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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.

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P O P U L A T I O N

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

TABLES

I Census of 1897

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

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

II Official estimates of 1911 (Aziatskaya Rossiya)

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

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III Official estimates of 1914 (Volkov)

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

IV Total population by political divisions

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

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

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

V 1926 Census

Native population by ethnic groups (narodnost)

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

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

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

VI 1939 Census

Native population by nationality (natsionalnost)

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

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

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

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INDUSTRY

BUILDING IN KAZAKHSTAN

Building materials - New sovkhoses - Urban expansion.

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

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

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

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

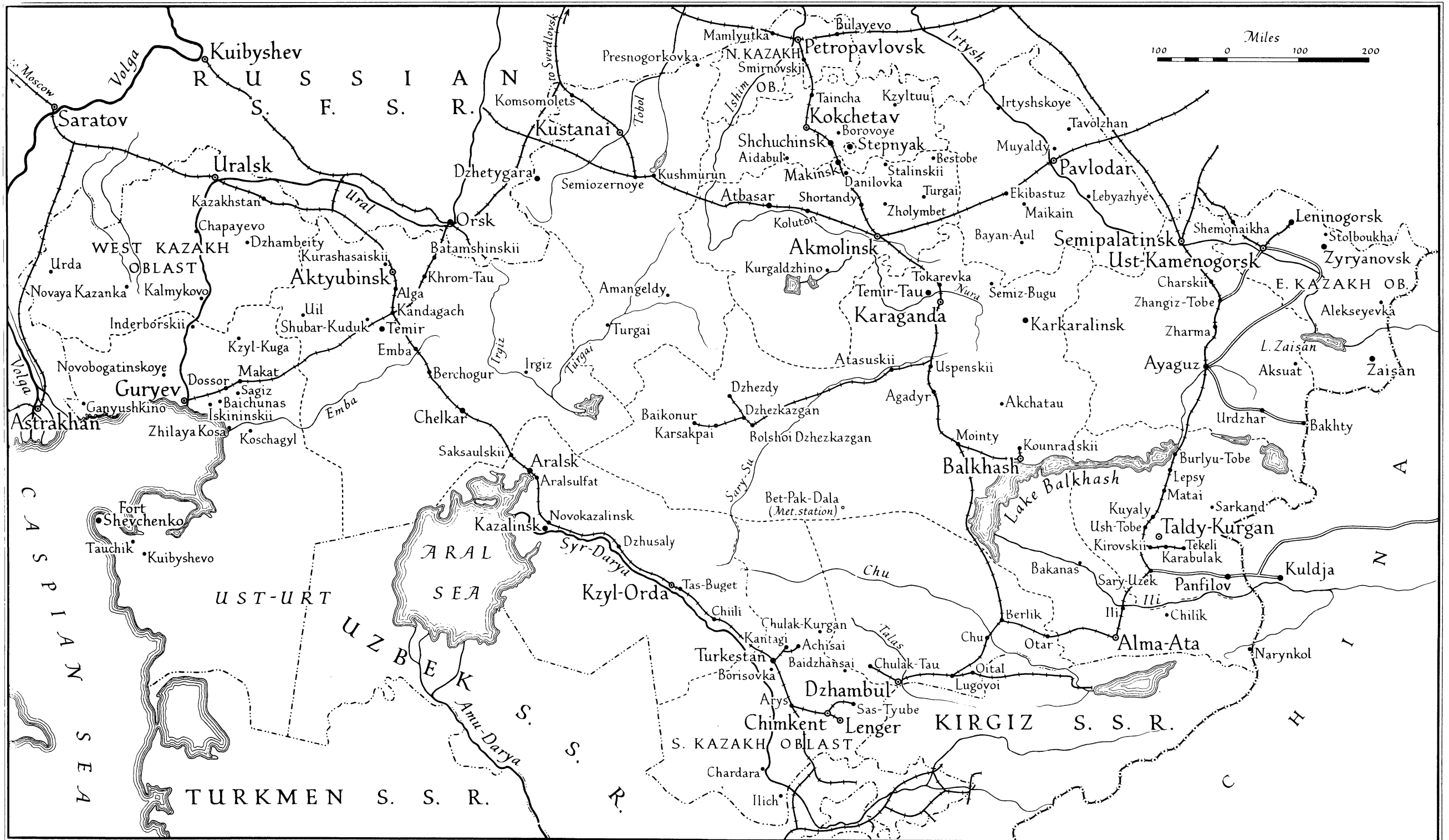
Building stone is plentiful in the Akmolinsk, Kokchetav, Kustanai and some other oblasts, but as quarrying has not yet been mechanized, output is low. Little timber, it seems, is available in the republic and most supplies are imported. A locally made timber substitute is, however, produced in certain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

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

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

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

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Kazakh Ministry of Agriculture.

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

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

Judging from what the newspapers have reported at other times, the Akmolinsk oblast's housing record seems creditable. At 20 of the 27 new sovkhoses inaugurated in 1954, 525 houses with a living space of 45,000 sq. metres were built. At the Izobilnyi sovkhos the programme was more than fulfilled, by 12 per cent. The first street of the settlement consists of 45 standard prefabricated houses, in addition to which 75 small houses, a refectory, a bakery and public baths have been completed. But even so a large part of the sovkhos staff is still without houses. On the other hand at the Zhdanovskii sovkhos in the North-Kazakhstan oblast, where 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. rubles have been spent on building, the whole staff is living in new houses. Workshops and recreational buildings are under construction, and, according to Kazakhstanskaya Pravda of the 25th September 1954, the sovkhos was shortly to be provided with electric light and a wireless station. In the Semipalatinsk oblast the Karl Marx, Lenin, Khrushchev, Kirov, Lenin (Novo-Pokrovskii raion) and many other kolkhozes and MTS in the Irtys valley are building new clubhouses. At the Kalinin kolkhoz a new "House of Culture" was completed towards the end of 1954.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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THE MINERALS OF CENTRAL ASIA

