
ctivity. It is stipulated in the agreement that the operating
les have the right of sole. . . administration of the oilfields and
ies and also an unlimited right to carry out oil production and re-
at their own discretion according to normal technology and with an
ing system accessible to the control of the Persian members. Thus
ghts obtained by the AIOC under the annulled 1933 Anglo-Iranian
don have been taken over by the new Consortium."(27)

(Denisov's repeated charge that the Consortium has "unlimited
ghts" lacks substance. Persia has not granted "unlimited rights"
the Consortium or to anyone else.)

nisov goes on to contend that the controlling companies of the Con-
finance and control the operating companies and thus "crude oil
ion is made dependent on the requirements of the members of the
lum."(27) Refining too, according to Denisov is adversely affected:
m. tons out of the 68m. tons of crude oil to be produced in the
ears 1955-57 are to be refined at Ābādān. . . Thus the agreement
Consortium far from restoring the former importance of Persian
l production. . . deprives Persia of the possibility of loading to
ill capacity the Ābādān refineries, at which between 1945 and 1950,
ons of crude oil were processed as against only 30m. tons planned
-57. The limitation of oil refining in Persia and the increase of
rts of crude oil contribute to the dependence of the Persian oil
on the refineries of the capitalist oil-consuming countries. . ."(27)

(This assessment of the amount of refining at Ābādān is distorted.
is in fact only thanks to the Consortium agreement that so much
ining at Ābādān is possible at all since when the Ābādān refinery
out of action between 1951 and 1954 Persian oil was largely re-
ed elsewhere.)

isov's conclusion on the Consortium agreement - one typical of the
ttitude - is as follows: "The analysis of the main clauses of the
t between the Persian Government and the International Oil Con-

sortium does not leave any doubt as to its enslaving character. . . It is obvious that the Consortium despite the term of the agreement was not meant to allow the independent sale of Persian oil, inasmuch as at present any oil consumer in the world capitalist market is more or less a client of the oil monopolies which control the Consortium."(27)

Persia and the Baghdad Pact

The accession of Persia to the Baghdad Pact is seen by Soviet writers largely as a continuation of the same policy on the part of the "imperialists" as that which compelled Persia to accept the Consortium agreement a year earlier. Thus Kh. Grigor'yev at the end of 1955 said: "In September of last year (i.e. 1954) the so-called International Consortium composed of the largest American and British monopolies concluded an agreement with the Persian Government which crudely infringed the law relating to the nationalization of the oil industry. This agreement once again handed over Persian oil to foreign capital. . . In seeking the inclusion of Persia in the Baghdad block the foreign monopolists have been aiming not only at strengthening their positions in the Persian oil industry but also at obtaining even wider access to all other branches of the Persian economy."(28)

In all Soviet writing on the Baghdad Pact three themes are stressed - the disastrous effect on the Persian economy of the acceptance of American aid; the hostile intentions of the Baghdad Pact towards the Soviet Union; and the notion that in the light of recent history Persia has nothing to fear from the Soviet Union. Grigor'yev, indeed, does not even suggest that there may have been periods when more than one interpretation of Soviet policy towards Persia was possible. A more recent article, however, attempts some explanations (29): "In recent times considerable publicity has been given to the anti-Soviet slanders that the entry of Soviet troops into Persia in 1941 was 'aggression' against Persia, and that after the war the Soviet Union had the intention of detaching from Persia some of her northern regions. . . It will be recalled that when the Soviet troops entered Persia in 1941 the Soviet Government gave an assurance that the measure was in no way directed against the territorial integrity and independence of Persia. . . Equally groundless are the other assertions by certain circles in Persia that the Soviet Union interfered in the internal affairs of the country and supported, as is stated in a Persian document, 'treacherous mischief-makers and did not hesitate to use any measures or means to prevent the dispatch of government troops to crush them'. These allegations are evidently needed to justify before public opinion the terror against the democratic and national forces who are opposed to participation in aggressive blocs. . .

without saying that after the entry of Soviet and British troops and the suppression of the subversive activity of the Hitlerite Powers of the anti-Hitler coalition relied on those forces did not share the views of the pro-Hitler elements. . . . However, and before, the Soviet Union and the Soviet troops did not aim at the internal order and the social system in Iran and most ly had no intention of detaching from Iran any part of her territory. es of the Soviet Government have reiterated that the Soviet ties had no part whatever in the events which took place in Iranian jân after the war. The reason for these events should be sought in rnal policy of the Iranian Government. With regard to the perse- of progressive and democratic elements carried out by the Iranian des with the aid of armed force, the ruling circles obviously it and cannot count on the sympathy and support of the Soviet people ons of this kind."

s passage is the longest attempt at justification of the Soviet attitude to Persia during and immediately after the war that has n and the first in which the Soviet occupation and the movement for in Azarbāyjān have been at all connected. (See the last issue of ASIAN REVIEW.) It is a small point but may perhaps be a sign that acceptance of the Baghdad Pact has compelled Soviet writers to e a little more reality into their discussion of the problems in-

The Shah's Visit to the USSR

of Persia and Queen Sorayeh arrived in Moscow on 25th June 1956 the USSR on 12th July. During their stay they visited Stalingrad, Ashkhabad, the Caucasus, Kiev and Leningrad. Although Soviet s reported in detail the speeches and activities of the Shah while the Soviet Union, it was noticeable that little was written about self. (On the other hand it may be remembered that when Mr. Khrush- Marshal Bulganin visited Afghanistan, a series of articles on the appeared in the Soviet press.)

following are extracts from the speeches of Marshal Bulganin and at a reception in Moscow on 10th July as reported in PRAVDA of 1956. Marshal Bulganin, after greeting the Shah said: "Your ough the Soviet Union has, I hope, afforded you the possibility of ascertaining that the Soviet people have a feeling of true friend- sympathy towards Persia, and that the development of good-neigh- viet-Persian relations have a firm foundation in the friendly on towards you and your country which you have seen among us. In

this connection I would like to say that Persia has more than once found in the past, finds now, and will find in the future a sure friend in the Soviet Union in all matters which concern the strengthening of her national independence and sovereignty, and the strengthening of peace and security. . . The proximity of Persia to the Soviet Union has created and does create favourable conditions for the further development of the mutually advantageous and traditional trade, economic and cultural links between our countries. For many years, relations between our countries have been good. The Soviet state, on the initiative of the great friend of the peoples of the East, V.I. Lenin, was the first to establish its relations with Persia on a new, equal and just footing. Subsequently the Soviet Government's policy of respect for the independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity of other countries, and of non-interference in their internal affairs has found its reflection in treaties and agreements signed between the USSR and Persia." After mentioning the 1954 agreement on frontiers and financial matters, Marshal Bulganin continued: "The Soviet Union does not seek for herself in Persia, or in any other country, any special rights or privileges, and has no territorial or other claim on Persia. Our country does not threaten and will not threaten a friendly Persia. The true interest of the Soviet Union is that Persia should be a strong, independent, flourishing, and peace-loving state, a good neighbour to our country and to other countries; but it is our wish that the territory of Persia should never be used by anyone for the purpose of threatening the southern frontiers of the Soviet Union. It is in fact in this connection that we say with all sincerity that the Soviet Union is, on principle, the decided opponent of the military groups created by certain circles of the Western powers in the Near and Middle East. These groups, apart from the fact that they harm the cause of peace. . . are a new and disguised form of the old colonial policy which has damaged the vital interests of the peoples of the Near and Middle East. We recognize that the Soviet Union and Persia have different opinions on certain international problems, but we believe that as a result of the frank and profitable talks that we have had on questions. . . of Soviet-Persian relations and the international situation, we have succeeded by our joint efforts in creating important factors for the development of friendly relations between our countries."

The Shah in reply to Marshal Bulganin said: "You remarked that the policy of Lenin towards Persia was based on equality of rights and on justice. We in Persia acknowledge this, and Persia was perhaps one of the first states to recognize the Soviet state. . . The Persian Government and people, in spite of certain past events, have always been friends of the Soviet Government and people, and they hope that this friendship will be preserved in the future. . . Our countries can become good neighbours and live in peace and friendship. I sincerely thank you for your wishes of happiness, prosperity and might for Persia and in my turn ex-

the same wishes to the Government and people of the Soviet Union. The Persian Government has never entered into a group which has an aggressive character towards the USSR and I can assure you that this will happen. We have always rejected the principles of colonialism. Persia is not a newly founded state. It is a land with more than twenty-centuries of independent and fully sovereign existence. And if Persia takes measures for her defence, these are dictated by state necessity and by the experience of the past and are a result of the general international situation."

HISTORY SUPPLEMENT

the last issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW went to press we have received, through the good offices of the National Central Library, four books on Persia from libraries in the Soviet Union. The books are IRAN VO VREMYA I PERSIYA V PRAVYI VETOK (Iran during and after the Second World War) by V. Pavlovich (Moscow, 1949); KRATKAYA ISTORIYA PERSII (Short history of Persia) by Gurko-Kryazhin (Moscow 1925); SOVREMENNAYA PERSIYA (Contemporary Persia) by A. Sultan-Zade (Moscow, 1922); and fourthly, PERSIYA V BOR'BE ZA NEZAVISIMOST' (Persia in the struggle for independence) by M. Pavlovich and Iranskiy (Moscow, 1925). The first three are brief works, none running more than 100 pages, but each is of considerable interest, particularly that by Sultan-Zade, who was himself closely connected with some of the events he describes; the fourth work is longer, running to 180 pages, and is derived from sections by Pavlovich and Iranskiy, includes a reprint of a letter by V. Tria on "Caucasian Social-Democrats in the Persian Revolution" which was published by the RSDRP (later to become the Russian Communist Party) in Paris in 1910, and is thus of exceptional interest.

The salient points on which the newly received books differ from or supplement the sources used for the History Section of the study on Persia are listed below under the same headings as those used before and with reference to the appropriate pages in the last issue of the Review.

Persian Revolution (pp.289-98)

Both Sultan-Zade and Gurko-Kryazhin tend to give the Persian revolution more importance in its own right than do more recent Soviet writers. Sultan-Zade, after enumerating the achievements of the constitutional movement says:

"It is understandable why for four years (1907-11) the Persian revolutionaries defended the new democratic system so energetically. . ." (30) Gurko-Kryazhin emphasizes its limited but yet specifically Persian characters: "Before starting to describe the mass constitutional movement of 1906-08 one essential reservation must be made. If in our evaluation of it, we start from an analogy with west European revolutions, then inevitably we shall make a big mistake. Although we speak of the 'Persian' constitutional or revolutionary movement, it should be remembered that the movement was always limited to two or three provinces." (31)

The British and Tsarist attitudes (pp.290-292)

Early Soviet writers such as Sultan-Zade, Gurko-Kryazhin and Pavlovich are, as might be expected, violently critical of the part played by the Tsarist Government in Persian affairs - far more so than recent writers such as Ivanov. They differ too from Ivanov in their interpretation of the British attitude towards the Persian revolution. Pavlovich writes: ". . . if in the early period of the constitutional movement, mass opposition and mass bast (asylum) were powerful factors in the struggle against the Shah. . . no less important a factor in this popular victory was the serious support which Great Britain gave to the constitutional party of Persia at that time. . . It was not fear of Allah or respect for sacred customs but merely fear of Britain that rendered the Shah's Government impotent before the bast of 15,000 men in the British embassy." But British support was, he claims, short-lived: "There was a time when the British Government and British public opinion looked on the Persian constitutional movement as on their own child. . . But the mother soon turned into an evil step-mother and, by the will of Britain, Persia was given over. . . to Lyakhov. . . and to the Shah." (32)

It is noteworthy that both Pavlovich and Gurko-Kryazhin use Edward Browne's works as sources. Ivanov, on the other hand, it may be remembered refers to Browne's book on the Persian revolution as "a crude falsehood"; and says that his "false demagogic version" had "penetrated even into Russian literature" - a reference no doubt to the two above-mentioned authors.

A particularly interesting feature of Pavlovich's work is his chapter on the implication of the Cossack Brigade in the Shah's coup d'état of June 1908. Browne in his book THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION quotes letters purporting to have been written by Colonel Lyakhov, commander of the Cossack Brigade, to the commander of the Caucasus Military District in which he gives detailed accounts of the plans for the coup d'état before the event, and which if genuine implicate the Tsarist Government. Browne

as the letters without vouching for their authenticity; Pavlovich seems to be the only Soviet writer to do so - also reproduces and he argues that they are genuine on account of the style (which corresponds to that of Lyakhov), because the plan of action in was closely followed in fact, and finally because the content of the was fully in accordance with Tsarist policy towards Persia. he writes, "the plan to destroy the Persian constitution and the majles was worked out in all its details by Staf, head of the Military District, Colonel Lyakhov, and the Russian Ambassador," (35); Elsewhere Pavlovich writes: "The Cossack Brigade by its financial, political and military organization, and by its position was the advance guard of Russian penetration in Persia and a splendid weapon in the hands of the Petersburg cabinet." (34) seems likely that Pavlovich has over-stated his case against the Cossack Brigade to fit his violently anti-Tsarist thesis, it is notable that Pavlovich very much plays down the Russian connection of the Cossack Brigade and represents the 1908 coup d'état as directed solely by the British. It is interesting that Tria, writing in 1910, says "On 10th June 1908 at the insistence of the Russian Government the parliament was dissolved by the Shah and its building was destroyed to its foundations by the British." (35) [Our underlining.]

It may be remembered that Ivanov's sole reference to the outstanding issue is the first majles, Taqizādeh, is the implication that he was an ally of the British (see pp.291-2). The references made by earlier Soviet writers are equally brief but more favourable. Gurko-Kryazhin, for example, praises the work done by the first majles and says that "the political block in the majles, the so-called Democratic Party of Taqizādeh, Quli Khān, Navvāb, and others) put forward a very wide programme of reforms. . ." (36) Pavlovich and Tria, although also mention Taqizādeh only briefly, are by implication also favourably disposed to him. Pavlovich, describing the entry of Russian troops into Tabriz says: "On 17th (30th) May, Sattār Khān, Bāqer Khān, and others, alarmed at the unceremonious actions of the uninvited saviours of the liberated city, took refuge in the Turkish consulate. . ." (37) Tria, writing of the same period, says: "The citizens (of Tabriz) did not openly to arrange farewells for their beloved Caucasian revolutionaries and the farewells were held by night. Sattār Khān arranged a dinner, the deputy Taqizādeh and other members of the anjoman of Tabriz. . ." (38) Recent Soviet writers make no mention of the fact that Taqizādeh was present at the siege of Tabriz and certainly do not mention him as a leader of the same calibre as Sattār Khān and Bāqer Khān.

