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TRANSFORMATION OF THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM IN NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE 1920s

Abstract

This article examines the complex process of systemic transformation of public education in national educational institutions in the 1920s, based on a wide range of new archival sources. The author analyses the historical dynamics of the transition from fragmented educational initiatives to a centralised institutional model, which took place in conditions of profound socio-economic instability and a radical breakdown of the traditional Kazakh aul way of life.

Unique materials from the Archives of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the historical archives of the Omsk Region, in particular the Kupinsky District archives, the state archives of the Saratov Region and the Orenburg Region, are being introduced into scientific circulation, allowing for a detailed examination of the key challenges of the period under consideration: critical staff shortages, weak material and technical base of educational institutions, and the search for adequate methodological approaches. Particular attention is paid to the theoretical and practical role of the national intelligentsia, in particular the activities of A. Baitursynov, in adapting educational programmes and creating the first generation of textbooks in the Kazakh language, which became the foundation for a qualitative transformation of the system.

The article examines in detail the factor of «professionalism and conscientiousness»: using the example of the activities of teachers-liquidators, it shows how the personal social responsibility of teachers became a decisive resource for the implementation of reforms in the absence of budgetary funding. The author concludes that the transformation of the education system in the 1920s was irreversible, becoming not only an effective tool for eliminating illiteracy, but also a key mechanism for forming a new professional identity and ensuring social mobility among the population. Studying this experience allows us to rethink the mechanisms of state educational policy during periods of systemic crises and transformations.

Key words: transformation, education system, national educational institutions, personnel policy, enlightenment, elimination of illiteracy, population, liquidator, teacher, instructor.

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ТРАНСФОРМАЦИЯ СИСТЕМЫ НАРОДНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В НАЦИОНАЛЬНЫХ УЧЕБНЫХ ЗАВЕДЕНИЯХ В 1920-х ГОДАХ

Аннотация

В данной статье на основе широкого круга новых архивных источников исследуется комплексный процесс системной трансформации народного образования в национальных учебных заведениях в 1920-е годы. Автор анализирует историческую динамику перехода от фрагментарных образовательных инициатив к централизованной институциональной модели, происходившую в условиях глубокой социально-экономической нестабильности и коренной ломки традиционного уклада казахского аула.

В научный оборот вводятся уникальные материалы Архива Президента Республики Казахстан, исторического архива Омской области, в частности фондов Купинского района, государственного архива Саратовской области и Оренбургской области позволяющие детализировать ключевые вызовы рассматриваемого периода: критический кадровый дефицит, слабую материально-техническую базу учебных заведений и поиск адекватных времени методических подходов. Особое внимание в работе уделено теоретической и практической роли национальной интеллигенции, в частности деятельности А. Байтұрсынова, в вопросах адаптации учебных программ и создания первой генерации учебников на казахском языке, что стало фундаментом для качественной трансформации системы.

В статье подробно рассматривается фактор «профессиональной и сознательности»: на примерах деятельности учителей-ликвидаторов показано, как личная социальная ответственность педагогов становилась решающим ресурсом реализации реформ в условиях отсутствия бюджетного финансирования. Автор приходит к выводу, что трансформация системы образования в 1920-х годах носила необратимый характер, став не только эффективным инструментом ликвидации неграмотности, но и ключевым механизмом формирования новой профессиональной идентичности и обеспечения социальной мобильности населения. Изучение данного опыта позволяет переосмыслить механизмы государственной образовательной политики в периоды системных кризисов и трансформаций.

Ключевые слова: трансформация, система образования, национальные учебные заведения, кадровая политика, просвещение, ликвидация неграмотности, население, ликвидатор, педагог, инструктор.

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1920 ЖЫЛДАРДАҒЫ ҰЛТТЫҚ ОҚУ ОРЫНДАРЫНДАҒЫ ХАЛЫҚТЫҚ БІЛІМ БЕРУ ЖҮЙЕСІНІҢ ТРАНСФОРМАЦИЯСЫ