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

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

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

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

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

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

Kazakhstan, according to the reports of Soviet geologists, has larger reserves of chromium ore than "the Union of South Africa, Turkey and the other capitalist countries combined". It is true that the Aktyubinsk deposits have been estimated at 1,700m. tons. There are more than seventy bodies of ore, one of which contains 760,000 tons with a 54 per cent chromium content. The Kempersai deposits, near the villages of Kempersai, Donskoi, and Susanovka, were discovered in 1937. They cover an area of 1,000 sq. kilometres and the thickness of the bodies of ore varies between 0.5 and 10 metres. The ore has a high Al_2O_3 content, and a 15-20 per cent content of F_2O_3 . The chromite mined here is processed at the Aktyubinsk ferrous alloy works, which were built in 1943. Chromite has also been found in the Karaganda, Kustanai, and Semipalatinsk oblasts.

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

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

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

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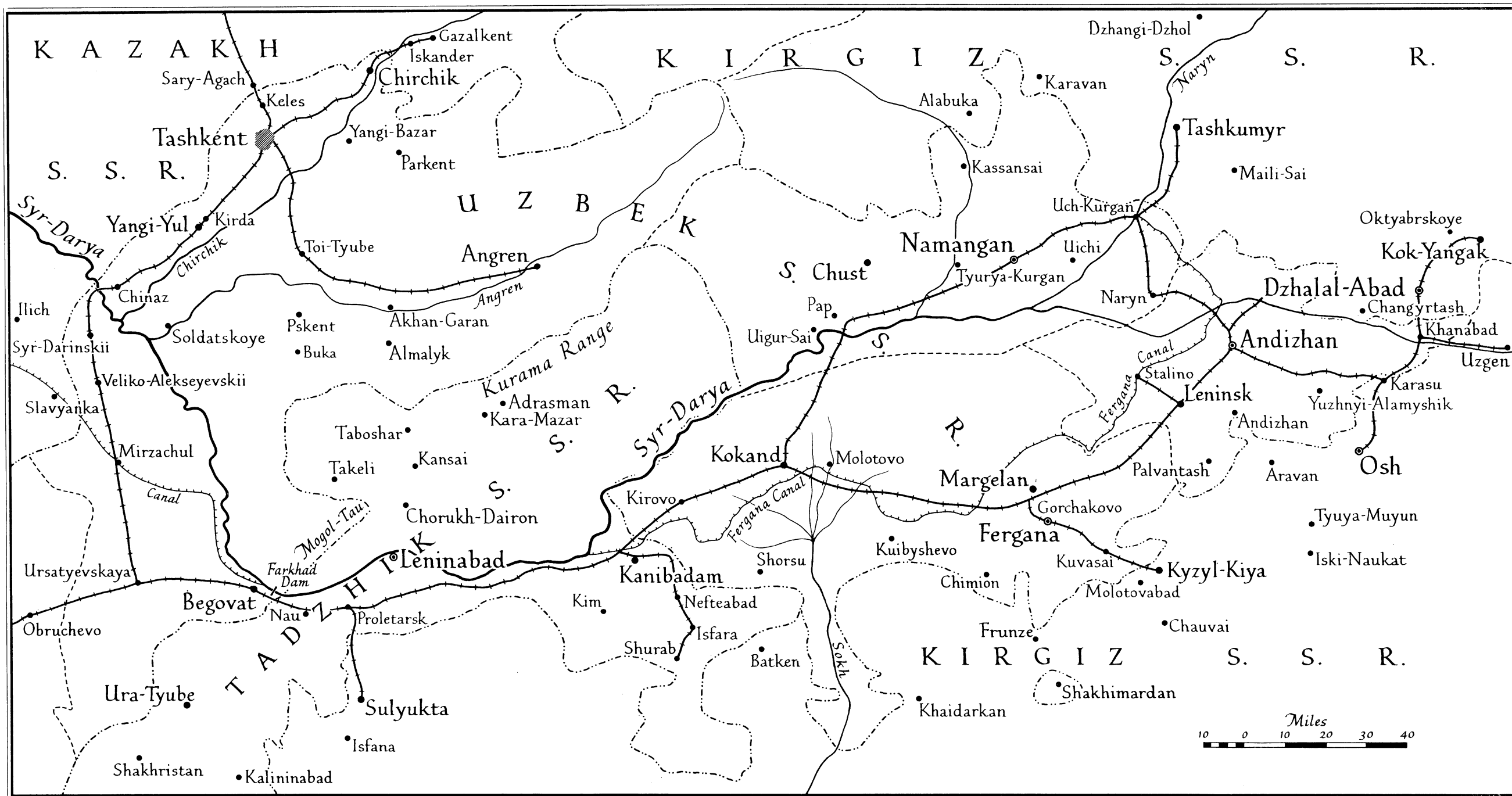
Tin is found, and small placer and lode deposits are being worked in the Naryn mountains (Kalba raion, East-Kazakhstan oblast).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