Tria, like later Soviet writers emphasizes the importance of the emigration of Persian workers to Russian Transcaucasia for the spread of revolutionary ideas in Persia. As regards the participation of Caucasian revolutionaries in the siege of Tabriz, Tria bears out Reysner and Ivanov; he writes that after the coup d'état of 1908, "the Persian Central Committee and representatives of the Tabriz revolutionaries turned to the Caucasus Social-Democrat Oblast Committee with a request for help. The Social-Democrat workers, without waiting for the resolution of the Oblast Committee, declared their readiness to go to Persia to help the revolutionaries. The Oblast Committee, meeting the wishes of the Party workers, decided to intervene in Persian affairs. . ."(39) This mention of the Persian Central Committee is of interest and appears to bear out Reysner's remark that a Persian Social-Democrat Party was in existence at this time (see p.297). On the same point it is of interest also that Pavlovich says that "the founder of the Persian Social-Democrat Party (Ichmayun-Amiyun - i.e. presumably Reysner's Ejtemā'iyun-e-āmiyun) was Comrade Nariman Narimanov."(40)

(Nariman Narimanov, who was President of the first Soviet Government in Soviet Azerbaydzhan, died in 1925 and was subsequently discredited, his grave being obliterated in 1937. There is no mention of him at all in the new edition of the Soviet Encyclopaedia. As might be expected none of the recent Soviet writers consulted mention his connection with the first Persian Social-Democrat Party. Pavlovich, however, mentions an "interesting" article on the founding of the Persian Social-Democrat Party by Gurko-Kryazhin in a work entitled PAMYATI N. NARIMANOVA (In memory of N. Narimanov) which was published by the all-Russian Association of Orientalists in 1925. An interesting point, which may show that Narimanov is now rehabilitated, is that a brief note appeared in VOIROSY ISTORII No.7 of 1956 to the effect that in the Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaydzhan SSR a collection had been made of documents relating to the "outstanding revolutionary and politician" Nariman Narimanov.)

Writing of the Tabriz siege, Tria says: "The Tabriz revolution has its own heroes - the gardener Karb-Husayn, Sattar Khan, and the stonemason Baqer Khān."(39) The first named appears to be ignored by other Soviet writers. Tria agrees with Bor-Ramenskiy that twenty-two Social-Democrats perished at Tabriz and gives the names of eight of them; he does not, however, anywhere mention the presence of non-Caucasian Russians at Tabriz as do later writers. Tria agrees with later writers on the activity both in battle and behind the scenes of the Caucasian revolutionaries.

n dealing with the revolution in Rasht, both Gurko-Kryazhin and
ake a very different line from that, for instance, of Ivanov.
Kryazhin writes: "The revolutionary centre of Gilān was Rasht,
had become a 'free town'. Here was the main base of the Trans-
ian fedā'is who had fled to Persia after the defeat of the 1905-6
n revolution."(41) He then goes on to speak of the "300-400
enced Transcaucasian revolutionaries led by the Armenian Yefrem."
ll be recalled that Ivanov is strongly critical of "the Dashnak,
,.) Tria on the other hand says that at the end of 1908 "a
ian force of Social-Democrats under the direction of the Caucasus
Committee set off for eastern Persia. Several revolutionaries
ed in the town of Rasht. . ." (42) For three months they lay in
and on 25th January 1909 held a secret meeting with Yefrem. The
ing day the Governor of Rasht was killed and fighting broke out:
overwhelmed by the numbers of their adversaries, the revolution-
were in a difficult position, Yefrem with several Dashnaks hurried
ir help. As revolutionaries they could not see their comrades
ng and not come to their help. . ." (43) There is no mention by
Tria or Gurko-Kryazhin of the presence of Ordzhonikidze in Persia
time, or of the Society of Mojāheds which is given such prominence
lov.

Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907

Ivanov sees the Anglo-Russian Convention as but one more proof
ain's hostility to the Persian constitutional movement, Pavlovich
tes it to different causes. "The awakening of the East induced
rror among the international bourgeoisie that the most liberal
ent in Europe - the British - flung itself into the embraces of
Tsarism; for the same reason imperialist Japan entered into a
hement with Russia, who had been conquered by her." (44) Elsewhere
es: "Britain supported the constitutional movement in the northern
es of Persia while it was necessary to counteract the Russian
ce at the Shah's court; but at the same time Britain made every
to put down the liberation movement in the southern provinces
t to the Indian frontier. . . The growth of the revolutionary
t among the 300m. population of India, no less than fear of Germany,
ritain to a rapprochement with Russia. It was in fact this fear
e triumph of the revolution throughout Persia would give a powerful
to the revolutionary movement in India that forced British
y to change its course sharply in relation to the liberation move-
Persia. These were the basic motives of the notorious Anglo-
agreement. . ." (45)

Britain, Russia and America in Persia, 1910-12 (pp.298-303)

A remarkable feature of both Sultan-Zade and Gurko-Kryazhin's books is that they both speak approvingly of Morgan Shuster's mission to Persia in 1911 and thus condemn the Russian ultimatum to Persia at the end of 1911. "The Russian Government" writes Sultan-Zade, "with the agreement of London presented an ultimatum and forced Persia to dismiss the American instructors who had been invited by her to direct her finances and who had carried out their business very conscientiously."(46) Gurko-Kryazhin is still more emphatically in favour of Shuster: "In these difficult times. . . a literal saviour appeared in the person of an American financial adviser, Morgan Shuster (May 1911). Unlike all the foreigners who before and after this were in Persian service, he alone actually thought of the needs of the country and not of the interests of the power that had sent him, or of any financial or industrial group."(47) In describing the ultimatum, Gurko-Kryazhin is equally critical of the Tsarist and British Governments: "The activity of Shuster, which liquidated the counter-revolution and promised the real revival of Persia, naturally aroused the fury of Britain and especially of Russia. . . Edward Grey sent a conciliatory telegram (to the Russian Government) in October 1911 saying that 'no government which refused to recognize Russia's interests could be tolerated in Tehrān'. Here Grey gives direct agreement to the dismissal of the American adviser, cynically announcing at the same time to the British Ambassador 'I do not want myself to provoke the dismissal of Shuster'."(47) (It is easy to see how this line of reasoning has led recent Soviet writers to speak of the "Anglo-Russian ultimatum of 1911".)

The Gilān Republic, 1920-21 (pp.303-13)

It is particularly interesting to read Sultan-Zade's account of the Gilān events both because he was there himself, and also because he was later disgraced and is, in recent Soviet writing, referred to as "a counter-revolutionary traitor". Madame Ivanova, for instance, (see p.306 of the last issue of CAR) in essence blames Sultan-Zade for usurping the leadership of the newly formed Persian Communist Party. She asserts that he caused it to carry out the mistaken and provocative policy of confiscating all landowners' lands and introduced other extreme left-wing measures, which resulted in the Gilān revolutionary movement losing the support of the petty bourgeoisie and of the small-holders. Sultan-Zade describes the first congress of the Persian CP and its policy as follows: "On 23rd June 1920 on the initiative of the Turkestan Kray Committee of Adālat, a Party congress was summoned which gathered in the town of Anzali. At the congress a Central Committee was elected which was to work, mostly in Persia, to strengthen the existing organizations there and to create

nes. . . The Party, having no old-established organization. . . with efficient theoretically prepared comrades, and working in. . . a back-semi-colonial country could not of course quickly. . . stand on its feet. Thanks to the above difficulties the leading organs of the Party committed a mass of blunders and mistakes which led finally to splits and splits. . . But although the Party made innumerable errors of organization, it approached the solution of basic problems correctly. Even at the Anzali congress misgivings were voiced about Khān's attempt to carry out a bourgeois-democratic revolution. . . (with the help) of various khans, landowners and prominent feudalists. . . It is obvious that the Communist Party could not support such a policy since it perfectly understood that every revolution in a backward agricultural country, unless it destroys the feudal yoke and liberates the millions of peasantry, is bound to fail. The liberation of the masses with the help of the feudalists was of course an illusion against which the Party had to carry on an energetic struggle. History has vindicated these misgivings. Kuchek Khan became the victim of his trust in the 'liberal' landowners and feudalists, and lost popularity among the masses of the peasantry."(48)

Sultan-Zade's account of the end of the Gilān republic differs from any of the other Soviet sources seen. After describing the "serious conflicts" between Kuchek, the Central Committee of the Communist Party, and some of the Jangalis he writes (49): "These internal disturbances, skilfully inflamed by the Shah's agents, had a fateful influence on the events. When Kuchek returned to power for the second time (i.e. in 1921) it was already too late. The intrigues of the Shah's agents and the local landowners created an atmosphere of continuous treachery. . . which resulted in Hāli Qorbān, one of Kuchek's closest companions in arms, to turn over. . . to the side of the Shah's army. This unheard-of treachery decided the fate of the Gilān revolution: Hāli Qorbān, a Jangali, knew exactly all the ins and outs of the virgin forests, and soon after this Kuchek's forces were defeated and the whole of Gilān was once more captured by the Shah's armies." Hāli Qorbān is not mentioned at all by Madame Ivanova, who indeed lays all the blame for the final defeat on Kuchek himself. It is interesting that Sultan-Zade does not mention Haydar Khān, the Communist leader who is the hero of Madame Ivanova's account.

Separatist movement in Āzarbāyjān (pp.317-325)

P. Milov's book is typical of post-war Soviet interpretations of Soviet policy towards Persia at the end and immediately after the last war. As in similar works there is no mention of the implication of Soviet forces in the Āzarbāyjāni separatist movement, nor of the failure on the part of

the Soviet Union to withdraw her forces from Persia at the time stipulated by the Tripartite Agreement of 1943.

II THE PERSIAN ECONOMY

The main Soviet source on Persian economy, and the basis of the following analysis, is a slim volume by I.I. Korobeynikov entitled IRAN: EKONOMIKA I VNESHNYAYA TORGOVLYA (Iran: her economy and foreign trade) which was published in Moscow in 1954. For subsequent years the only sources are occasional review articles. Korobeynikov gives some twenty pages of tables at the end of his work which show in detail export and import figures for various commodities from different countries (excluding, however, the Soviet Union). As his sources for these tables, Korobeynikov says he used "facts of Persia's customs' statistics"; in the body of the book hardly any detailed sources are given and there is no bibliography.

Korobeynikov keeps firmly to the old line and his sombre picture of the state of Persia is relieved only by descriptions of peasants' and workers' movements and of Soviet aid, in which alone he sees the salvation of Persia's economy. Neither Reza Shah's economic reforms nor the nationalization of the oil industry in 1951 are given much significance; indeed, Korobeynikov sees in the post-war years the development of the same general tendencies, and he quotes figures indiscriminately from pre- and post-nationalization years to prove his points. It need hardly be said that his case is somewhat overstated. His strictures, for instance, on the backwardness of Persian mining seem to overlook the fact that it might not be rational to expand coal-mining when reserves are very small and the output of oil abundant. His repeated assertion that the USSR unlike the "imperialists" has aimed at helping Persia to create her own industries is not entirely convincing; thus his allegations about the harmful effects of excessive imports of sugar and cotton textiles might now be turned against the USSR itself which both in 1954 and 1955 was scheduled to export to Persia 80,000 tons of sugar and 55m. metres of cotton textiles - though of course Korobeynikov's survey does not deal with this period. It may also be noted that Russian piece goods were bartered on the basis of $7\frac{1}{2}$ metres of cotton cloth for one kilo of raw cotton, a price which Persian manufacturers considered to amount to unfair competition.

orobeynikov states his thesis in the introduction: "Iran is a back-
 agricultural country with poorly developed industry. . . . The poor
 ment of Persian industry and of other branches of the economy is
 sult of the predatory, extortionate policy of the imperialist powers
 at preventing the development of industry, and in particular of
 industry, which might somehow serve as a base for strengthening the
 ic independence of Persia. The sole branch which has been widely
 ped in Persia is the oil industry which, until recently, belonged to
 tish monopolists. . . . However, the development of the oil industry
 ot change the picture of Persia as a country with an exceptionally
 rd economy. . . . The low level of development of the Persian economy
 be explained by the unimportance of the country's natural wealth or
 vourable climatic conditions. On the contrary Persia is rich in
 it valuable minerals, and the favourable climate makes it possible
 ivate many sorts of. . . crops. . . . The great difference between
 ential wealth of Persia and her general economic backwardness is the
 of the imperialist yoke, of the many years of plunder. . . . by the
 and in the first place, British and American - monopolists."(51)

Bank in Persia

Two "most important levers of economic and political pressure"
 Britain had in Persia were the Imperial Bank and the AIOC. The
 Imperial Bank of Persia "although operating without any backing for its
 money. . . multiplied its capital sixty times during the period of
 existence by means of huge profits gained by plundering the popular
 of Persia. The Imperial Bank manipulated the rate of exchange: for
 when the AIOC made its concessionary payments to the Persian Govern-
 ment through the Imperial Bank, it artificially lowered the rate of the
 exchange and thus considerably decreased the already miserable payments of the
 AIOC. . . . For more than forty years the Bank enjoyed a monopoly for
 the issue of banknotes and carried out the functions of the exchequer. . . .
 In agreement with the Persian Government, signed in 1930, the Bank was
 to relinquish the rights of the issue of banknotes and of carrying
 out the functions of State Treasury before the agreed time. In exchange
 for this, the British monopolists gained from the Government of Persia:

- The payment of compensation to the Bank of £200,000;
- The foregoing of six per cent of the profits of the Bank and of
 the right to have its controller in the management of the Bank;
- The concession to the Bank of rights of mortgaging, buying and
 selling of estates and other immovable property. . . .

The Bank occupied a dominating position in the country. It gave credit to

merchants who traded in British goods and in the oil products of the AIOC. The clients of the Bank were not only Persian merchants but also merchants of other countries of the Near and Middle East. . .

". . . In 1949 the British Government secured a new agreement which preserved all the Bank's former rights and privileges. The Bank continued to function under a new name - British Bank of Persia and the Middle East. Under this name the Bank existed until 1952 when it was closed in connection with events following the nationalization of the oil industry of Persia. Until recently the Bank was a powerful weapon for the oppression of the Persian people in the hands of the financial magnates of Britain."(52)

(Soviet writers persistently misrepresent the activities of the Imperial Bank of Persia. In particular they seem incapable of grasping that it was an independent commercial enterprise in no sense controlled by the British Government, and negotiating direct with the Persian Government.)

In describing the activities of the AIOC, Korobeynikov differs little from other Soviet writers. (See above: History Section - "The nationalization of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company".) He is at pains to show on the one hand the vast profits of the company and on the other the various measures taken by the Company "to keep to a minimum the sums paid to the Persian Government."(53) Indeed, the theme running through Korobeynikov's work is that no benefit whatsoever accrued to Persia from the AIOC.

America and Persia

"Penetration of the USA into Persia began in the nineteenth century. The first representatives of American capital in Persia were missionaries who, concealed under a religious mask, were widely occupied with espionage for their country and prepared the way for the subjection of Persia to the United States."(54) Shuster's mission in 1911 and Millspaugh's mission in the 1920s are both seen by Korobeynikov as examples of the United States' ulterior designs on Persia. "In 1922 at the insistence of American business men and diplomats the Persian Government once more invited an American financial mission. . . This mission (i.e. Millspaugh's) was in the 1920s one of the basic levers of American policy, which aimed at the economic and political subservience of Persia."(55) In 1921 the Standard Oil Company attempted to obtain a concession for oil in northern Persia; this, says Korobeynikov, greatly disturbed the British but "at the demand of the Soviet Government the concession agreement with Standard Oil was cancelled by the Persian Government."(55) The same fate awaited the Sinclair concession in 1925; and the Texas Oil concession in 1937. The Millspaugh mission aimed "at turning

into an American bridgehead in the Middle East" and "at undermining Persian relations."

During the 1930s, American policy was "to encourage the aggressive German imperialism. . . . The American-British block did not follow the aggressive policy of Germany in relation to the countries of the Near and Middle East. . ." (56) When Millspaugh was again invited to Persia in 1942 his "activity and that of the other agents of American imperialism in Persia were directed towards undermining the Persian economy and its resources. . . . During the years of management by the agents of American imperialism led by Millspaugh. . . . speculation reached unheard of heights. . . . In which, the American monopolists aimed not only at holding back the development of Persian industry during the war years, but tried also to prevent it so as to ensure a market for American goods in Persia." (57) American influence, according to Korobeynikov, that induced Qavām to accept the Soviet oil concession in 1946. In recent years the American aim has been to enslave Persia still further: this is shown, according to Korobeynikov, by the terms of American aid, the Truman Four-Point plan, etc. (58) Story Section: "The American Attitude".)