Аңдатпа

Бұл мақалада жаңа мұрағат көздерінің кең ауқымы негізінде 1920 жылдардағы ұлттық оқу орындарында халықтық білім беруді жүйелі түрде трансформациялаудың кешенді процесі зерттеледі. Автор терең әлеуметтік-экономикалық тұрақсыздық және қазақ ауылының дәстүрлі құрылымының түбегейлі дағдарыс жағдайында орын алған фрагменттелген білім беру бастамаларынан орталықтандырылған институционалдық модельге көшудің тарихи динамикасын талдайды. Ғылыми айналымға Қазақстан Республикасы Президенті архивінің, Омбы облысының тарихи архивінің, атап айтқанда Купин ауданының қорларының, Саратов облысы мен Орынбор облысының мемлекеттік архивінің қарастырылып отырған кезеңнің түйінді сынтетеуріндерін: кадр тапшылығын, оқу орындарының әлсіз материалдық-техникалық базасын және сол уақытты әдістемелік тәсілдерді іздестіруге мүмкіндік беретін бірегей материалдары енгізіледі. Жұмыста ұлттық зиялы қауымның теориялық және практикалық рөліне, атап айтқанда А. Байтұрсыновтың, оқу бағдарламаларын бейімдеу және қазақ тіліндегі оқулықтардың алғашқы буынын құру мәселелерінде, бұл жүйені сапалы трансформациялаудың негізі болды. Мақалада «кәсіби және сана» факторы егжей-тегжейлі қарастырылады: сауатсыздықты жоюшы мұғалімдердің іс-әрекетінің мысалдарында мұғалімдердің жеке әлеуметтік жауапкершілігі бюджеттік қаржыландырудың болмауы жағдайында реформаларды жүзеге асырудың шешуші ресурсына айналғаны көрсетілген. Автор 1920 жылдардағы білім беру жүйесінің трансформациясы қайтымсыз сипатта болды, бұл сауатсыздықты жоюдың тиімді құралы ғана емес, сонымен қатар жаңа кәсіби сәйкестікті қалыптастырудың және халықтың әлеуметтік ұтқырлығын қамтамасыз етудің негізгі тетігі болды деген қорытындыға келді. Бұл тәжірибені зерделеу жүйелік дағдарыстар мен трансформациялар кезеңдеріндегі мемлекеттік білім беру саясатының тетіктерін қайта қарастыруға мүмкіндік береді.

Кілт сөздер: трансформация, білім беру жүйесі, ұлттық оқу орындары, кадрлық саясат, ағарту ісі, сауатсыздықты жою, халық, сауатсыздықты жоюшылар, педагог, нұсқаушы.

Introduction. The study of the processes of systemic transformation of public education in the 1920s is one of the most significant and conceptually complex tasks of contemporary historical science in Kazakhstan. During this period, a fundamental transition took place from traditional educational institutions to a centralised model of national education, which required a radical overhaul of social structures that had developed over centuries and adaptation to new administrative realities. The relevance of the study is due to the need for an objective rethinking of the historical experience of modernising the Kazakh aul, which took place in conditions of acute economic crisis, resource shortages and a shortage of personnel.

Scientific interest in this issue is dictated by the fact that it was in the 1920s that the foundations of the modern educational infrastructure were laid and a new professional identity of teaching staff was formed. An analysis of the mechanisms for overcoming systemic barriers to mass literacy provides a deeper understanding of the role of the national intelligentsia in preserving the intellectual potential of the people. Moreover, studying the regional experience of national educational institutions operating in conditions of territorial remoteness from centres of administration makes it possible to assess the real

effectiveness of state policy at the local level. In the current context, as Kazakhstan goes through its own stages of educational reform, looking back at the historical lessons of institutional transformation in the 1920s takes on special practical significance, allowing us to identify consistent patterns in the development of national schools during periods of large-scale social change.

Materials and methods. The methodological basis of the article is the principle of historicism, which involves studying educational processes in close connection with the specific historical situation of the 1920s. This approach made it possible to consider the transformation of the education system as a dynamic process determined by the socio-economic and political factors of the transition period.

The source base of the study consisted of a set of unpublished documents from state archives. The main body of factual data was extracted from the Historical Archive of the Omsk Region and the State Archive of the Saratov Region. Of particular importance for the study were materials from the Omsk Provincial Department of Public Education and documents from the Kupinsky District Executive Committee. The minutes of the meetings of the volost executive committees, reports of public education inspectors, and information on the state of national schools were introduced into scientific circulation, which made it possible to verify the official statistics. The following methods were used to process the collected data: the historical-genetic method was used to identify the origins and stages of the formation of the national school network. Comparative-historical method – used to compare the pace and quality of educational transformation. Microhistorical analysis – allowed us to reconstruct the real picture of the reform of the education system "on the ground" based on the everyday practices of individual teachers and the activities of specific educational institutions. Content analysis of archival documents – used in the study of reporting documentation to classify the personnel, material, and methodological difficulties faced by schools during the period under review. The combination of these methods and reliance on primary archival sources ensured the reliability of the conclusions and allowed for a comprehensive approach to the study of the problem.