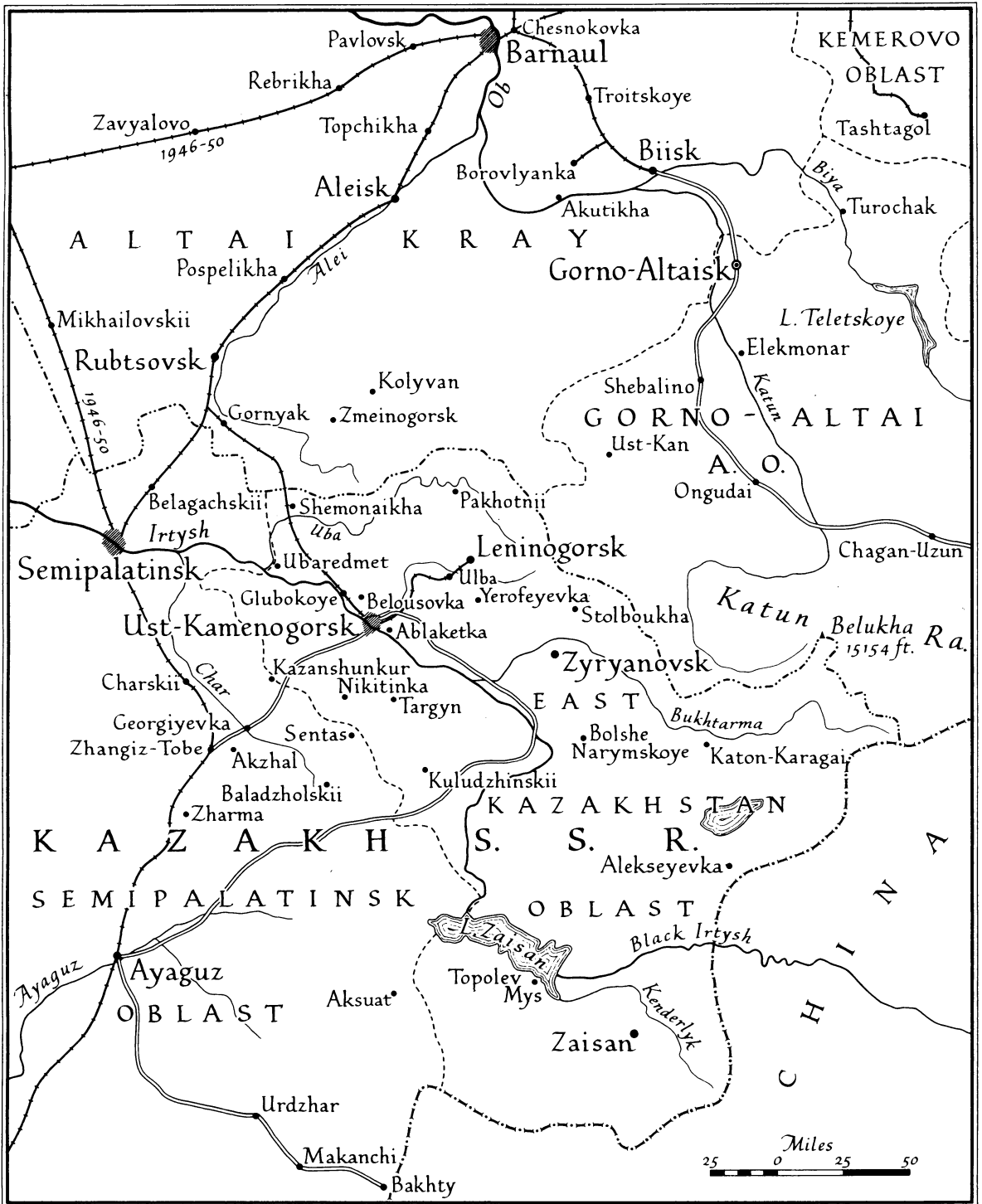
Cadmium is found at Taryskan and Altyn-Topkan in Tadzhikistan. The Zeravshan basin produces many rare minerals, among them arsenic; the main deposits of this are at Brichmulla (South-Kazakhstan oblast), Uch-Imchak and Chalkuiruk. Gold arseno-pyrites are found near Dzhettygara (Kustanai oblast), in the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

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

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

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



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

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

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THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY OF CENTRAL ASIA

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

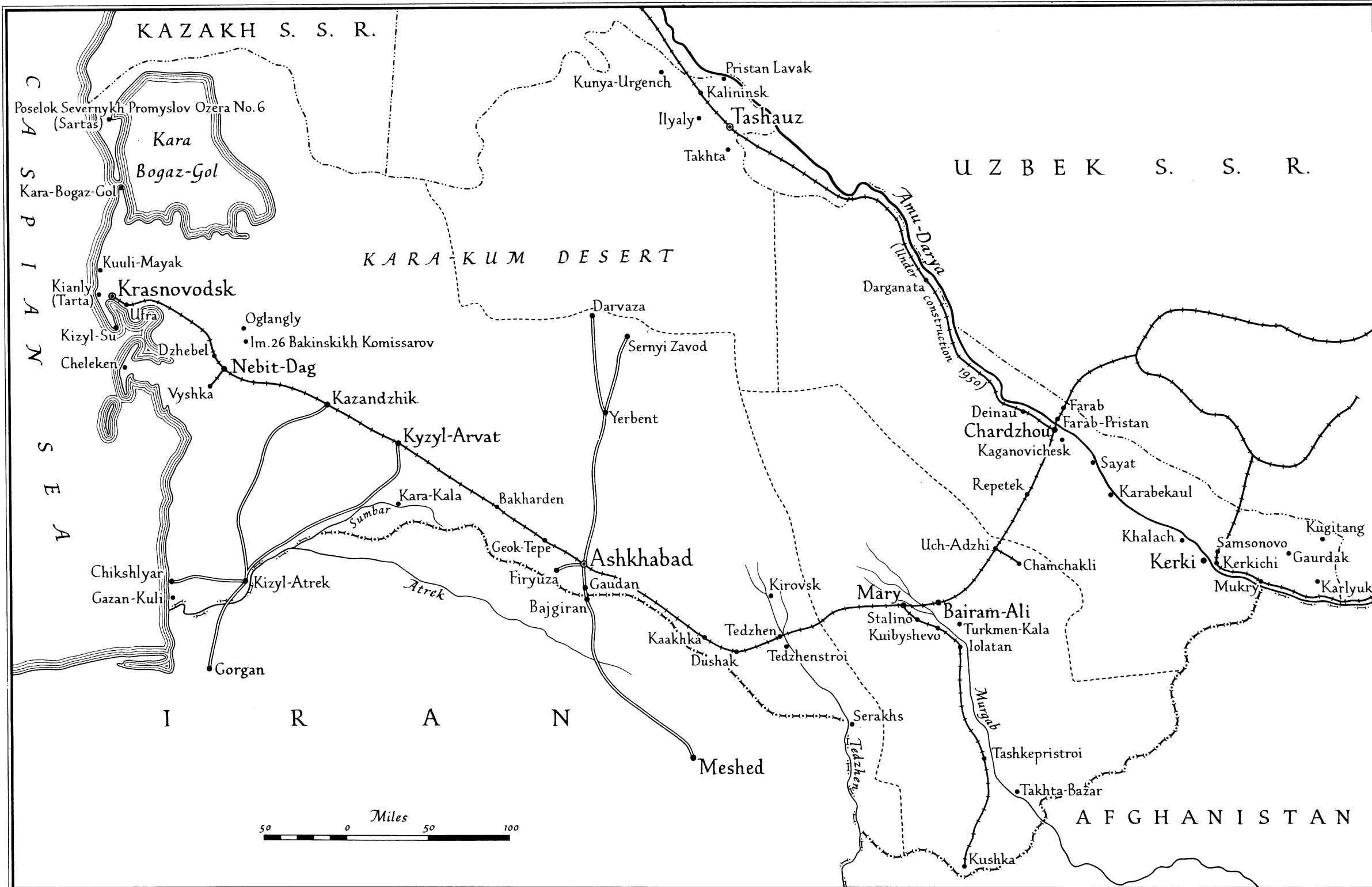
On either side of the Emba oilfields in Kazakhstan lie the largest deposits of potassium, magnesium and boron in Central Asia. The Inder deposits were discovered in 1936 during exploratory drilling for oil; about thirty wells were sunk between 1939 and 1944. The Inder salt lake lies on the southern slope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