Structure

The colonial policy of the Anglo-American imperialists and the domination of the oil survivals have brought the Persian economy to a deep decline. The stagnation of agriculture is intensifying and this is apparent above all in the marked decrease in productivity. . . . This leads to an acute shortage of agricultural products, famine, the increased impoverishment and mass ruin of the peasants." (59) After describing at length the system of land tenure and "the relations" in Persia, Korobeynikov continues: "According to the generally underestimated figures of Persian economists there are about 50m. hectares of land suitable for agriculture in the country, in addition to which there could be greatly increased by improvements in the irrigation network. This is not more than 4.6m. hectares (including the area occupied by gardens), of which nine per cent is cultivated." (60) As the construction of irrigation works goes beyond the means of smallholders, "the irrigation network, which is now in the hands of landowners, merchants, officials and the higher clergy, is a further means of exploitation. . . . In spite of the huge part played by artificial irrigation in the country, the ruling circles of Persia pay little attention to the construction of irrigation works. The old works are neglected and are not renewed. The largest and only navigable river in Persia, the Karun. . . is at the present very little used for irrigation. The reason only a small part of land suitable for agriculture is cultivated in Khuzestān. In the past the waters of this river were used much more extensively. In the region of the town of Shustar the remains of a famous dam, which was

built many centuries ago, are still to be seen. On account of the absence of modern large irrigation works the pasture lands in the valleys of the rivers Polvar and Kor (in Fars) are not sufficiently utilized. Here there is only one dam, Band-e Amir, which was built in the tenth century. The waters of the Hirmand are hardly used as the irrigation system in Sistān is in a neglected condition."(61)

Korobeynikov then describes how ninety-five per cent of the arable area of the country is under wheat, barley and rice; the remaining area being under industrial crops. "The second most important branch of agriculture is livestock-raising, and the third, market-gardening."(62) He then goes on to state that although the area under barley and wheat increased in the years following the war, productivity has fallen: "a clear illustration of the decline and degradation of agriculture is the acute decline in productivity of the basic grain crops as seen from the following facts:

	<u>1934-38</u>	<u>1949</u>	<u>1950</u>	<u>1951</u>
Wheat	1,200	1,000	910	720
Barley	1,240	1,210	950	970
Rice	1,930	2,180	1,690	1,850

(figures in kilograms per hectare)".

"These figures show that the productivity of the most important crops which was already low, has sharply declined in recent years. Matters are no better with other crops whose productivity is also falling. Thus for example, the productivity of beet in Persia is extremely low and does not exceed 100 centners per hectare (63). Under existing conditions, Persia, an agricultural country. . . has in recent years been forced even to import foodstuffs. In 1949-50 Persia imported 220,000 tons of wheat, while before the war she exported yearly not less than 25-50,000 tons of grain. . . Before the war Persia exported up to 50,000 tons of rice a year, now she exports no more than 10-15,000 tons. The same has happened with cotton. Before the war Persia exported up to 25,000 tons of cotton a year; after the war cotton was even imported and only in recent years has Persia again started to export it."(64) The same decline is apparent, according to Korobeynikov, in livestock-raising and, apart from this, Persia has one of the lowest averages of sheep per head of population of all the countries of the Middle East: "In 1949 on an average per 100 inhabitants the number of sheep was 136 in Iraq; 124 in Turkey; 123 in Afghanistan; and 70 in Persia."(65)

After thus showing the general decline in all branches of agriculture (without, it may be pointed out, giving any sources for his figures) Korobeynikov concludes: "The American monopolists, concealing themselves in talk of 'aid', are penetrating more and more deeply into the economy of Persia; they are trying to turn the country into a source of supply for their agricultural raw material, and force on Persia an ugly and one-sided development of her agriculture. The policy of the American and British imperialists in colonial and dependent countries is directed at preserving the feudal serf-owning survivals which insure the foreign monopolists and local large-scale landowners with huge profits gained by means of exploiting the unfortunate peasants."(66) To relieve this dark picture, Korobeynikov describes "the struggle of the peasants for land". In dismissing all the measures taken by the Persian Government at various times for the improvement of the lot of the peasantry as "pedagogic fraud", Korobeynikov describes in detail and with approval the agrarian policy of the Tudeh Party and the measures taken by the independent Government of Azarbāyjān in 1946.(67)

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As with agriculture Korobeynikov sees the cause for the poor development of industry in the "colonial policy of the British and American imperialists and dominion of feudal, serf-owning survivals." Unlike the imperialist countries who flood Persia with their cheap goods, the Soviet Union, says Korobeynikov, has always helped Persia to develop her own industries: "The victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution. . . on enormous extent made possible the creation of Persia's own industries. . . Relying on help from the Soviet Union Persia carried out a series of measures to strengthen her economy and to build industries. A majority of factories now working in Persia was built between the two world wars."(68) . . . "With the help of the USSR a whole series of undertakings were built in Persia, in particular the mill at Tehrān, for the cleaning of rice and cotton cleaning plants and elevators, including the largest of them, the Tehrān elevator."(69) On the other hand "American and British trade expansion in the post-war years. . . has led to the closing down of many Persian industrial undertakings and to mass unemployment. . . In this way the basic causes of the curtailment of industrial production and the closing of many undertakings are the competition of foreign goods and the progressive decline in the purchasing power of the Persian population."(70)

Apart from oil, other branches of the mining industry are poorly developed, being mostly worked by artisan undertakings serving only local needs. Even the oil resources are not fully worked since "in the northern

area which covers the territory of the provinces of Persian Āzarbāyjān, Gilān, Māzandarān, Gorgan, and Khorāsān the oil deposits are not worked."(71) Although there are "more than sixty iron ore deposits. . . many of them are hardly worked at all. . . In spite of the extremely favourable conditions the output of coal is very small and does not even satisfy the small demand of Persian industry and railways. Coal is mined in a primitive way in mines at Sheshmak, Zirāb, Gajar, and Galand Rud. The annual output of coal in Persia is about 120,000 tons."(72) The output of copper, lead and chromium "can be counted in hundreds of tons". The copper refinery which was built at Khāniābād in 1937 with a projected capacity of 1,500 tons a year "produces only about 300 tons a year in view of the insufficient supply of copper ore." The Karaj steel works (near Tehrān), begun in 1937 were never completed and "this incompleted construction has cost the Persian people almost 400m. rials."(72) Output of electric power is very small and "the hydroelectric resources are completely unused." On the other hand, according to Korobeynikov, thanks to the imperialists, "the war industry is comparatively developed; its creation was made possible by Hitlerite Germany in pre-war years, and today by the American imperialists."(73)

Only industries connected with the processing of agricultural raw material have been developed and of these the most important are the sugar and textile industries. However, although "the projected output of all the cotton factories in Persia is about 40m. metres a year, in fact they produce not more than 25m. metres, or less than two metres per head of the population a year, while the average yearly demand for cotton in Persia during the last five years. . . is about six metres per head." Moreover, "the American and British monopolists are flooding the Persian market with their cotton fabrics and strangling the Persian textile industry. The import of cloth is growing from year to year in spite of the very limited and still decreasing purchasing power of the Persian population. . . In 1949-50, 150m. metres were imported. . . Unable to compete with the British and American monopolies and deprived of support from the Persian Government, the local textile undertakings. . . have been forced to cut their output sharply and certain of them have shut down altogether. In recent years the textile industry is operating at about fifty per cent of its production capacity."(74)

In the sugar industry much the same is true, according to Korobeynikov. "The import of sugar. . . has grown from 71,200 tons in 1946-7 to 153,000 tons in 1950-51. The excessive import of sugar harmfully affects the local industries, and for this reason, in spite of the favourable climatic conditions for the cultivation of sugar beet and sugar cane, the production of sugar in Persia does not exceed 50-60,000 tons and covers about forty per cent of the limited demand of the Persian population."(75)

with light industry so with the artisan industry of Persia. Carving "is doomed to ruin. On account of the fact that the great majority of carpets produced in Persia are exported, their production is very dependent on demand from foreign markets." (76) Other branches of the artisan industry suffer from competition of imported goods.

Seven-Year Plan

The Persian Seven-Year Plan is particularly criticized by Korobeynikov as a weapon for the enslavement of the Persian economy by American imperialists. (77) Korobeynikov criticizes especially the fact that "expenditure on agriculture and industry, that is on the basic branches of the Persian economy, is only 8,250m. rials, or 39.3 per cent of the total means. Of which, it was planned to spend only 3,000m. rials on industry, or 36 per cent of the total sum. . ." The allocations between the various branches of industry "show that even these very small sums are to be used only on branches of light industry and on expanding already existing enterprises. . . The division of funds according to the Seven-Year Plan shows that the American imperialists with the help of the ruling landowner-feudal class of Persia are hindering by every means in their power the development of a national industry and particularly of a heavy industry, by reducing the country to the position of a source of agricultural raw material for the imperialist powers. Without the development of a national industry there can be no talk of raising the country's economy."

Moreover, according to Korobeynikov, the Plan has "a military character. A large part of the amount allocated by the Plan is earmarked for building roads and railways and aerodromes. . . For the building of aerodromes approximately as much has been allocated as for the metallurgical industry. . . The construction of the Yazd-Kermān-Zāhedān railway for example cannot be justified by any economic interests."

In the financing of the Plan, Korobeynikov's reasoning is somewhat consistent. "The main source for financing the Plan was to have been the oil exports. . . from the AIOC. With the nationalization of the oil industry this source ceased to exist. Moreover Persia did not receive loans from the International Bank. . . On account of the boycott of Persian oil on the part of the imperialist countries Persia could not receive currency from the export of oil. This created great economic difficulties in the country, making impossible any considerable investments as required by the Seven-Year Plan. . . The main source for financing the Plan has more recently been the allocations from the USA to Persia under the Truman Four-Point programme, but these are relatively small;" Korobeynikov then goes on to decry the achievements of the Seven-Year Plan: "Instead of realizing a wide programme of development. . ."

the undertakings of the Seven-Year Plan in industry and agriculture are limited to the construction of small. . . projects built purely for show." Korobeynikov concludes: "The national industry of Persia and the whole economy of the country are still extremely backward, and this is fully in accord with the interests of the authors of the Plan."(77)

Persia's foreign trade

"The colonial character" of Persia's foreign trade is shown, according to Korobeynikov, by the fact that "Persia, like other countries of the Near and Middle East, is the object of the economic expansion and of the bitter struggle between American and British imperialists. This struggle has intensified particularly since the Second World War, for the sphere of activity. . . of the monopolists of the USA and Britain has narrowed and for this reason the importance of the markets under their control has greatly increased."(78) Korobeynikov produces figures to show that "Persian exports, including oil and oil products greatly exceed her imports, but the assets of the trade balance came entirely to the AIOC and thus all the advantages of the trade came to the British monopolists. The balance of Persia's own trade is adverse. . ." (79) Korobeynikov then says that: "To cover the deficit in her foreign trade Persia is obliged to put at the disposal of the American and British monopolists large amounts of gold and currency. Between 1947-8 and 1951-2 the monopolists have pumped 11,573m. rials in currency out of the country."(80)

Korobeynikov, and other recent Soviet writers, repeatedly emphasize the fact that the Western imperialists flood the Persian market with consumer goods: "It is very characteristic," writes Ivanov, "that the Americans have flooded Persia chiefly with goods which could be produced by Persian industry. . . The Persian market is filled with cotton cloth, metal ware, paper, glassware, and other American goods of very low quality, and also with old second-hand clothes, low quality trinkets, chewing gum and such goods which cannot be sold in America or in other countries."(81)

Although "ninety per cent of Persian exports are agricultural products" (sic) Korobeynikov says that "as a result of the decline of agriculture in the post-war period Persia was forced to import foodstuffs although in pre-war years they were exported. . . . In 1949-50 the monopolists of the USA. . . sold Persia more than 100,000 tons of wheat at high prices and, as the Persian press said, most of it turned out to be rotten."(82) While repeatedly refusing to treat oil exports as an integral part of the Persian economy, Korobeynikov yet says: "Because Persia was deprived of the possibility of selling her oil in foreign markets, the only means of paying for her imports was to export goods which usually did not cover more

twenty-five per cent of her exports. This created such a difficult
 problem in the country that the Persian Government was forced
 to take severe measures to curtail imports. In the first six months of
 1951, fifty per cent less goods were imported than in the correspond-
 ing period of 1951-2." (82)

Soviet-Persian economic relations

Korobeynikov devotes a surprisingly brief chapter to Soviet-Persian
 economic relations. (83) He starts by giving a summary account of Tsarist
 Persian relations with Persia and compares them favourably with British
 relations. "Competing with British monopolies, Russian capitalists ex-
 tended their trade turnover with Persia. Unlike Persia's trade with
 Britain, her exports to Russia exceeded her imports of Russian goods and
 Persia's trade balance with Russia was positive. Russia supplied Persia
 manufactured goods and imported raw materials and foodstuffs."
 Korobeynikov then goes on to describe the Soviet Union's dealings with
 Persia. The 1921 Treaty had "exceptional significance" for Persia; in
 "the strengthening of the international position of the Soviet Union,
 peaceful foreign policy, and also the insistent demands of the
 masses of Persia, forced Reza Shah to expand economic links with
 the USSR" and a Trade Treaty was signed. At the basis of this Treaty was
 the principle of nett-balance, that is, the covering of imports by
 exports. Payment of imported manufactured goods from the USSR not by
 gold or currency but by agricultural products had an immense importance
 for agricultural Persia, as it made possible the revival and further
 development of agriculture and industry. . ."

Korobeynikov gives detailed figures to show the important part played
 by the Soviet Union in Persian trade in the 1930s. "The Soviet Union
 was the chief buyer of the main raw materials and food stuffs of Persia. . .
 the Soviet Union had the chief place as supplier of the most important
 goods to Persia. . . Economic links between the USSR and Persia were
 confined only to trade relations. A whole series of undertakings
 constructed in Persia by Soviet specialists. Soviet economic
 organizations played a large part in the development of Persian agricul-
 ture. Thus, for example, a mixed Soviet-Persian society organized in
 Persia considerably helped the development of cotton-growing in Persia. . .
 the same work was carried out in establishing and developing silk-growing
 in Gilan and Mazanderan."