Results. The socio-economic decline of the 1920s led the education system into a state of deep crisis. An acute shortage of qualified specialists forced the country's leadership to review its educational policy. The new programme was based on three key vectors: combating adult illiteracy, expanding the network of educational institutions, and mass teacher training. To achieve these goals, specialised departments were created in the republic to implement the planned reforms. In the first half of the 1920s, the shortage of qualified teachers remained one of the main obstacles to the development of the education system. The search for ways to solve this problem was conducted at the highest party and state levels. In particular, in 1920, at a meeting of the Presidium of the Central Bureau of Communists of the East, strategies for forming a teaching corps were discussed. During the discussion, special attention was paid to the issue of temporarily involving representatives of the Muslim clergy, mullahs, in teaching activities in national schools as a necessary measure in conditions of staff shortages. The term "Muslim" schools referred to secular educational institutions attended by representatives of the peoples of the Volga region, Central Asia and the North Caucasus. The chairman of the Communist Organisation of the Peoples of the East, Said-Galiyev, noted the following: «Taking into account that the Central Bureau's political activities cover not only the Muslim-populated areas of inner Soviet Russia, but also the outlying regions such as Kyrgyzstan, Turkestan and others, it considered the differences between these areas in terms of the depth of religious fanaticism and the availability of teaching staff. The Central Bureau of the Communist Organisation of the Peoples of the East is postponing a fundamental resolution of this issue until the convening of the RCP congress and the conference of the Communist Organisation of the Peoples of the East, in order to comprehensively address this issue by first gathering all relevant materials» [15, p.3].

Thus, Said-Galiyev reasonably took into account the need for in-depth analytical work in all regions of the state, taking into account the national characteristics of each region. At that time, Said-Galiyev, on behalf of the Central Bureau, considered it unacceptable to employ persons of spiritual

rank to teach in Soviet schools, but due to extreme circumstances, i.e. the actual shortage of teaching staff, the members of the Presidium of the Soviet Bureau, taking into account the large number of requests and complaints, introduced the following wording: «...to allow the temporary appointment of former clergy to teaching positions, as well as clergy who agree to renounce their status at this time. This admission must be guaranteed by the Muslim sections of the local departments of the People's Commissariat for Education and the party organisations, which are responsible for further monitoring the activities of persons of former clerical rank admitted to this position» [15, p.4]. The integration of representatives of the former Muslim clergy into the Soviet education system was accompanied by the establishment of multi-level control by state and party institutions. This practice confirmed the continuity of the policy of forming a teaching corps in accordance with the criteria of ideological reliability. During the civil war and the subsequent period, a rigid vertical management structure with strictly established standards was formed. Young people interested in a career in the party or civil service were required to join public and party organisations of a Bolshevik ideological orientation, with the mandatory rule of further education in Soviet educational institutions. This created a practice of training young personnel in the ideological and educational spheres.

The traditional areas of residence of the Kazakh population were the territories of the Urals-Volga region and Siberia. During the period under study, cities such as Omsk, Orenburg, Saratov and Astrakhan served as important educational centres that attracted Kazakh youth regardless of existing administrative and territorial boundaries. The presence of a developed educational infrastructure in these cities made them key centres for the dissemination of educational ideas and the formation of a national teaching corps. In particular, in 1921, a significant number of representatives of Turkic peoples, including Kazakhs, lived in the Saratov province. Periodically, work was carried out at the level of the highest administrative bodies to attract young people to the youth ideological organisation of the RKSM. The rationale for these procedures was to mobilise young personnel to counter counter-revolutionary forces and work in the socio-economic sphere. In particular, at the January 1921 meeting of the Saratov Provincial Committee of the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks, the chairman of the meeting, Abdrakhmanov, noted the following in T. Yakhina's report, «The Tasks and Goals of Youth», the co-rapporteur emphasised the need to be organised not only in the fight against counterrevolution, but also on the economic front to raise agriculture. It is necessary for us young people to be in political unions and communist societies, thereby showing the counterrevolution that a young generation is growing up that will achieve its goal. On this day, the following people joined the Komsomol: 1. Abdrakhmanov Kamali. 2. Kalyukov Batyrgali. 3. Abdrakhmanova Sabira. 4. Abdrakhmanova Lyatyfa. 5. Agisheva Lyatyfa. 6. Alimbekov Safuk. 7. Kaul Kadir. 8. Bayazitov Ismail. 9. Vagapov Abdul. 10. Urzaev. 11. Bushayev Sharip. 12. Abdrakhmanov Gaineddin. 13. Abushaev Mustafa. 14. Islyamov Kasyan [16, p.55].