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

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

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

TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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A G R I C U L T U R E

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

General background - Tadzhikistan - Uzbekistan - Kirgizia - Turkmenistan.

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

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

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

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

its sheep between 1930 and 1933.

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

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

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

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

mountain raions.

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

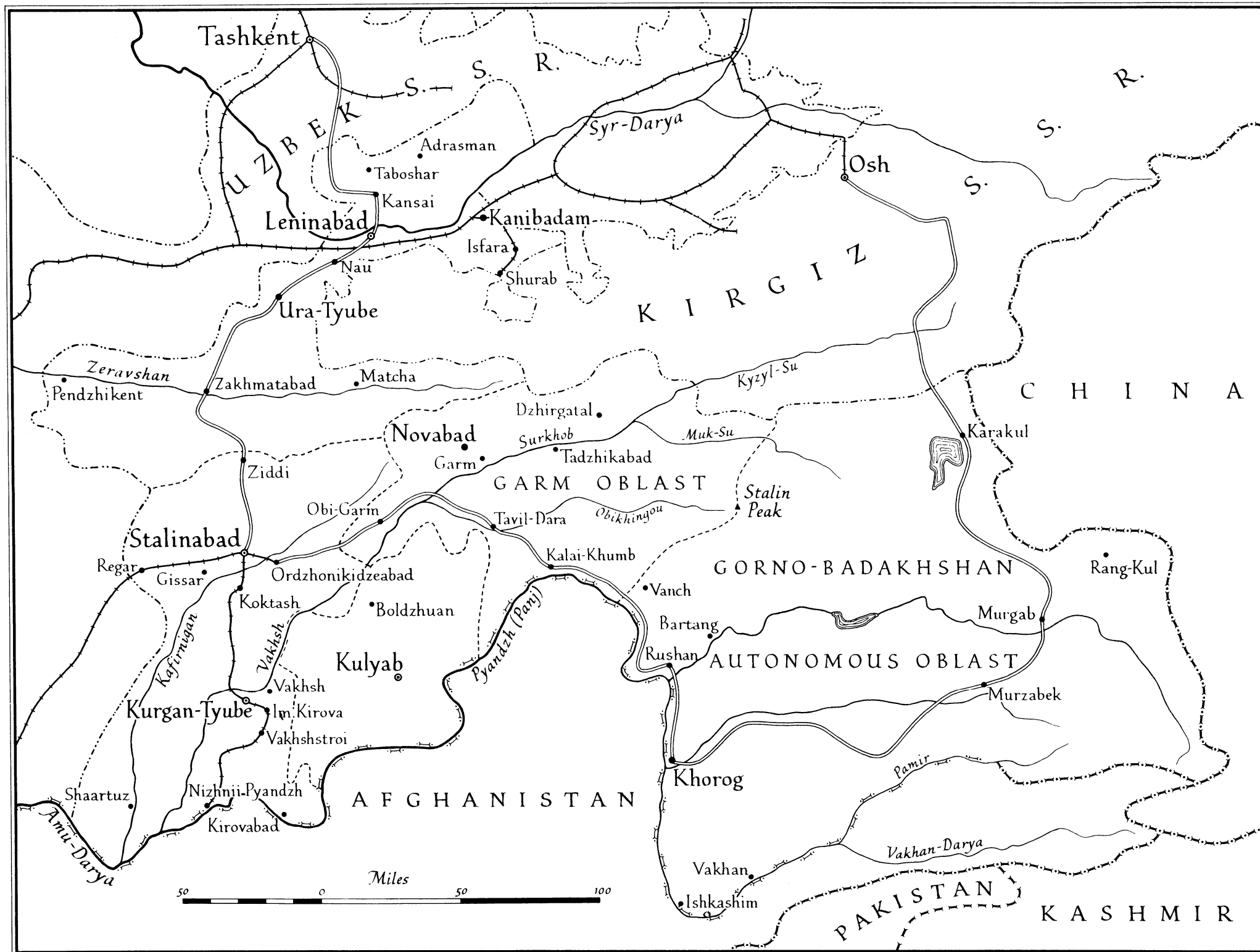
Uzbekistan is one of the leading livestock-breeding areas of the Soviet Union and the main region for the rearing of Karakul sheep, producing about two-thirds of the Karakul of the USSR. This breed was introduced into Central Asia by the Arabs and the name probably derives from the Karakul oasis since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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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a condition which did not aid their growth and development.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Notes