In spite of the fact that by 1938-9, Germany had taken the place of
 the USSR in Persian trade, a new trade agreement was signed in 1940.
 During the war years the Government of the USSR, . . helped Persia in

every way with foodstuffs and other goods, and carried out important work in improving roads and railways." Another recent Soviet writer amplifies this: "The Soviet Union despite the war gave considerable assistance to Persia; it sent urgently required manufactured goods and foodstuffs, in particular in 1943 when famine threatened Tehrān, 25,000 tons of wheat were sent there. A large quantity of grain was sent by the Soviet Union to the northern provinces of Persia and even to Khuzestān. In addition, Soviet forces stationed in Persia gave free medical help, mended old and constructed new roads, bored artesian wells, etc. Soviet scientists and doctors led the struggle against locusts and epidemics. In Tehrān and other towns of Persia Soviet hospitals were opened."(84)

A turning point in Soviet-Persian relations - and one which is not mentioned by Korobeynikov - was the rejection by the majles of the Soviet oil concession in north Persia in 1947. A fairly full account of the background to the concession is given in an article by M. Sergeyeu which was published in BOLSHEVIK in 1946.(85) Like other Soviet writers, he emphasizes the point that under the Soviet-Persian Treaty of 1921 the Soviet Government relinquished all rights to former Tsarist concessions and property in Persia on condition that the Persian Government did not transfer them to any other country. "In spite of this. . ." writes Sergeyeu, "on several occasions the Persian Government granted oil concessions in northern Persia to foreign oil companies." (See above: "America and Persia".) Sergeyeu then continues: "From the end of 1943. . . representatives of the British 'Royal Dutch Shell' oil company and of the American 'Standard Oil' and 'Sinclair Oil' companies were negotiating in Tehrān for concessions for the oil deposits in Persian Baluchestan and other areas. The Persian Government were favourably disposed to these offers. In September 1944 a Soviet Government mission headed by Kavtaradze arrived in Tehrān. This delegation began negotiations with the Sa'ed Government with the aim of obtaining for the USSR a concession for the operation of oilfields in the north of Persia. Despite the fact that the Soviet proposals were advantageous for Persia and that the acceptance of them might have contributed towards the industrial development of the northern provinces and later of the whole country, the Persian Government decided to reject them and not to grant any concession until the end of the war." Soviet-Persian oil negotiations were resumed, however, in February 1946. "Notwithstanding," as one Soviet writer put it (86) "all the intrigues and provocations of Persian reactionaries and the efforts of alien forces to prevent the conclusion of the agreement. . . Soviet-Persian negotiations were ended successfully on 4th April 1946. . ." The parties agreed to form a mixed Soviet-Persian company for prospecting and operating any oil deposits found in the northern provinces of Persia." Under the terms of the agreement Persia was to ratify the agreement within seven months of the convening of the majles. The

of the majles to do so is ascribed by recent Soviet writers to an pressure (see History Section: "The Western Powers in Persia, 1919-1949"); but no Soviet comment on the failure to ratify the agreement is to have been made either at the time or indeed until about 1949.

probeynikov, while failing to mention the oil concession, merely "In the post-war years Persia's trade with the Soviet Union and other democratic countries sharply declined, and in some years was at a standstill. The share of countries of the democratic camp Persian foreign trade turnover declined to 15.4 per cent in 1950 as compared with thirty-six per cent in 1937-8." Trade relations resumed in 1950 by an agreement which was favourably commented on by Soviet writers, as was the June 1954 Trade Agreement. Beloshapkin writing on the renewal of Soviet trade wrote in 1954(87): "Between 1945 and 1953 Soviet-Persian trade underwent a sharp decline. From 1945 to 1953, the period when the oil monopolies were striving to make the Persian Government capitulate over the oil conflict by exercising their methods of commercial and financial pressure, Persia began to experience considerable difficulties in importing various consumer goods. . . . deprived of the possibility of selling her oil in foreign markets, Persia . . . was obliged to reduce her imports and to encourage exports in every possible way. The Persian trade balance of 1952-3 closed with a deficit. The expansion of Persian-Soviet and Persian-Polish trade contributed to the balancing of Persian trade. . . . The Soviet Union supplies Persia with sugar, cotton fabrics, metals and hardware, engineering materials, vehicles and machinery for her factories, chemicals and a number of other goods. . . . Unlike the unequal conditions of trade with British and American monopolies which are mainly interested to sell goods for hard currency, the transactions with Soviet trading companies are based on barter."

. . .

Figures for Persia's trade with the Soviet Union and eastern Europe for the last three years are given in the United Nations publication "ECONOMIC BULLETIN FOR EUROPE" of August 1956 as follows:

(Figures in millions of current dollars)

Imports from Persia			Exports to Persia		
1953	1954	1955	1953	1954	1955 [†]
22.8	20.6	23.0	27.1	21.2	30.8

[†]Of all non-European countries trading with the USSR and eastern Europe only in Egypt and Persia did trade with the USSR and eastern Europe account for more than ten per cent of the foreign trade turnover. (88)

III ETHNOGRAPHY

The following is an abridged translation of the part dealing with Persia of S.I. Bruk's article "The ethnic composition of the countries of Western Asia" which appeared in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA No.2 of 1955. The Soviet attitude towards the problem of national minorities in Persia is expressed in the Soviet Encyclopaedia(89) as follows: "The position of the national minorities in Persia is extremely difficult. They suffer under the cruellest yoke. The ruling reactionary circles deny the existence of the national minorities in Persia and with this excuse smother their national culture in every way, forbid the teaching of native languages in schools, and put down any appearance of independent political life." The NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA develops this theme(90) when discussing Reza Shah's reign: "All the national minorities inhabiting Persia, the Āzarbāyjānis, Turkmen, Kurds, Baluchis, and others, were officially proclaimed 'Iranians'. Persian was proclaimed the state language, teaching in schools (with the exception of boarding schools of the European type) and legal proceedings were to be only in Persian, while the 'Persians' themselves made up only about half of the population of the country." It should be noted, however, that S.I. Bruk's ethnographic study is entirely objective and contains no propaganda whatever.

ans (50,000) live along the frontier of Afghanistan, south of the river and in Sistān. The Tadzhiks (25,000) live with the Iranians between Sabzavār and Nishāpur. The Iranians (8,200,000) live in the central areas of Persia and everywhere, except in Persian Iran, form the greater part of the urban population. They are agriculturalists. In areas of poor soil and little precipitation and semi-nomadic Turkic, Arab and other tribes are found living with the Iranian population. In the Dasht-e-Kavir and Dasht-e-Lut the Arabs occupy the fringes of the desert while the Arabs live in the interior of it. On the shores of the Persian Gulf Iranians live mingled with the Arabs.

The Gilākis (280,000) form about eighty per cent of the population in Gilān. Their language is quite markedly different from Persian and many aspects of life has many peculiarities. The Galeshis (25,000) live in the hills of Gilān and are very close in language and habits to the Gilānis. The Māzandarānis are also distinct from the Iranians. They live in the provinces of Māzandarān and Gorgān to the north of the Elburz. The Taleshis (25,000) live in the north of Gilān and Ardabil and are semi-nomadic. Their language shows traces of the influence of Gilāni.

There are 1,800,000 Kurds in Persia. In Kurdistān there are also elements of Lors in the south, Iranians in the east and Āzarbāyjānis in the north. About 300,000 Kurds live in northern Khorāsān around Bojnurd and Bojnurd. Smaller groups are to be found north of Qazvin, Kirāz, in western Loristān and in the north-west of Persian Iran.

The Lors (525,000) live to the south of the Kurds; there are two groups, the Posht-e-Kuh Lors, mostly nomadic, living in winter in the Karkheh valley and in summer in the hills to the south-west; and the Ab-e-Diz Lors, living a settled life between the Karkheh and Ab-e-Diz. Some groups of Lors, very much assimilated to the surrounding population, live near Hamadān, Sāin, Qal'eh, Garus, Rudbār and Hamadān. From 1925 to 1941 the Government of Reza Shah forcibly settled nomadic Lors and two new towns - Ilām and Shāhābād - were built in the area of the Lor settlements. Ethnically the Lors are akin to the Kurds and their language is little different. The Kuhgelis and Mamasānis are tribes akin to the Lors living in the west of Fārs.

The Bakhtiyāris (600,000) live in the area to the south of the Ab-e-Diz between Shushtar and Esfahān. They are nomadic and in winter live in the Dezful and Shushtar plain, and in summer the hills between Dezful and Esfahān. Settled Bakhtiyāris live around Faridun, Karvand,

and Chahār-Mahāl. Many of them live in the area of the oil-wells at Maydān-Neftun, Haft-Kel, Āghā-Jāri and Behbehān, where they mingle with the Arab and Indian population. There are two main tribal groups, the Haft Lang in the north and the Chahār Lang in the south near Borujerd. The latter are mainly settled, the former mainly nomadic. Their language is close to Lor and Kurdish.

The Baluchis (420,000) live in Baluchistān itself, in Sistān in a mixed population of Afghans and Iranians, and in Khorāsān between Jomayn and Torbat-e-Haydari, near Qāyen, Bojnurd and in the Sabzavār-Nishāpur plain. The Hazāras (Berberis) (150,000) are the remnants of the Mongol invasion of Afghanistan in the sixteenth century, and began to move into Persia at the end of the nineteenth century. They have settled in Khorāsān around Mashhad, in the Kashaf Rud valley and in the region of Chenārān and Samalgān. The Jamshidis (30,000) also settled in Persia towards the end of the nineteenth century in the north-east of Khorāsān, in the lower reaches of the Kashaf Rud and north of Torbat-e Shaykh Jām. They are semi-nomadic. The Taymuris (70,000) live on the Afghan frontier near Lake Namansar.

The Persian Turkmens live on the USSR frontier and in an area to the north-west of Bojnurd, near Darreh Gaz and Sarakhs. They are mostly of the Yamut, Guklān, Salor, and Sārek tribes. They are 20,000 in number. The largest Turkic group in Persia are the Āzarbāyjānis (about 4,000,000) who form about eighty per cent of the population of Persian Āzarbāyjān. Other smaller Turkic groups, still to be found at the beginning of this century, have now been assimilated to them; such were the Moqaddamis, the Dombals, the Qareh Chorlu, the Moghānlu, the Bāyets, the Javānshiris, and the Shakkāks. Some larger groups are still distinct. Such are the Shāhsavans (180,000), nomads in the north-east of Persian Āzarbāyjān who winter in the Moghān plain and summer in the Savālān, Tālesh, and Qareh Dāgh hills, while some of them live near Zanjān and Sāveh. The Qareh Dāghis (75,000) are nomads inhabiting the Qareh Dāgh plateau and have many similarities to the Shāhsavans. The Afshars (400,000) are semi-nomadic and found all over Persia, but mainly on the north-west shores of Lake Rezā'iyeh, in the south of Khamseh, in the hills on the borders of the Hamadān and Kermānshāh provinces, in the area south of Bojnurd and Quchān, between Sabzavār and Nishāpur, north of Jomayn and south of Kermān. All these peoples speak Āzarbāyjāni.

The Qājārs (25,000) live in the Sovar-Shaku area of Gorgān and the Khazar-Jarib area of Māzandarān. Those of the former area are nomadic, those of the latter settled. Most of them speak Persian, the rest Qājār; a Qājār dynasty ruled Persia from 1794 to 1925. The Qashqāys (600,000) are nomads who winter south of Shirāz, in the hills near the Persian Gulf

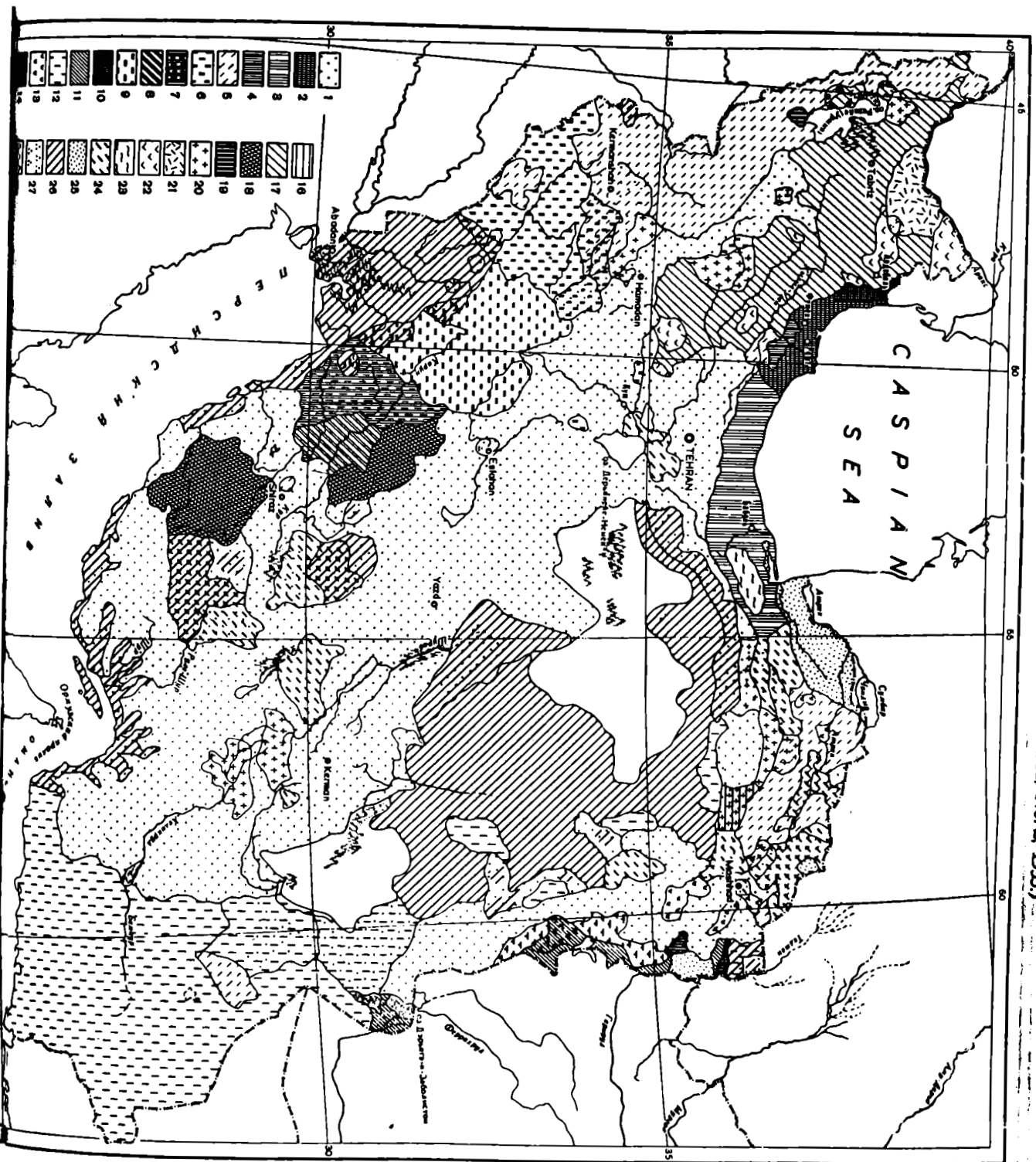
the basin of the river Mond, and summer west of the Esfahān-Shirāz in the upper reaches of the Melbur and Shikan Rud. Their language is to Āzarbāyjāni. The Qarehpākhs (20,000) live on the southern of Lake Rezā'iyeh whither they came from Armenia during the Russo-Persian War of 1826-28.

There are other scattered nomadic and semi-nomadic Turkic tribes, numbering about 350,000, in east and south Persia. They are known by tribal names. The Kangarlu (30,000) live in the region of Varāmin in the Tehrān province. To the east of the Qāshqāys in the east live the Aynanlu, Bahārlu, and Nafar, who together form the tribal group (85,000). In the Kermān province near Sirjān, Qūjān and Bardsir live the Khorāsāni and Bogagchi (55,000). In the south, south of Torbat-e-Haydari, is the Karāyi tribe (30,000) and to the north among the Kurds live the Bāyet (near Nishāpur), Qareh Chōrlu (near Esfarāyen) and other tribes (120,000). In Gorgan there are the Qamirtāsh (Fendārek area) and Gaudari (Nardīn and Sarhadd area) (30,000). All these Turkic tribes live in hills or semi-desert.