The entry into the ranks of the RKSM of such activists as K. Abdrakhmanov, B. Kalyukov and others symbolised the willingness of part of the national youth to integrate into new socio-economic processes. The process of implementing large-scale modernisation tasks in the economic and political sectors came into conflict with the objective reality – the low level of education of the majority of the population. To understand the real educational potential in the areas inhabited by the Kazakh population, it is necessary to refer to the statistical data of the primary administrative units. A representative indicator of the personnel and educational deficit in the period under review is the statistical data on the Arylovsky village council of the Kupinsky district of Western Siberia, extracted from archival materials from 1921.

Table 1. Data on the number of citizens and school-age children in the Arylovsky village council of the Kupinsky district in 1921

№	Name of the village	Number of households	Population		School age from 7 to 16 years	Number of literate people	
			Male	Female		Russian	Kazakh/Irish
1	Aryn	26	72	57	24	4	20
2	Raskul	44	117	137	47	3	15
3	Poskot	18	40	30	12	-	1
4	Tleb	8	18	21	10	-	1
5	Zhuratov	10	17	20	9	-	-
6	Zholkobaev	13	30	31	16	1	2
7	Kusain	10	20	20	20	1	1
Total		129	314	316	138	9	40
Total: 630 people [17, p.7]							

According to experts' estimates, in 1921 there were 7 auls in the Kupinsky District as part of the Arylovsky Rural Council, with a total of 129 households. The population was 630 people, of whom 138 were school-age children between the ages of 7 and 16. According to the document, the number of literate people was: Russians - 9, Kyrgyz - 40. Unfortunately, the author did not emphasise the specifics of the terms Russian and Kazakh/Kyrgyz, but in any case, the total number of educated people was 49. Thus, a significant number of students did not have basic literacy skills.

A similar situation was observed in other settlements in the district. In another village council, there were five auls: Bisembinov, Musobaev, Karatirek, Mapabaev, and Bokpasar, with a total population of 507 people living in 113 households. The number of students aged 7 to 16 in these settlements reached 95. At the same time, according to the records, the total number of literate people was only 45 (12 people knew Russian and 33 knew Kyrgyz). A comparison of these data shows that the level of education here was also extremely low: even if we assume that all literate residents were adults, a significant part of the younger generation remained outside the education system. This confirms the problem common to the Kupinsky district of an acute shortage of teaching staff and educational institutions in the early 1920s. Chairman Takutov, who drafted the relevant document, noted the following in a footnote: "Considering the economic situation in 1916 and at present, the economic situation has deteriorated by 75%" [17, p.8].

Thus, an administrator of this level recognised the decline and the economic crisis, which greatly affected the state of the auls. Instructors from the Kazakh-Tatar bureau did a great deal of work. After each business trip, the instructors submitted a detailed report accompanied by numerical indicators. In particular, an instructor (surname illegible) visited the Omsk district in December 1923 to work with the Kazakh population. He visited the Kyrgyz-Pokrovskaya volost, which consisted of eight auls with a total population of 3,614 people. According to him, only two schools were officially operating. As a result of his personal intervention, these schools resumed their work. Three additional schools were placed under state support. Evening courses for adults began to operate at the relevant schools. Talks were held in four auls, attended by 300 male listeners; women did not come to the interviews. The instructor organised a cell of the Russian Communist Youth Union (hereinafter referred to as the RKYU) consisting of 12 people in aul No. 8. With his assistance, reading rooms began to operate. The population itself subscribed to a certain number of newspapers and magazines in the Kazakh language. Subsequently, the instructor visited the Omsk Kazakh volost, which had 11 auls. According to him, the schools were in a deplorable state. As a result of the work carried out, five schools began to function, and evening courses for adults to eliminate technical illiteracy were launched. According to the report, 500 people attended the talks in eight auls [18, p.2]. The conscientious instructor carried out similar work in a number of other settlements, which was accompanied by numerical reports. In