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

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P U B L I C W O R K S

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

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

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

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

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

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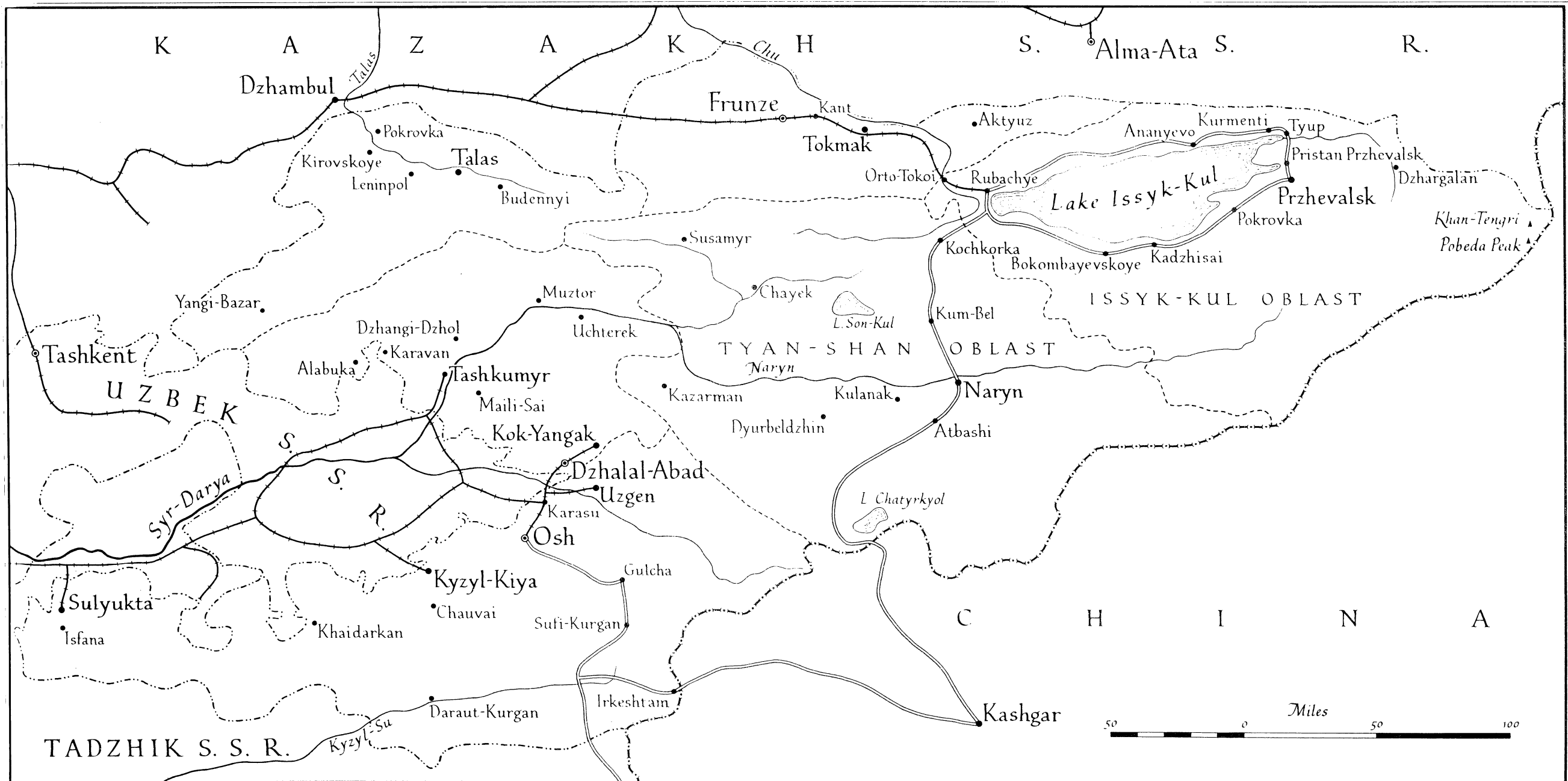
threshing, sorting and cleaning grain, for milking cows, and for sheep-shearing, as well as for lighting.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