Of the Semitic group there are in Persia 820,000 Arabs; 75,000 Armenians; and 65,000 Jews. The main Arab area is Khuzestān. They live with the Iranians the low areas near the Persian Gulf and in Fārs, Chaharmahal, they share the area around Lake Nayriz with the Khamseh tribe. In Chaharmahal they occupy the Dasht-e-Kavir. There are many around Qayen, Sar-e-Bisheh, Kāshmar, and Bākharz, and they live with the Kurds in the area around Sarakhs. The Assyrians live on the west of Lake Rezā'iyeh with Armenians and Āzarbāyjānis. The Jews live in small towns.

Other peoples, the Armenians (130,000) live with the Assyrians in Dilman and Rezā'iyeh. There are also about thirty Armenian colonies on the Qareh Dāgh plateau, a large colony in Jolfā, a suburb of Tabriz, and colonies in the larger cities such as Tabriz, Tehrān and Shirāz. There are 50,000 Indians, living mostly in the oil-working areas of Ābādān, Behbehān, Aghā Jari and Haft Kel. There are many small colonies of Gypsies known under local names.

ETHNOGEOGRAPHICAL MAP OF PERSIA.
(Reproduced from SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA, No. 2, 1955.)



IV LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Iranian languages and Persian literature have always occupied an important place in Russian oriental studies and the tradition was maintained after the Revolution. Many of the best known scholars in this field - Barthold, Bertels, Romaskevich and Freyman, who had already established a reputation, continued their work under Soviet auspices. Others such as Minorsky and Ivanov left to pursue their writing and research elsewhere.

A comprehensive description of Soviet Iranian studies up to 1941 was given by Professor Minorsky in a lecture on Oriental Studies in the USSR delivered before the Royal Central Asian Society in 1942. In the present brief note it is proposed to deal mainly with publications which have appeared since Professor Minorsky's review, with special reference to those on linguistics and modern literature.

Although Soviet scholars have produced some notable work on classical and pre-classical Persian literature there is a tendency to consider Persian primarily as a modern language. Most of the instructional books on Persian are concerned exclusively with the language as it is used today in speech and writing. The graduated course with exercises so popular in the West is a method seldom if ever used in the USSR. Soviet books for the teaching of oriental languages usually consist of brief scientific, or what Soviet writers call scientific-popular, grammars without exercises or vocabularies; chrestomathies with full vocabularies but without notes; books on syntax with large numbers of examples, often drawn from the chrestomathies; and dictionaries. In addition a good many studies on various aspects of grammar and dialects appear in learned periodicals. Whatever the merits or defects of this system, it has produced some notable aids to the study of Persian, the like of which can hardly be found elsewhere. One of these is SOVREMENNAYA PERSIDSKAYA PRESSA V OBRAZTSAKH (The modern Persian press in examples) compiled by A.A. Romaskevich and published in 1931. This consists of some 40,000 words of extracts from modern newspapers ranging from leading articles and parliamentary reports to advertisements and society news items and is accompanied by a vocabulary of 6,000 words. The variety of subject matter make this book an invaluable companion to the student; it also affords some interesting examples of Persian invective, most of them being directed against Britain and the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. Another important work is KRATKIY SINTAKSIS SOVREMENNOGO PERSIDSKOGO YAZYKA (A short syntax of the modern Persian language) by A. Arends, published in 1941. In addition to a treatise on syntax and 400 typical sentences, this book contains 16,000 words of extracts from modern authors and a vocabulary of 3,500 words. The extracts include many interesting passages from such imaginative writers

Alizādeh and Murtaza Mushfiq Kāzemi. The explanations supporting the lent examples are somewhat turgid and the treatment of Persian affixes and their effect on the agreement of the verb is made the foundation for an attack on Persian "feudalism". The latter is, perhaps, used merely for the purpose of demonstrating the author's politicalodoxy. The vocabulary is less comprehensive than Romaskevich's, but still exceedingly useful.

In Persian lexicography Soviet scholars have made some important contributions. Gaffarov's Persian-Russian dictionary was the first comprehensive dictionary to take any cognizance of modern Persian usage and formed the basis of Haim's fuller but occasionally fallible Persian-Russian dictionary published in Tehrān. The two editions of B.V. Miller's Persian-Russian dictionary mark an advance on Gaffarov and Haim. The second edition (1953) is probably the best dictionary of modern Persian in existence. It contains 35,000 words and is clearly printed on 668 pages in three columns. There is an excellent grammatical supplement by Pastorguyeva.

The two most important philological works published since Minorsky's are the two-volume symposium IRANSKIYE YAZYKI (Iranian languages) and V.S. Sokolova's OCHERKI PO FONETIKE IRANSKIKH YAZYKOV (Outline of the phonetics of Iranian languages) (1953). A large part - more than half of the symposium is devoted to Kurdish: a long paper by Vil'chevskiy on "Linguistic material on social forms in Kurdistan" which ponderously defines its object as "the explanation, tracing, and reconstruction of those periods which on the one hand have always been obscured by historical sources circumscribed by tradition, and on the other have been the background against which, in the process of the emergence and development of feudal society, have been created new stages of peoples. . . and which has produced that cultural historical revolution which has more than once served as the standard of anti-feudal struggles." Vil'chevskiy also contributes a "Bibliographical review of Kurdish (i.e. non-Russian) printed publications of the 20th century." Other papers on Kurdish subjects include thirty-two pages of "Kurdish texts" by K. Kurdoyev, an "Outline of Kurdish grammar" by I.I. Miller and "Some problems of Kurdish phonetics" by K.V. Miller. Apart from this symposium contains a long paper by B.V. Miller on the phonetics of the dialects of Āzarbāyjan and one by A.A. Romaskevich on the province of Āzarbāyjan and its dialects.

V.S. Sokolova's two-volume OUTLINE OF THE PHONETICS OF IRANIAN LANGUAGES is a work of remarkable erudition. It gives a detailed and scientific description of the phonetic structure of the Persian, Kurdish,

Talysh, Tat, Ossete, Yagnob and the Pamir languages, the last including the Shugnan-Rushan group and the Yazghulam, Vakhan and Ishkashim dialects. The descriptions are supported by numerous texts consisting mostly of traditional anecdotes.

In the Soviet Union the relative importance of classical and modern oriental literature is a matter regulated by the policy of the day. In spite of the tendency to give priority to modern literature considerable attention is devoted to classical literature partly because of its prestige value and partly because the amount of worthwhile modern eastern literature is still negligible by comparison with the classics. Since 1945 a number of classical texts have been produced mostly to mark the "jubilees" of poets and others, such as Ferdausi, Nizami, and Abu Ali bin Sena (Avicenna). The principal editor of such editions is E. Bertels, who in 1953 produced a translation of the famous KABUSNAMEH. Much Soviet commentary on the Persian classical writers is calculated to irritate the Persians because several poets are appropriated by various Soviet republics. Thus Nizami is always referred to as a poet of Soviet Azerbaydzhan, and Rudake and Ferdausi as Tadzhiks.

An article on oriental studies published in KOMMUNIST in May 1955 (see CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW Vol.III, No.3) laid emphasis on the need for greater use being made of the large number of oriental manuscripts in the USSR and in the following August the first number of a progressive catalogue of Persian manuscripts in possession of the Moscow Academy of Sciences was published. It is edited by N.D. Miklukho-Maklay and is a very competent production with photographs of specimen pages of the more important manuscripts. During 1956 the tendency has been generally to give more prominence both to the scholastic and to the political aspect of oriental studies.

The standard of short studies on Persian subjects appearing either in learned periodicals or as small monographs is fairly high but by no means exceptional. Occasionally, however, subjects of unusual interest are selected and dealt with in an original way. An example of this is SOTSIAL'NIY ELEMENT V PERSIISKIKH IMENAKH, PROZVISHCHAKH, TITULAKH I FAMILIYAKH (The social element in Persian names, nicknames, titles and family names) by N.A. Belgorodskiy, 1932. This is a study of the social significance of Persian names, titles and sobriquets, and contains much interesting and important information on a little-known subject. There are a number of mistakes in vowelling, which somewhat mar an otherwise scholarly production.

Far more attention has been paid to modern Persian literature in the USSR than in any other country. Apart from numerous critical studies of

authors, many of their works have been skilfully translated. For
 be, in 1936 Russian translations were published of YAKI BUD, YAKI
 (Once upon a time. . .) by Sayyed Muhammad Ali Jamālzādeh, and
 E-MAKHUF (Teheran, the city of fear) by Murtaza Mushfeq Kāzemi,
 the most popular books which have ever appeared in Persia. In
 collection of translations of recent Persian stories appeared
 the title of RAZKAZY PERSIDSKIKH PISATELEY (Stories by Persian
), with an introduction by E. Bertel's. The collection contains
 stories by Hedāyat, two by Bozorg Alavi and one each by Tabari,
 Daryā and Minu. The selection would hardly be considered by most
 as representative of the best modern Persian literature, or
 the writers themselves. All the stories are evidently selected
 fact that they rail at the present regime and particularly at
 Reza Shah. In one instance at least, the intention of the
 seems to have been mistaken by the editors: this is MIHANPARAST
 (Patriot) by Sādek Hedāyat. This is a story of a well-meaning
 servant, Nasrullah, who is selected by the Director of the
 Farhangestān to go to India in order to apprise the Indians of the
 language reforms. Nasrullah considers himself obliged to go
 he dislikes travelling. During the voyage down the Persian
 works himself into an ecstasy of apprehension lest the ship
 sink or catch on fire and vents his self-pity in a furious
 against the Director of the Farhangestān for despatching him
 mission which has nothing to recommend it since it is designed to
 the beautiful Arabic words from Persian. Eventually Nasrullah
 is himself with his life-belt in which fear has impelled him to
 ed. The editor of the collection says that this story is con-
 dition "unmasking the chauvinistic activities of the Farhangestān"
 tried to bring into use 'purely Persian' words in place of
 words, among which were many Arabic words which have long
 an organic part of the basic word store of the Persian language".
 a serious misrepresentation of the activities of the Farhangestān
 of Hedāyat's purpose in writing the story, which incidentally
 is very funny. It is noteworthy that Soviet writers strongly
 ve of the never wholehearted and now greatly modified project to
 te Persian for certain Arabic words used in Persian. The process
 cing large numbers of Arabic words in the Turkic and Iranian
 s of Central Asia by Russian words is, however, still in progress.

ing the articles on modern literary subjects which have been
 is one by E.A. Doroshenko in KRATKIYE SOOBESHCHENIYA INSTITUTA
 SODENIYA (Academy of Sciences) Vol. XIV, 1955. The title is "The
 al Basis of Persian Text-Books during the Regime of Reza Shah
 . The author severely criticizes the text-books issued for

Persian schools during the 1930s. No merit whatever is discovered in these books. The historical, geographical, scientific and literary information imparted in them is found to be completely misleading and designed primarily to glorify the monarchy and denigrate the Soviet Union. Persian criticisms of the text-books which are in line with the Soviet view are taken from the Tudeh Party newspaper RAHBAR (most Soviet quotations from the Persian press are taken from this paper, which had various names owing to the Persian practice of alternative licences). The author is also concerned at the instruction provided in the literature of various languages and deplores the total omission from Persian text-books of any mention of the French poet Béranger "who sneered at the cupidity, greed and passion for oppression of the property-owning classes and who extolled the simple people and called on them to fight against their taskmasters".

Two other recent articles on modern Persian literature appeared in KRATKIYE SOOBShCHENIYA Vol. XVII of 1955. These were "The Form of the positive Hero in Contemporary Persian Artistic Prose" by D.S. Komissarov and "A Critical Study of the Works of Sadek Hedāyat" by A.Z. Rozenfel'd. The first is an interesting description of a number of modern Persian novels and stories and an examination of the extent to which they fulfil the Communist desideratum of the "positive hero", that is to say, the hero who not only knows what is wrong with everything and everyone, but also knows how to put it right. Komissarov finds that whereas most Persian novel heroes wax lyrical in their condemnation of the existing order of things in Persia, they seem unable to prescribe a remedy. He describes with gusto one of A. Tabāri's stories TUFĀN NAZDIK MISHAVAD (The storm is approaching). The villain Majid, a Persian landowner and merchant, is an oppressor of the workers. His wife Esmat, however, is an enlightened supporter of the Tudeh Party and brings up her son Hormoz - the hero - in her own beliefs. Majid gets to know that his son has joined the Tudeh Party and reproaches him with it. "Yes," says Hormoz, "I am a member of the Tudeh Party of Persia and I am not ashamed of it, for I struggle in the interests of the people, against decay and debauchery, oppression, force and barbarism. It is, above all, your life, your attitude towards the peasants, the workers, the servants - both male and female - to my mother and me which has launched me on the right road". Majid expels his son from the house, and Hormoz leaves accompanied by his mother, her daughter and younger son, as well as the servants Ali and Fātsmah, all of whom have been listening at the door. Gloom descends upon Majid, "Ah," he sighs, "the storm is approaching". It is only fair to add that Komissarov, while generally appreciative of Hormoz's attitude, feels that it is somewhat over-simplified.

phenomenon of some interest is the Iranian studies pursued in the USSR. Tadjik is of course a language closely akin to the Persian of Iran and Afghanistan and although nowadays written in the Cyrillic script is perfectly intelligible to Persians and Afghans in its spoken form.

The Tadjik Academy of Sciences in Stalinabad produces a Bulletin of the Department of Social Sciences partly in Russian (IZVESTIYA OTDELENIYA SOVSYETSKYKH NAUK) and partly in Tadjik (AKHBAROTI SHU"BAI FANKHOI TADJIK) which contains a number of articles on literary and linguistic subjects. No.9 of 1956 for instance contains articles on the "History of Tadjik lexicography" (this is in fact a history of Persian lexicography), "Voices of the Tadjik verb", the "Folklore expedition of 1955" (in which this is Ekspeditsiyai fol'klorii soli 1955) and the "Demonstrative examples in the Afghan language (Pashto)."

The foregoing gives only a superficial idea of the considerable volume of Iranian studies relating to language and literature. In spite of the political angle which makes itself felt in many of these studies, the attention which they afford to scholarship is undoubted and they merit far more study than they have so far received in the West.

. . .

This concludes the analysis of Soviet publications on Persian affairs. Since the Revolution the amount of comment dedicated to Persian affairs has naturally varied according to the political situation. Until quite recently, a greater emphasis has been laid on Persian affairs than on those of any other Middle East country. Generally speaking, there has been a marked increase in published Soviet comment since the events in Persian Azarbayjan in 1945-47; and since 1955 when Soviet attention was focused more sharply on Iran, the Middle East and Afghanistan, there has been a tendency to by-pass Iran. It is perhaps unlikely that this tendency will be maintained for

Notes

- (1) OCHERKI ISTORII IRANA. M.S. Ivanov. Moscow, 1952, p.397.
(Referred to below as Ivanov.)
- (2) Ivanov, p.398.
- (3) Ivanov, p.402.
- (4) Ivanov, p.407.
- (5) Ivanov, p.408.
- (6) Ivanov, p.412.
- (7) Ivanov, p.413.
- (8) Ivanov, p.423.
- (9) Ivanov, p.424.
- (10) "Answers to readers' questions." In BOLSHEVIK No.13 of 1951.
- (11) "The predatory policy of the Anglo-American imperialists in Iran."
By I. Korobeynikov & I. Shatalov. In VOPROSY EKONOMIKI No.9
of 1951.
- (12) Ivanov, p.430.
- (13) Ivanov, p.433.
- (14) Ivanov, p.434.
- (15) Ivanov, p.435.
- (16) Ivanov, p.436.
- (17) Ivanov, p.437.
- (18) Ivanov, p.438.
- (19) Ivanov, p.439.
- (20) Ivanov, p.440.
- (21) "Oil and politics." By S. Belinkov. In NOVOYE VREMYA No.26 of 1953.

"The fate of Persian oil." By Y. Bochkarev. In NOVOYE VREMYA No.37 of 1952.

"On the national-liberation movement of the peoples of the Near and Middle East." By G. Akopyan. In VOPROSY EKONOMIKI No.1 of 1953.

Ivanov, pp.444-5.

IRAN. P. Milov. In series "U karty mira". Moscow, 1953, p.39.

"The fate of Persian oil." By B. Storin. In NOVOYE VREMYA No.32 of 1954.

"The first results of the activity of the Oil Consortium in Persia." By K. Denisov. In VNESHNYAYA TORGOVLYA No.10 of 1955.

"Against the interests of Persia and of international security." By Kh. Grigor'yev. In MEZHDUNARODNAYA ZHIZN' No.12 of 1955.

"A slippery and dangerous path." By K. Ivanov & A. Vasil'yev. In INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS No.2 of 1956.

OVREMENNAYA PERSIYA. A. Sultan-Zade. Moscow, 1922, p.6.
(Referred to below as Sultan-Zade.)

RATKAYA ISTORIYA PERSII. V. Gurko-Kryazhin. Moscow, 1925, p.49.
(Referred to below as Gurko-Kryazhin.)

PERSIYA V BOR'BE ZA NEZAVISIMOST'. M. Pavlovich & S. Iranskiy. Moscow, 1925. [Pt.I - Ocherki politicheskoy bor'by v Persii. By Pavlovich. (Referred to below as Pavlovich.) Pt.II - Puti natsional'no-osvoboditel'nogo dvizheniya v Persii (1917-25). Rol' Sovetskoy Rossii v bor'be Persii za natsional'noye osvobozhdeniye (1917-21). By S. Iranskiy. (Referred to below as Iranskiy.)] p.40.

Pavlovich, p.98.

Pavlovich, p.87.

IRANSKIYE SOTSIAL'-DEMOKRATY V PERSIDSKOY REVOLYUTSII. V. Tria. R.S.-D.R.P. Paris, 1910 (Addenda to PERSIYA V BOR'BE ZA NEZAVISIMOST' where it is reprinted as pp.109-16), p.110.
(Referred to below as Tria.)

- (36) Gurko-Kryazhin, p.51.
- (37) Pavlovich, p.74.
- (38) Tria, p.112.
- (39) Tria, p.110.
- (40) Pavlovich, p.45 (Footnote).
- (41) Gurko-Kryazhin, p.57.
- (42) Tria, p.113.
- (43) Tria, p.114.
- (44) Pavlovich, p.103.
- (45) Pavlovich, pp.66-67.
- (46) Sultan-Zade, p.7.
- (47) Gurko-Kryazhin, pp.60-61.
- (48) Sultan-Zade, pp.59-60.
- (49) Sultan-Zade, p.50.
- (50) "XXth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the tasks of studying the contemporary East" in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE No.1 of 1956.
- (51) IRAN: EKONOMIKA I VNESHNYAYA TORGOVLYA. I.I. Korobeynikov. Moscow, 1954, pp.3-5. (Referred to below as Korobeynikov.)
- (52) Korobeynikov, pp.11-12.
- (53) Ibid. p.16.
- (54) Ibid. p.24.
- (55) Ibid. p.26.
- (56) Ibid. p.28.

ISLANDS

Ibid. pp.29-30.

Ibid. p.40.

Ibid. p.49.

Ibid. p.56.

Ibid. pp.57-58.

Ibid. p.59.

See CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.I, No.3 for sugar-beet production in Kirgizia. Here the target production for 1955 was 425 centners per hectare.

Korobeynikov, p.61.

Ibid. p.62.

Ibid. p.63.

Ibid. pp.63-70.

Ibid. p.71.

Ibid. p.73.

Ibid. pp.74-75.

Ibid. p.76.

Ibid. p.80.

Ibid. p.81.

Ibid. pp.82-83.

Ibid. p.84.

Ibid. p.86.

Ibid. pp.86-91.

Ibid. p.93.

- (79) Ibid. p.99.
- (80) Ibid. p.101.
- (81) Ivanov, p.417.
- (82) Korobeynikov, p.104.
- (83) Ibid. pp.107-15.
- (84) Ivanov, p.343.
- (85) "The struggle of democracy against reaction in Persia."
M. Sergeev. BOLSHEVIK, No.11 of 1946.
- (86) "Persia after the war." M. Grigoryan. MIROVOYE KHOZYAYSTVO I
MIROVAYA POLITIKA, Nos.4-5 of 1946.
- (87) "Economic relations between the USSR and Persia." D. Beloshapkin.
VNESHNYAYA TORGOVLYA, No.9 of 1954.
- (88) ECONOMIC BULLETIN FOR EUROPE, Vol.8, No.2. Geneva, August 1956,
pp.46-47.
- (89) Soviet Encyclopaedia, Vol.18. Article "Iran", section on
population.
- (90) NOVEYSHAYA ISTORIYA STRAN ZARUBEZHNOGO VOSTOKA. Eds. I.M. Reysner
and others. Vol.II, Moscow, 1955, p.202.

THE BORDERLANDS OF
SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA

SINKIANG

Founding of the Sinkiang Uygur Autonomous Region out of the Chinese province of Sinkiang in September 1955, some important events in Sinkiang have appeared in Soviet periodicals. On the basis of these works a fairly comprehensive picture of developments in this little-known area can be gathered. A brief review of "New Sinkiang", abridged from KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 14th and 15th September 1955 was published in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.IV, No.1 (pp.72-73). Following is an analysis of later articles, which amplifies the situation in Sinkiang."

The analysis is divided into three sections: ethnography, economic situation, and social transformation.

The spelling of place names in Sinkiang presents considerable difficulties. In general the spelling used by the Survey of India has been followed, alternative spellings of names being occasionally given in parentheses. Names of places and peoples common in Central Asia and there-fore frequent occurrence in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW are transliterated as in the original, e.g. Altay, Tadzhik, and Kirgiz. Throughout English transliteration has been used for the Chinese administrative divisions as

<u>Chinese</u>	<u>English</u>
chou	district
hsien	county
ch'u	area
hsiang	(national) rural area

I ETHNOGRAPHY

This section is an abridged translation of S.I. Bruk's article "The ethnic composition and distribution of population in the Sinkiang Uygur Autonomous Region of the Chinese People's Republic" which appeared in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA, No.2 of 1956. Bruk's sources include the Chinese and Sinkiang popular press; the works of Russian travellers and geographers of the nineteenth century; and some western works, notably Owen Lattimore's PIVOT OF ASIA, Sir Clarmont Skrine's CHINESE CENTRAL ASIA, and Sir Percy Sykes' THROUGH THE DESERTS AND OASES OF CENTRAL ASIA.

(For the Dungan and Uygur national minorities of the Soviet Union, see CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.II, No.3.)

The area of Sinkiang is 1,707,000 square kilometres - about one sixth of the area of China. The total population on 30th June 1953 was 4,874,000. Sinkiang is divided by the Tien Shan range into two parts - Dzungaria and Kashgaria. In Dzungaria the population is concentrated in the well-irrigated strip along the northern slopes of the Tien Shan and in the Ili, O-min Ho (Emel'), and Kara Irtish (Chernyy Irtys) valleys. In Kashgaria most of the population is settled west of Kucha and Keriya in the oases at the foot of the Kunlun, Pamirs, and Tien Shan. More than sixty per cent of the country is quite uninhabited.

The urban population forms about fifteen per cent of the total. The largest towns are Urumchi (141,000), Kuldja (108,000), Kashgar (91,000), Aqsu (Aksu)(90,000), and Yarkand (80,000). The towns in Dzungaria are mainly inhabited by Chinese and Dungans (Tungans; Chinese: Hui) and in Kashgaria by Uygurs.

At the time of the Manchu conquest of Sinkiang (c.1760), the Dzungarian Khanate, composed of various Qyrat tribes - Choros, Torgouts, Khosouts, Derbets, and Elets (Olots) - existed in the north of the province. A large part of the population perished during the period of conquest. In Kashgaria there were seven Uygur principalities - Khotan, Yarkand, Kashgar, Kucha, Aqsu, Turfan, and Qomul. In the mountains of the south-west there were tribes of Kirgiz and Tadzhiks. To defend the western frontiers of the newly acquired territory, military settlements

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BORDERLANDS

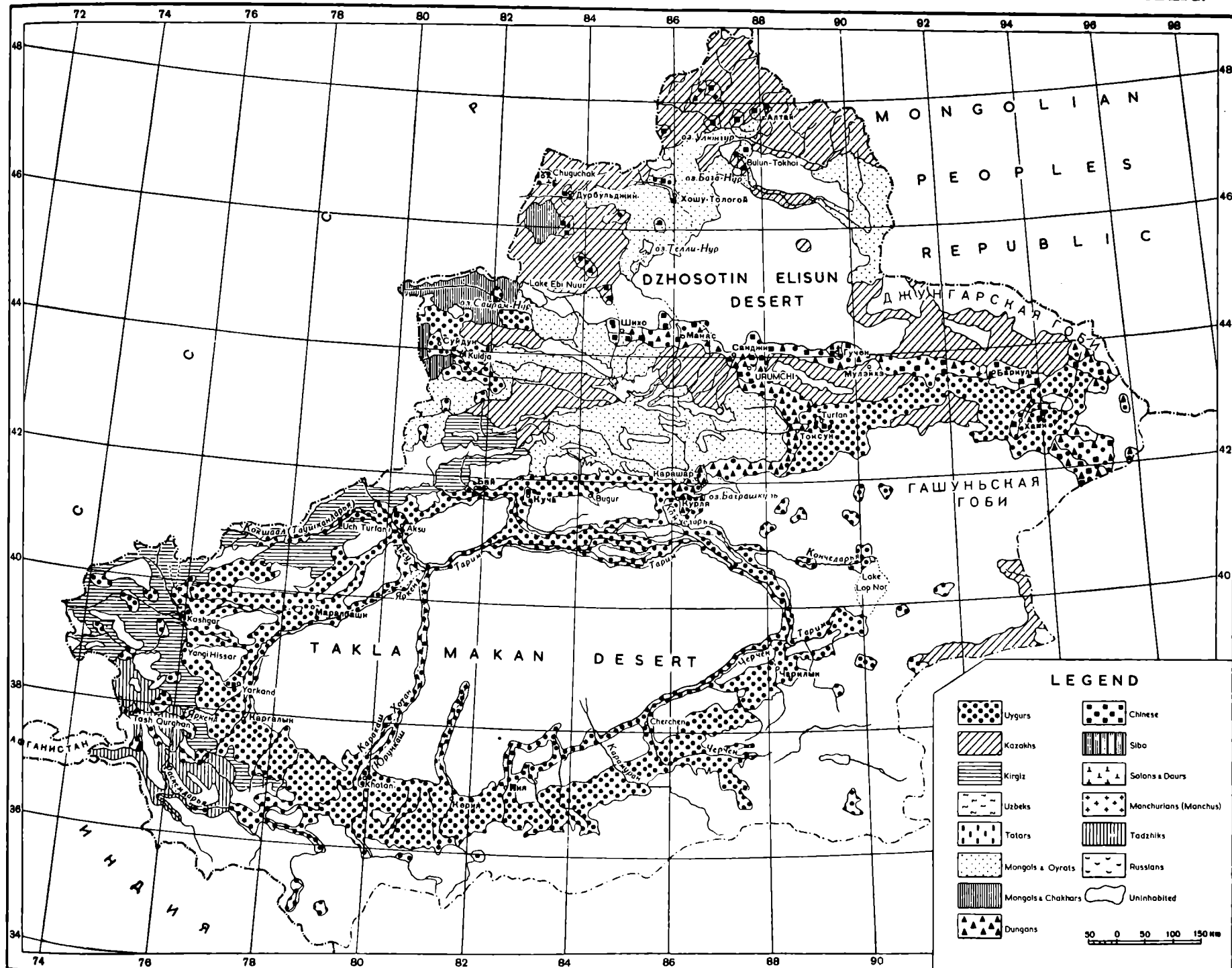
of Sibo, Solons, Daurs and Manchus were made in the west of the province; in the 1760s about 10,000 Uygur families were settled in the Ili region. In 1771, the Oyrats (Torgouts and Khoshouts) - descendants of the Dzungarians who had left to settle on the Volga in 1628 - returned to Sinkiang. At the end of the eighteenth century, Chakhar Mongols from north-east China were settled in the Ili and Tarbagatay (Chuguchak) districts, and Dungans followed by Chinese, began to arrive from Kansu and Shensi. At the beginning of the nineteenth century some of the tribes of the Great Horde of the Kazakhs moved to the north and west of Dzungaria; and in the 1890s some of them moved farther south towards the Tien Shan.

There were many movements of population connected with the various rebellions that occurred in Sinkiang. Thus, after the 1864-78 rising many Dungans and Uygurs crossed the frontier into (Russian) Central Asia. After the 1931-33 rebellion many Kazakhs from the Altay district were re-settled in Kansu and Tsinghai. Sinkiang is now inhabited by Uygurs, Kazakhs, Kirgiz, Uzbeks and Tatars of the Turkic group; Oyrats and Chakhars of the Mongol group; Sibo, Solons, Daurs, and Manchus of the Tungus-Manchu group (in 1954 the Solons of Sinkiang were at their own request classed as Daurs by the Government); Chinese and Dungans of the Chinese group; Tadzhiks of the Iranian group. There are also some Russians, Tibetans, Kashmiris, Afghans, and Gypsies. In the inaccessible hills of the northern slopes of the Karakoram range there are small groups of so-called Kanjuts (apparently akin to the Burish (?)) that have never been studied.

With the exception of the Uygurs, there are no official population figures for Sinkiang. The following table is drawn up on the basis of modern Chinese sources and Owen Lattimore's PIVOT OF ASIA.

Uygurs	3,640,000
Kazakhs	475,000
Chinese	300,000
Dungans	200,000
Mongols	120,000
Kirgiz	70,000
Sibo, Solons, Daurs, Manchus	20,000
Tadzhiks	15,000
Russians	13,000
Uzbeks	8,000
Tatars	5,000
Others	8,000
<u>Total</u>	<u>4,874,000</u>

ETHNOGRAPHICAL MAP OF THE SINKIANG-UYGUR AUTONOMOUS REGION OF THE CHINESE PEOPLES REPUBLIC.



(Reproduced from *SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA*, No. 2, 1956.)

Uygurs

The Uygurs are oasis-dwellers; in Kashgaria the oases of Keriya, Cherchen, Qarghaliq (Karghalik), Yarkand, Merket, Maralbashi, and Kucha are entirely Uygur. In other large oases there are some Dungans and Uzbeks, but only in Qara Shahr (Karashahr) and Kurla (Korla) are there more Dungans than Uygurs. In Dzungaria, the Uygurs are also the largest group; they live mainly in the Ili district, the Turfan and Hami oases and in all the larger towns (with the Chinese and Dungans). Their present name was adopted at the Uygur Conference in Tashkent in 1921; formerly they were named after their place of origin or habitation. Their ancient alphabet was adopted by the Mongols and the Manchus and was used by them until very recently; the Uygurs themselves adopted an Arabic script in the tenth century. They are an agricultural people and grow maize, wheat, barley, and cotton by irrigation. Some of them, the Taghliks, are semi-nomadic and breed livestock on the north slopes of the Kunlun. There are two separate groups - the Dolons who live in the area of Maralbashi and Merket and in the Tarim and Yarkand valleys and who have affinities with the Kirgiz (although Lattimore considers them to be assimilated Kazakhs), and the Lopliks who live in the Lop Nor area and who have many Mongol words in their vocabulary.