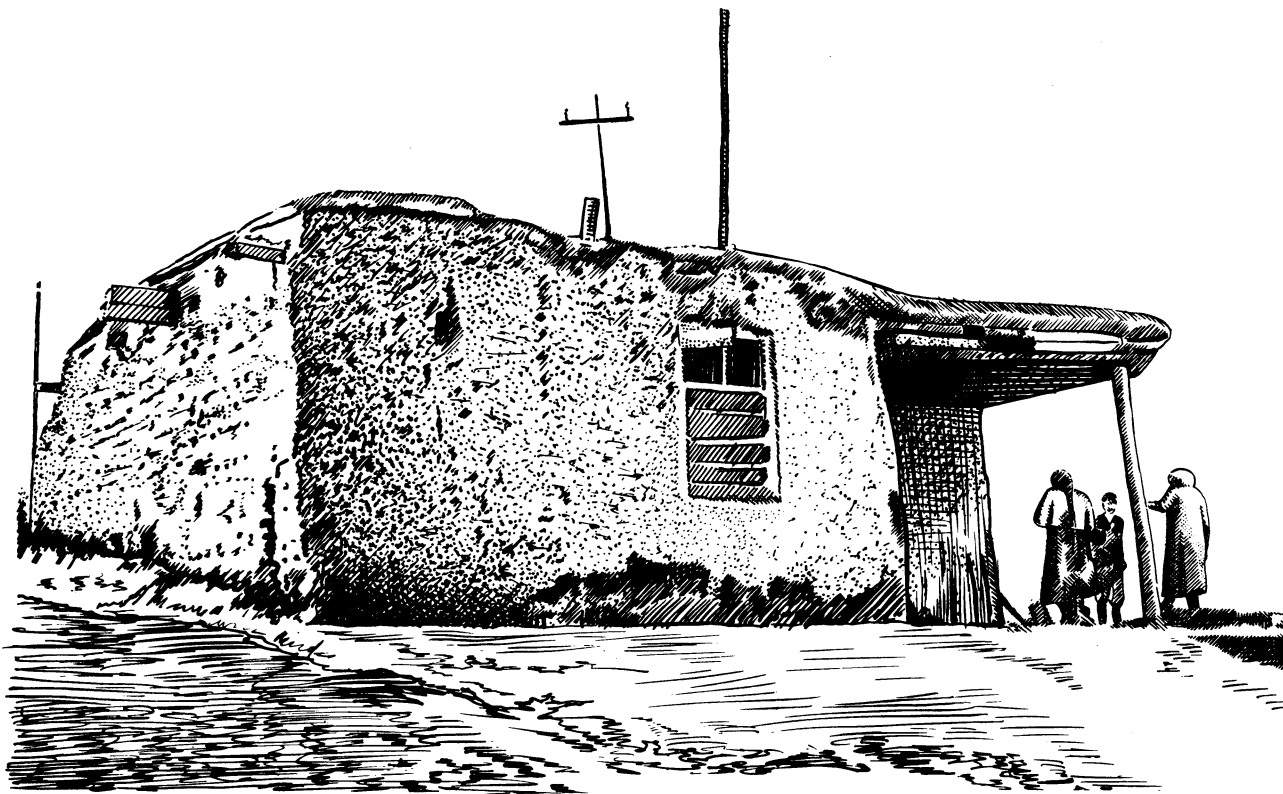
In the blocks (called korpus) belonging to the Trust, there are from four to ten flats of two rooms. Some blocks are built on the corridor system; here the flats have one large room of up to 30 square metres. The newer blocks have two to four flats in each. The builders of private houses receive a loan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

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

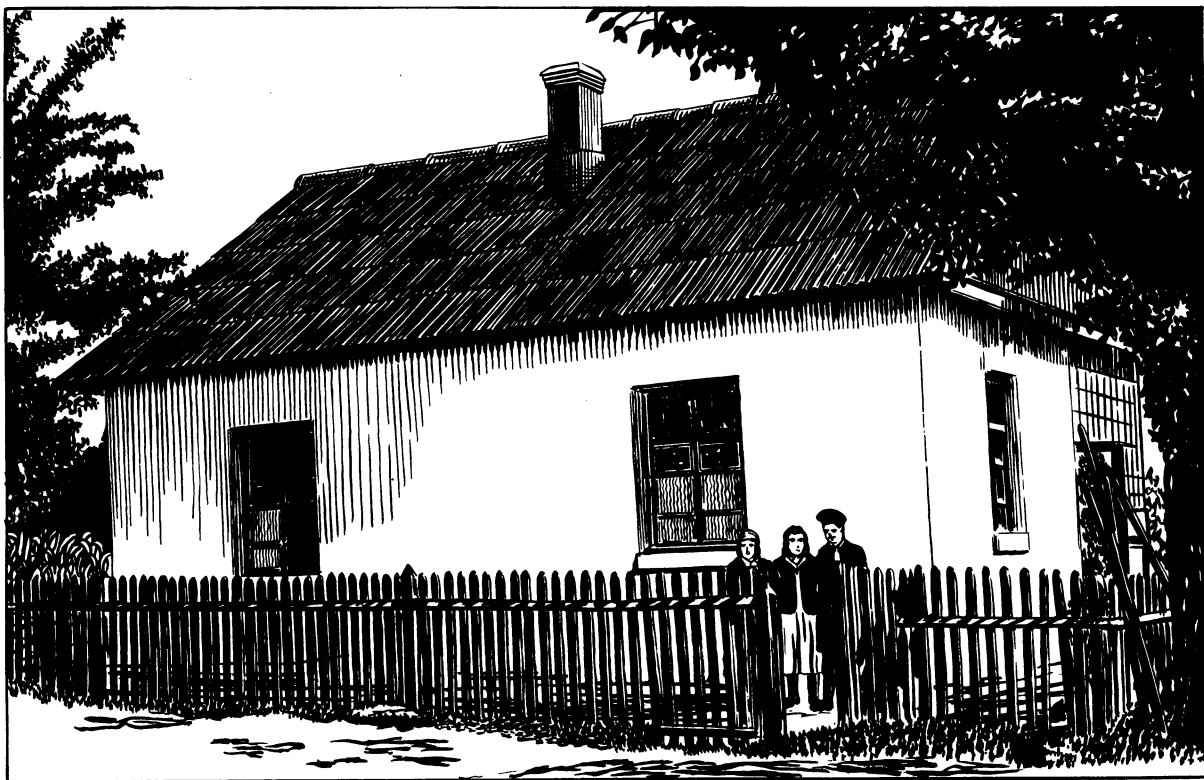
Inside the houses there is invariably the traditional pile of bed linen (dzhük) in a niche in the wall opposite the door. There are blankets - fifteen or more - bolsters (dzhastyk) and pillows (balush), and long narrow bags with embroidery on one side (chavadan). The pillow-cases are particularly elaborately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

MINERS' HOUSES AT KYZYL - KIYA

(Reproduced from Sovetskaya Etnografiya No. 4 of 1954)