Kazakhs

The Kazakhs live mostly on the frontier of the Kazakh SSR in the Ili, Tarbagatay (Chuguchak), and Altay districts; smaller groups lead a nomadic life in the Barkul (Barkol) and Urumchi districts. Nearly everywhere they are found with Mongols as their neighbours. They still preserve in part their clan and tribal divisions. Of the largest tribal groups, the Kerei live in the Kara Irtish valley and on the south slopes of the Altay; the Naimans in the O-min Ho (Emel') valley and in the Birlik Tau, Maili Tau, and Dzayri (?) hills, while the Albans and Kyzai live in the Kunges, Tekes, and Kash valleys.

Kirgiz

The Kirgiz live in a crescent-shaped area enclosing the Uygur oases of Kucha, Bai, Aqsu, Kashgar, Yarkand, and Guma. A small group lives in the valleys of the southern tributaries of the Tekes in the Ili district. The Kipchak, Naiman, Teyit, and Chonbaghish tribes live in the Kashgar and Khotan districts; the Kutchu, Cherik, and Bugu tribes in the Aqsu and Ili districts. These same tribes are found in the parts of Kirgizia near the Chinese frontier. Many of the Kirgiz are nomadic. Between Kashgar and Yarkand they are settled and to a large degree assimilated to the Uygurs

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of that area.

Mongols

The Sinkiang Mongols are divided into two groups - the Oyrats in the west, and the Chakhars, represented by two small groups in the Boro Tala and O-min Ho (Emel') valleys. There are three tribal groups of Oyrats: the Torgouts in the Yulduz valleys, to the west of Shikho, to the south of Lake Ebi Nuur, in the Kobuk valley and the slopes of the Khrebet Saur (Saili Shan), in the upper valley of the Urungu and north of Kucha; the Khoshouts in the hills north of the Baghrash Kol; the Olots in the Kash, Kunjes and Tekes valleys and in the Orkash Bulak and Dzayri hills. The Olots are the sole survivors of the Dzungarians destroyed by the Manchu conquest. The Mongols are nomadic; only small groups in the Tekes valley and on the shores of the Baghrash Kol are settled. Most of them speak Oyrat; the Chakhars speak a dialect of Mongol-Khalkha. They are lamaist Buddhists. There is a small group of nomadic Mongolized Kazakhs in the Orkash Bulak hills who speak Mongol but are Muslims.

Tadzhiks

The Sinkiang Tadzhiks, or Sariqoli, live in the Tash Qurghan area and in the Tiznaf valley. Most of them are nomadic but some are hill farmers in the inaccessible Pamirs. They are akin to the Vakhanis, Shugnanis, and Roshanis of the USSR-Afghanistan frontier region. Most of them speak the Shugnani dialect of Tadzhik with an admixture of Turkic words. They are Shii Muslims.

Chinese and Dungans

There are many Chinese and Dungans in most towns of Sinkiang, but they are mostly to be found in eastern and central Dzungaria. About half the Chinese in Sinkiang are to be found in and around the towns of Urumchi and Barkul (Barkol). The Dungans are mostly to be found in the Kurla (Korla)-Qara Shahr (Karashahr) - Toqsun (Toksun) area. The Chinese and Dungans are traders, craftsmen, and market gardeners. They form the majority of workers in gold prospecting and mineral workings, which are at present expanding very rapidly.

Other nationalities

The Sibo live on both sides of the Ili west of Kuldja; the Solons and Daurians around Tarbagatay (Chuguchak); the Manchus in Sui-ting and Kuchengtze. The Russians, Uzbeks and Tatars live in Kuldja and Tarbagatay. There are also many Russians in Urumchi and scattered groups of Russian Old Believers in the north of the Altay district who migrated there at the end of the last century. There are many Uzbeks in Kashgar and the surrounding oases. The peoples of the Tungus-Manchu group are agricultural, the others are traders and craftsmen.

II ADMINISTRATION

This section is an abridged translation of I.B. Shevel's article "Nation-building in the Sinkiang Uygur Autonomous Region of the Chinese People's Republic" which appeared, like Bruk's article, in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA No.2 of 1956. Like Bruk, Shevel uses the Chinese and Sinkiang press for his sources.

Under the Kuomintang regime differences between the peoples of Sinkiang were cultivated and increased. Thus, for example, Chinese and Uygur farmers were resettled in areas populated by Dungans, and Dungans and Chinese were resettled in areas with a completely Uygur population. A characteristic of life in Sinkiang was the endless strife between Mongols and Kazakhs in connection with the strip system of farming. In these circumstances a popular rising broke out in November 1954 in the Ili district, which later spread to the Tarbagatay (Chuguchak) and Altay districts. The revolutionary army of these three districts withstood the attacks of the 100,000 strong Kuomintang Sinkiang Army for two and a half years until the arrival of the People's Liberation Army.

Immediately after the liberation of the province conditions were not yet right for establishing national autonomy, and a Sinkiang People's Provisional Government was thus established in accordance with Article 51 of the "General Programme" which served as the basis of the Government's actions until the adoption of the Constitution of the Chinese People's Republic. In this government, formed on 17th December 1949, there were nine Uygurs, three Kazakhs, four Chinese, two Dungans, and one representa-

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tive of other nationalities. The same principle was followed in forming district (chou) and county (hsien) governments towards the end of 1950. The mass organs of government were conferences of representatives of all sections of the population. These established provincial, town, and county consultative committees, which gradually took on themselves the functions of local committees of the People's Political Consultative Council of China.

In August 1952 the "Main Principles of a programme for establishing local national autonomy" were confirmed by the Central People's Government Council, which envisaged three types of autonomous area:

1. Autonomous areas with a population of one nationality.
2. Autonomous areas where the majority of the population was of one nationality but with other small minorities. These minorities were to have local autonomy in their turn.
3. Autonomous areas with two or more nationalities.

Sinkiang is of the second type as three quarters of the population are Uygurs.

In September 1952 at the second session of the provincial conference, a Preparatory Committee was established to deal with the problems of national autonomy; in the summer of 1953 special propaganda courses were organized and preparations made for the first general elections. From June to September 1953 elections were held in 36 of the lowest units (rural areas, or hsiang) to gather the necessary experience. Then the general elections began, and by May 1954 elections had been held in 82 counties and towns and in 2,175 rural areas. 91.56 per cent of the electorate voted. At the end of July 1954 the provincial assembly was convoked. Of the 375 deputies, 231 were Uygur, 48 Kazakhs, 45 Chinese, 14 Dungans, nine Mongols, nine Kirgiz, five Tatars, four Uzbeks, three Tadzhiks, three Sibo, two Russians, one Daur, and one Manchu. Of these 52 were women.

From November 1953 onwards lower national units had been formed; these were national rural areas (hsiang) and areas (ch'u). Then larger units, autonomous counties (hsien) and districts (chou) were formed and finally the autonomous region of Sinkiang was proclaimed. The Government of Sinkiang, or People's Committee, is headed by an Uygur; his three deputies are Chinese, Uygur, and Kazakh.

The following autonomous units have been formed within the oblast:

Three Kazakh administrative units:

1. The Ili autonomous district (chou), centre Kuldja, has been formed from the former Ili, Tarbagatay (Chuguchak, T'a-ch'eng), and Altay (Ch'eng-hua) districts. It has twelve nationalities in the population of 775,000 of which fifty-three per cent are Kazakhs.

2. The Barkul (Chen-hsi) autonomous county (hsien) with eight nationalities in a population of 24,180, thirty-one per cent of them Kazakhs.

3. The Mure (Mu-lei) autonomous county (hsien) with nine nationalities in a population of 21,058 of which thirty-three per cent are Kazakhs.

Five Dungan administrative units:

1. The Ch'ang-chi autonomous district (chou) including the Urumchi (Ti-hua), Ch'ang-chi, and Mi-ch'uan counties. It has eleven nationalities in the population of 98,306 of which 37.23 per cent are Dungans.

2. The Qara Shahr (Yen-ch'i) autonomous county with eight nationalities in a population of 28,830 of which 32.7 per cent are Dungans.

3. The (?Yu^u-ch'ung-wen) national area (ch'^u) in the Kuldja (I-ning) county composed of six rural areas (hsiang) with nine nationalities in a population of 8,013 of which 2,657 (thirty-three per cent) are Dungans.

4. The Ushaktal national area (ch'^u) in the Ushaktal (Ho-shih) county composed of two rural areas (six villages), with a population of 1,736, of whom 1,234 are Dungans, 463 Uygurs, and 39 Chinese, Mongols, and Kazakhs.

5. The (?Dunbazar) national rural area (hsiang) in the Pichang (Shan-shan) county with a population of 800 including Dungans, Chinese, Uygurs and other nationalities.

Nine Mongol administrative units:

1. The Boro Tala autonomous district (chou) including the Ching-ho, Wen-ch'uan, and Boro Tala (Po-le) counties with a population of 41,109,

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of which 24.6 are Mongols, the rest being of twelve other nationalities.

2. The Pa-yin-kuo-leng (? Baingolen) autonomous district (centre Qara Shahr) including the Qara Shahr (Yen-ch'i) Dungan autonomous county, and the Ushaktal (Ho-shih) and Ho-ching (?Khotunsmul) county with twelve nationalities in a population of 57,168, of which 20,007 (thirty-five per cent) are Mongols.

3. The Kobuk-Saur autonomous county (in the area covered by the former Hosh Tologoy (Ho-feng) county) composed of three areas (ch'u) (twelve rural areas) with a population of Mongols, Kazakhs, Uygurs, Chinese, Tatars, Dungans, and Uzbeks, the Mongols being fifty-eight per cent of the total population.

4. The (?Jirgalta) national area in the Shikho (Wu-su) county.

5. The (?Tsagan-usui) national area in the Mongol-Kure (Chao-su) county.

6. The (?Emaleole) national area in the Dörböljun (O-min) county.

7. & 8. The (?Tabunbulun and Kujirt) national rural areas (hsiang) in the Kizil-Kure (Tekes) county.

9. The (?Manbutebu) national rural area (hsiang) in the Altay county.

Three Kirgiz administrative units:

1. The Kizil-Su autonomous district (centre Artush) including the Aqche (A-ho-ch'i), Ulughchat (Wu-ch'ia), and Artush counties, and part of the Uch Turfan (Wu-shih), Yangihissar (Ying-chi-sha), Tash Qurghan (Pu-li) and Kashgar (Shu-fu) counties. It has eleven nationalities in a population of 130,000, of whom 48,620 (thirty-six per cent) are Kirgiz.

2. The (?Koktirek) national area in the Kizil-Kure (Tekes) county. It has eight nationalities in a population of 5,172, of whom 4,556 or eighty-eight per cent are Kirgiz.

3. The (?Chokmuzat) national rural area (hsiang) in the Mongol-Kure (Chao-su) county. Its population of Kirgiz, Kazakhs, Dungans, Tatars and others amounts to 1,401, 70.16 per cent of whom are Kirgiz.

Four Tadzhik administrative units:

1. The Tash Qurghan autonomous county in the territory of the former Pu-li county. It has six nationalities in a population of 10,238, of whom 38.1 per cent are Tadzhiks.
2. The Zarafshan national rural area in the Yarkand (So-ch'e) county made up of ten villages with a population of 1,328, of whom 747 are Tadzhiks, 576 Uygurs, and five Kirgiz.
3. The Novabad national rural area in the Guma (P'i-shan) county made up of three settlements with a population of 512, of whom 480 are Tadzhiks, 27 Uygurs, and five Kirgiz.

Two Sibo administrative units:

1. The Chapchal autonomous county on the territory of the former Ning-hsi (?Sumul) county, with a population of 35,433 of whom twenty-eight per cent are Sibos and the rest Uygurs, Kazakhs, Dungans, Chinese, Mongols and Kirgiz.
2. The (?Ichishan) national rural area in the Khorgos (Ho-ch'eng) county.

One Daur (Solon) administrative unit:

The (?Gurenshir) national area in the Tarbagatay (Chuguchak, T'a-ch'eng) county made up of two rural areas inhabited by Daur (Solons).

In Sinkiang, there are thus five autonomous districts (two Mongol, one Kazakh, one Dungan, one Kirgiz), six autonomous counties (two Kazakh, one Dungan, one Mongol, one Tadzhik, one Sibo), seven national areas, and nine national rural areas. From December 1955, however, the national areas have been in process of transformation into rural areas, counties, or districts according to their size.

III SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION

This section is based on the article by Shevel' (see above - Administration) and on V.F. Kasatkin's "Solution of the national question in the Chinese People's Republic" which appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, No.4 of 1956. A full account of the agrarian reforms in Sinkiang is to be found in the article "The realization of agrarian reforms in the Sinkiang province of the CPR" by I.B. Shevel' (SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, No.3 of 1955) which was briefly summarized in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.III, No.4, p.345.

Agriculture

Land reforms were apparently completed in Sinkiang in the spring of 1954 somewhat later than in the rest of China since they had been preceded by a preparatory period. Commenting on the reforms Kasatkin points out that the most radical reforms have been carried out in the agricultural areas where "all the property of the landowners including land, draught cattle agricultural equipment, farm buildings and houses have been divided among the landless and middle strata of the peasantry." Kasatkin goes on to explain how in semi-agricultural and semi-livestock breeding areas the reforms have been less radical while "in those regions . . . where livestock breeding is the chief branch of farming, agrarian reforms have not been carried out. . . In the livestock breeding areas of. . . Sinkiang no division of cattle or pastures has taken place." In these areas the aims have been "to safeguard the rights of the herdsmen while at the same time preserving the personal interest of the cattle owners in the rapid rise in the numbers of livestock. The old system of paying the herdsmen which was often based on their personal dependence on the big cattle owners has been abolished. The new system stipulates that on hiring a herdsman a labour agreement should be concluded. . . The policy of the Party and Government has had the result of liberating the cattle workers from feudal and semi-feudal exploitation and has created a basis for the development of productive forces in livestock breeding. It has also had a serious political significance."

Kasatkin explains that "in Sinkiang, as in certain other national regions where the Muslim church is the chief landowner, the local administration bearing in mind the religious interests of the Muslim population and guided by Article 3 of the law on agrarian reform, has left lands

belonging to religious foundations untouched. Persons of clerical calling have received land equally with the peasants." (Kasatkin quotes Article 3 as saying that "Land belonging to the mosques may be kept by them entirely or in part if the local Muslim population agrees to this".)

Both Shevel' and Kasatkin note the increases in agricultural production in recent years. Shevel' writes that at the end of 1954 there were 17.lm. head of stock as opposed to 12.lm. in 1949, while Kasatkin says that in 1955 there were one and a half times more cattle than in 1949. Kasatkin says that "in recent years the gross yield of the basic agricultural crops has increased by more than one and a half times" and remarks also on the increase in silk production.

On the establishment of cooperatives, Shevel' says that by December 1955, 2,081 agricultural production cooperatives had been formed in Sinkiang, consisting of the union of more than 52,000 peasant holdings. There were also 6,600 permanent "mutual help" groups covering 59,000 holdings, which had applied for transformation into cooperatives. Kasatkin, however, writing some six months later than Shevel', says that at the beginning of 1956 there were more than 8,500 agricultural production cooperatives which were composed of more than forty-five per cent of all peasant farms; and that at the end of March more than ninety per cent of peasant farms were in cooperatives of the primary type. "Cooperatives in the national regions," comments Kasatkin, "like the agrarian reforms, are carried out with consideration for local conditions, customs and traditions. Those methods and forms of collective labour which are accepted by the local population are used."

Industry

There is little to add to the facts given in "New life in Sinkiang" (CAR, Vol.IV, No.1) about the development of industry in Sinkiang. Kasatkin says that in 1955 the gross production of industry in value was twenty times more than in 1949. Shevel' says that there has been a noticeable increase in the number of those employed in industry and trade. In June 1954 there were over 78,000 such workers, 40,000 not Chinese. He adds that by January 1956 all businesses in Urumchi had been converted to mixed state and private ownership.

Culture

Shevel' adds some details to the facts given in "New Life in Sinkiang". He writes that the Sinkiang Institute, which had seventeen students

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in 1947, has now been converted into the Sinkiang Institute of Nationalities; it has eight departments and 1,240 students, 400 of them admitted in 1955, of whom ninety-six per cent are not Chinese. 870 students have graduated in the last six years. Other establishments which have been created include a Russian Institute, an Agricultural Institute, and teacher-training and medical training establishments.

There are now over 2,000 primary and secondary schools with 400,000 pupils, twice as many as in 1949.

The provincial government has established a committee for the guidance of the study of national languages and culture, and a section for the study of terms employed in Uygur and Kazakh. Some steps have also been taken, according to Shevel', towards the more detailed study of Sibo and Tadjhik.

Plays by Sinkiang authors have been performed by local casts in Korea, Rumania, and Poland. The Sinkiang Kazakh film HASAN AND JAMILEH has been shown with some success in Warsaw. The composer Turdy Akhung Aki, helped by Chinese specialists, has written down the music of the Uygur saga MUKAM in twelve parts. Other musicians have studied several ancient Uygur melodies and introduced new forms into them. In 1950 and 1955 delegations from Soviet Central Asia gave performances in Sinkiang with great success.

Fourteen newspapers and magazines are published in Sinkiang in the Uygur, Chinese, Kazakh, Mongol and Sibo languages. The main provincial newspaper, SINKIANG JIH-PAO, appears in Urumchi in Chinese, Uygur, Kazakh and Mongol and has a print order of 30,000. The daily print order of all newspapers is over 60,000 and sixty-four per cent of this total is not in Chinese. In the last four years about eleven million books have been produced in Uygur, Kazakh, Chinese, Mongol and Sibo by the provincial publishing house; much of this has been political literature such as the works of Mao Tse Tung. There are bookshops in all district centres and wireless relay stations in all district and county centres; transmissions are simultaneous in Chinese and Uygur and preparations are being made for transmissions in Kazakh.

There are health centres in every county centre. A medical institute, a nursing school, and a hospital with 600 beds are being built in Urumchi.

Since the appearance of Shevel's article, an interesting announcement was made in the Chinese press of 29th August 1956. At a conference held in Urumchi in August it was decided to make the following changes in the script of the various nationalities of Sinkiang:

1. Uygur, Kazakh, Kirgiz and Sibo'are to be written in the Cyrillic.
2. Uzbek and Tatar are now to be written in the same Cyrillic script as that used by the Uzbek and Tatar peoples of the Soviet Union.
3. Mongol is now to be written in the same script as that which was recently introduced in Inner Mongolia and which is based on the Cyrillic.

At the same conference proposals were made for the creation of a script for the Tadzhiks and for research into script reform for the Daur. The view was expressed that the old scripts were inadequate and gave rise to difficulties in the printing of newspapers and books. The adoption of Cyrillic would, it was thought, remove these difficulties and make it easier for other peoples and especially the Chinese to study the languages of the various peoples of Sinkiang. Moreover, the peoples and officials of the various nationalities would be able to cooperate more easily with one another.

The foregoing announcement makes no mention of the project now under consideration for devising a unified cyrillic alphabet for use in all the Turkic languages current in the USSR. (See SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, No.4 of 1956.) The present alphabets vary according to the phonetic requirements of the different languages. The Urumchi conference appears to have recommended the adoption of the cyrillic alphabet with its corresponding variants for Uzbek and Tatar, but merely of "the cyrillic alphabet" for Uygur, Kazakh and Kirgiz although special variants for these languages exist in the USSR.

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The following comment has been communicated by Sir Clarmont Skrine, author of CHINESE CENTRAL ASIA, which Bruk has used extensively as source material for his article on Sinkiang.

Communist China seems to have effected an almost magical transformation in Sinkiang during the last seven years. Since 1949 when the "Liberation Army", with plenty of unofficial assistance from the neighbouring Soviet Republic of Kazakhstan, defeated the local Nationalist forces and set up a provincial government at Urumchi, the landlord system has been

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replaced by peasant proprietorship organized collectively; dust-tracks have been replaced by metalled roads and camel-caravans by lorry-trains; higher education has been organized and schools multiplied from two to four times; medical, sanitary and veterinary services have been established; a vernacular Press including a daily paper with a circulation of 30,000 has been created, books printed by the million, and cinemas and broadcasting introduced in all the more important centres. I who last saw Sinkiang 32 years ago find it difficult to visualize the changed face of the "New Dominion". In those days there were no cars or lorries at all and even a bicycle was a rarity. The only schools for the predominantly Muslim population were those attached to mosques, at which nothing was taught by the mullahs but reading, writing, simple arithmetic and the Qur'an. By means of a strict censorship the dissemination of news or of any ideas whatever among the inhabitants, Chinese and Turki alike, was effectively prevented. But if the people were unhappy under this regime, they did not show it. They gave me the impression almost everywhere of wanting nothing better than to be left in peace under their sunny skies to enjoy the fruits of their amazingly fertile soil, watered by rivers flowing down from the mighty ranges, Kunlun and Karakoram and Pamir and Trans-Alay and Tien-Shan, which screened them off from the rest of mankind. It simply is not true to say, of Kashgaria in my time at any rate that its rulers "looked on it as a patrimony in which they could exploit and plunder the people without retribution" or that the landowners, kulaks and local nobles "exploited the peasants cruelly".(1) In 1924, when the strong administration of Governor Yang Tseng-hsin had kept peace in the province for twelve years, I wrote:

"The whole aspect of the better-watered parts of the oases is one of immemorial peace and contentment and of a civilization, such as it is, that has persisted for centuries. . . To Governor Yang and his subordinates must be given credit for what is probably a higher degree of prosperity than the country has known, at any rate since ancient times. . . In this twentieth-century world of hustle and the Yellow Press, of merciless competition and all-pervading publicity, one may be forgiven for hoping, selfishly perhaps, that a corner of the earth may long be spared in which a peaceful, contented, lovable and by no means uncivilized population exists without motor-cars or cinemas, without newspapers or telephones, without broadcasting or advertisements, without a mile of railway or even of metalled road, a land steeped in the Middle Ages, picturesque and quaint almost beyond belief. . . "

The Chinese Communists and their Russian allies have changed all this with a vengeance. Apart from everything else, a non-Communist Arcadia cannot be tolerated on the very border of the Soviet Union. Sinkiang has at

last caught up with the times. But I cannot help wondering whether the contrast between present welfare and past misery is as great, at any rate in the Kashgaria I knew, as the Soviet propagandists of Chinese Communism would have us believe.

Note

- (1) Article "The New Life in Sinkiang". See CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol.IV, No.1, p.72.
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Growth of Tashkent

The USSR Council of Ministers has approved a proposal of the Uzbek Government to spend 812m. rubles on the improvement of Tashkent. The plan provides for the building of 385,000 square metres of living accommodation (the official allocation per person is 9 square metres), schools with 11,740 places, kindergartens with 1,700 places, creches with 1,500 places, a hotel with 250 rooms, a water-supply of 60,000 cubic metres of water a day which by 1960 is to supply 200 litres of water a day per inhabitant; a drainage and sewerage system with a capacity of 106,000 cubic metres a day; and 20 km. of trolley-bus and 10 km. of tramway lines. The majority of these projects are to be finished by 1960 but the hotel is to be in use by 1957.

PV. 3rd August 1956

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 from recent Soviet publications; the list does not claim to be comprehensive. The bibliography is divided into sections on agriculture (including cotton and irrigation), the borderland countries, cultural affairs, history, industry and linguistics.

Agriculture

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KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956, No.6, pp.56-59, 300 words.

A short account, with a map, of the work to be done to irrigate the Golodnaya Step'.

Binder, M.A. Rabota mestnykh sovetov Kazakhstana po rukovodstvu osvoyeniyem tselinnykh i zalezhnykh zemel'. SOVETSKOYE GOSUDARSTVO I PRAVO, 1956, No.3, pp.72-80. 2,750 words.

A discussion of the legal aspects of rayon executive committee control over the work and plan fulfilment of the sovkhoses in the New Lands.

Chernysheva, A.F. Spetsializatsiya i razmeshcheniye zhivotnovodstva chelkar-irgizskogo rayona. IZVESTIYA VSESOYUZNOGO GEOGRAFICHESKOGO OBSHCHESTVA, 1956, No.3, pp.262-270. 2,500 words.

The peculiarities and distribution of various types of livestock breeding in the Chelkar-Irgiz rayon, Aktyubinsk oblast.

Chizhevskiy, M.G., Polovitskiy, I.Ya., and Ishigenov, I.A.

Ob osvoyenii solontsov v Severo-Kazakhstanskoy oblasti. ZEMLEDELIYE, 1956, No.6, pp.13-20. 1,800 words. An account, with tables and charts, of the desalination of solonets (wet salt pan) soils in the North-Kazakhstan oblast.

Kondakov, V. Za dal'neyshiy pod'yem molochnogo zhivotnovodstva. KOMMUNIST TURKMENISTANA, 1956, No.3, pp.29-39. 3,000 words.

The prospects of dairy farming in Turkmenistan.

- Mershin, A.P. Fiziko-khimicheskiye i agroproduktivnyye svoystva tselinnykh chernozemov i temnokashtanovykh pochv Akmolinskoy oblasti. IZVESTIYA TIMIRYAZEVSKOY SEL'SKOKHOZYAYSTVENNOY AKADEMII, 1956, No.1, pp.117-134. 5,000 words.
An examination, with pictures and tables, of the chernozem (black earth) and dark chestnut soils of the Akmolinsk oblast. The conclusion is drawn that these soils were not abandoned or unusued because of their infertility.
- Nagornyy, Yu. M. Organizatsiya kormovykh resursov Betpak-dalinskogo pastbishchnogo kompleksa. VESTNIK AKADEMII NAUK KAZAKHSKOY SSR, 1956, No.4, pp.20-28. 2,500 words.
An examination, with tables, of grasses suitable for cultivation as fodder in the Bet-Pak-Dala.
- Razzakov, I. Za dal'neyshiy pod'yem khlopkovodstva v Kirgizii. KHLOPKOVODSTVO, 1956, No.6, pp.5-10. 1,500 words.
An account by the Kirgiz Party Secretary of the prospects of cotton in Kirgizia.
- Ryzhov, S. and Suchkov, S. Agropochvennoye rayonirovaniye oroshayemykh zemel' Sredney Azii. Idem, pp.35-38. 1,000 words.
A survey, with map, of the irrigated land of Central Asia which the authors divide into four main regions.
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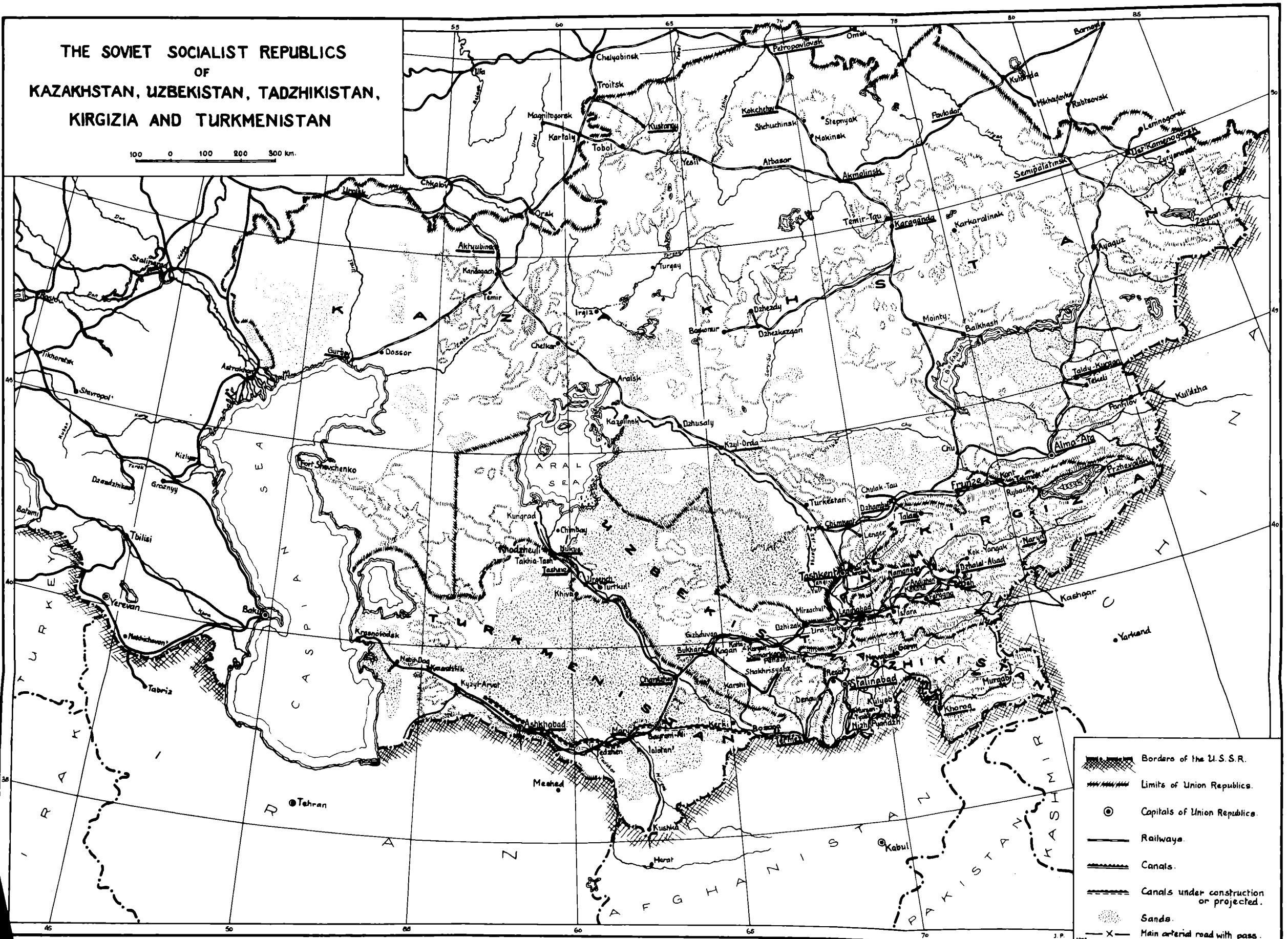
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THE SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS
OF
KAZAKHSTAN, UZBEKISTAN, TADZHIKISTAN,
KIRGIZIA AND TURKMENISTAN

100 0 100 200 300 km.



- Borders of the U.S.S.R.
- Limits of Union Republics.
- Capitals of Union Republics.
- Railways.
- Canals.
- Canals under construction or projected.
- Sands.
- Main arterial road with pass.