1. Old type.



2. New type.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

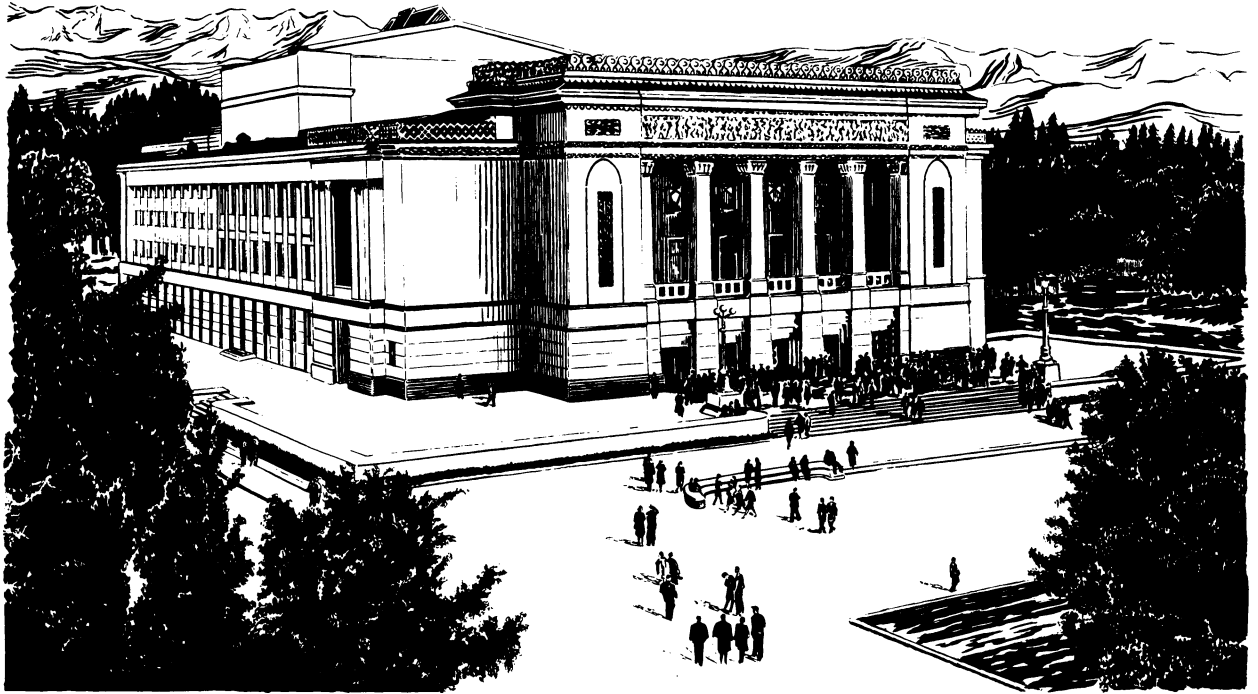
The earliest attempt to establish an amateur theatre on the European model was made in Uzbekistan shortly before the First World War by Mahmud Khodzha Bekbudi who, in 1913, got together a small troupe to perform his play Padarkush (The Parricide). This play was a poor imitation of what was then being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

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

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

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

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



SCENES FROM TADZHIK THEATRICAL PRODUCTIONS.

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



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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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sober state and interrupt the performance.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

T H E C E N T R A L A S I A N W R I T E R S '
C O N G R E S S E S

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

been "intellectual and schematic".

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

enlarge their vocabularies.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Sources

1. Literaturnaya Gazeta.
2. Central Asian press.

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ISLAMIC STUDIES IN RUSSIA

PART III

The following is the concluding part of the analysis of Ocherki Izucheniya Islama v SSSR by N.A. Smirnov, the first and second parts of which appeared in the last two issues of this Review. As before, the analysis is designed to indicate the general scope of the book; it is not in any sense a critical review, and all the opinions expressed are those either of the author or of the writers and others whom he quotes. Owing to lack of space the bibliography cannot be included in the present number, but this will shortly be issued in a separate publication together with the three parts of the analysis.

Chapter IV, continuedIslamic Studies 1918 - 1934The work of Bartold and Krachkovskii

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

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

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

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

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

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

The sects

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Social and economic problems

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

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

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

Summary: 1918 - 1934

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

Chapter V

Islamic Studies 1935 - 1950

1935 - 1939

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

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

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

the Arab caliphs.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Central Asian Islamic studies

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

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

become a religion of the people.

Recent publications

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

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

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

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

. . .

The book concludes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Agriculture

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

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

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

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

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

- Ryzhov, S. Puti povysheniya plodorodiya oroshayemykh zemel Srednei Azii. Khlopkovodstvo, 1954. No.12, p.32-40. 2,200 words. (An extensive study of the fertility of the soils of Central Asia with special reference to the cotton-growing lands. The article includes seven tables showing:
1. The content of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in the irrigated soils of Central Asia.
 2. The quantity of microorganisms in the various cultivated soils of Central Asia.
 3. The increase of the carbon, nitrogen and phosphoric acid content of the soils under cultivation.
 4. The influence of lucerne on the content of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in the soils.
 5. Gross harvest of cotton in a nine-field crop rotation system in the years 1941-1953.
 6. Gross harvest of cotton in a six-field crop rotation system in the years 1941-1953.
 7. A comparison of the gross harvest of cotton during a long period of observation of land permanently under cotton and land sown with cotton in rotation with other crops.
- Rzhevskii, G. Blizhaishiye perspektivy kvadratnogo-gnezdovogo sposoba poseva khlopchatnika v Uzbekistane. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.13-20. 2,500 words. (Concerned with the square-cluster method of planting cotton in Uzbekistan.)
- Trutnev, A.G. Obrabotka tselimnykh i zaleznykh zemel. Selkhozgiz, 1954. (The book is devoted to the new lands of the non-black earth belt. Their various features and system of cultivation are described in detail.)
- Turdyev, K. Peredovye sposoby vzdelyvaniya khlopchatnika v kolkhoze imeni Malenkova. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.1, p.8-12. 3,000 words. (A description of the methods of cultivating cotton in the Malenkov kolkhoz of the Kurgan-Tyube raion, Tadzhikistan.)
- Voronin, Yu. & Redkin, V. Nash opyt kvadratnogo-gnezdovogo sposoba vzdelyvaniya khlopchatnika. Khlopkovodstvo, 1955. No.2, p.8-12. 2,000 words.

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

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

Archaeology

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

Communications

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

Cultural Affairs

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

Ethnography

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

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

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

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

Geology

Badalov, S.T. Novye dannye o gidrotermalnom angidrite iz Srednei Azii. Izvestiya Akademii Nauk: Seriya Geologicheskaya, 1955. No.1, p.114-117. 1,500 words.

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

Belskaya, T.N. K paleogeografii Ferganskoi depressii v kontse paleogena. Izvestiya Akademii Nauk, 1954. No.6, p.61-73. 3,000 words.

(An extensive study of the palaeogene system in the Fergana syncline. The article is annotated and includes maps and diagrams.)

Gladkovskii, A.K. & Gutkin, E.S. Izvershennye porody tsentralnoi chasti Turgaiskoi ravniny. Izvestiya Akademii Nauk: Seriya Geologicheskaya, 1955. No.1, p.105-113. 3,500 words.

(A detailed account of the recent researches into igneous rock in the middle sector of the Turgai plain.)

Mikhailov, N.P. Chu-Balkhashskii i ultrabazitovyi poyas. Izvestiya Akademii Nauk: Seriya Geologicheskaya, 1955. No.1, p.93-104. 4,000 words.

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Literature

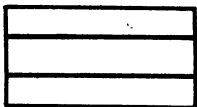
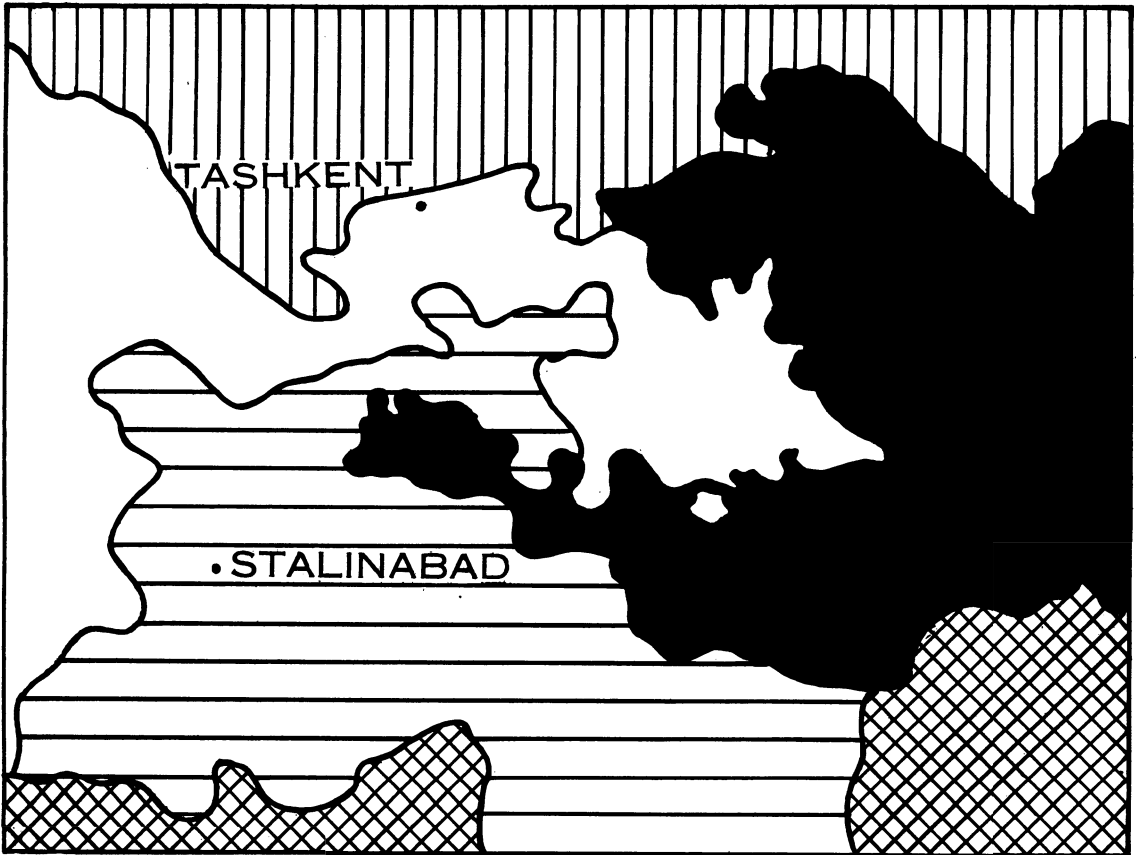
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INTER-REPUBLICAN FRONTIERS

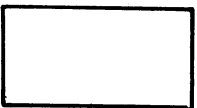
Sketch-map showing the inter-republican frontiers of Uzbekistan, Tadjikistan and Kirgizia, and the interlacing of their territories in the neighbourhood of the Fergana Valley region.



TADZHIKISTAN



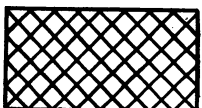
KAZAKHSTAN



UZBEKISTAN



KIRGIZIA



FOREIGN TERRITORY Afghanistan & China



The above map shows the area covered by CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW in relation to the rest of the U.S.S.R. The total extent of the area is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ million sq. miles. According to the latest available figures the total population is about $16\frac{1}{2}$ millions of whom about 11 millions are indigenous and the remainder settlers from other parts of the USSR.

The total area of the rest of what is generally regarded as Soviet Asia i.e. the Urals Region, Eastern and Western Siberia and the Soviet Far East, is approximately 8 million sq. miles and the population about 37 millions of whom approximately 27 millions are estimated to be indigenous. Thus, whilst Central Asia and Kazakhstan together occupy less than one fifth of the total area of Soviet Asia, their indigenous population amounts to nearly two thirds of the total indigenous population of the whole of Soviet Asia.