his report, the instructor criticised his predecessor, who had not performed his work conscientiously. The instructor recorded complaints from the Kazakh population. The complaints contained criticism of the activities of the administrative and party bodies. It is very difficult to verify the instructor's report, but the fact of his interaction with the local population characterises the inefficiency of the local administrative and party bodies.

During one of his trips in December 1923, an inspector surveying the condition of schools in the Slavgorod district noted the following: «There were no teachers. There were no orders or programmes from the UONO and Gubono, even some teachers were engaged in their own practices, the economic situation of the Kyrgyz was very poor, so the children went barefoot and naked, and therefore could not attend school regularly» [18, p.4]. In 1924, a Kazakh inspector visited the Kupinsky district. The Kupinsky district had 44 village councils, three of which were Kazakh. According to him, the relevant settlements were in a depressing economic condition. The majority of the population were poor people who worked as farm labourers. The inspector described the economic situation of the population as follows: «The economic situation of the Kyrgyz, if we take the average figure, has deteriorated by 75%. Those who had 100 head of cattle before the war now have 25 or less. Those who had 20-25 head now have one cow and one horse. The mood of the population is satisfactory, but at meetings they complain about the wrongful actions of local officials» [17, p.9]. The report reveals certain contradictions, which the source camouflaged with the term "mood is satisfactory. The figures presented clearly show the economic deterioration of the population, including the Kazakh population. Thus, the critical remarks of farmers about local officials can in fact be interpreted as a factor of discontent among the population with the actions of the Soviet government in the agricultural sector. The opinion of the Kazakh population is largely consistent with a document entitled «Treatment of the Kyrgyz population by local worker», which states the following: «There is discontent among the Romani population, who say: 'We do not know in advance what taxes will be levied or whether they are being distributed correctly, as we have a very poor command of the Russian language. Why is there no interpreter for us in the district executive committee? Recently, a tax of 14,000 roubles was levied for the local budget. The Kyrgyz were taxed. In connection with this tax, the Kyrgyz are worried, and three village councils paid 35,500 roubles, while the remaining 41 Russian village councils had to pay very little» [17, p.9 ob.]. There were 44 village councils in the Kupinsky district, three of which were Kazakh. Thus, the critical economic situation persisted in the first half of the 1920s. Dissatisfied with the actions of the authorities, the population demonstrated its critical mood. In 1924, on the initiative of the administration, an analysis of the economic situation of the Tatar and Kazakh populations of the volosts of the Omsk province was carried out [17, p.12]. The results of the survey were disappointing, in particular confirming the conclusion that there was a lack of specialists in the fields of agriculture, education and engineering. The analysis demonstrated a lack of relevant literature in the national languages. The population had very vague information about the current political regime and the constitutional structure.

In October 1924, an instructor from the Tatar-Kazakh bureau who visited the Slavgorod district noted that more than 8,000 Tatar-Kazakh people lived in this district, of whom 8,499 were Kazakhs. The Kazakhs lived in the following settlements: in the Klyuchevsky district – 262 people, in the Chernokurilsky district – 1,688, in the Karasuk district – 233, in the Novo-Alekseevsky district – 3,160, in the Khabarovsk district – 43, in the Slavgorodsky district – 1,303, in Blagoveshchensky – 729, in Rodionovsky – 88, in Volchikhovsky – 33, in the city of Slavgorod – no data available. The majority of the Kazakh population was concentrated in three districts: Novo-Alekseevsky, Chernokurilsky and Slavgorodsky. In areas such as Volchikhinsky and Khabarovsk, their presence was minimal, which indicates the scattered nature of settlements in these places. The instructor visited the Klyuchevsky district of the Slavgorodsky uyezd. Officially, the local representative Murtazin was responsible for eliminating illiteracy. He carried out the work entrusted to him in a careful and disciplined manner. Later, the instructor visited the Apaevsky village council. He noted certain points

in its work: "The Tatar school is not functioning, but there is a building for the school, there was a house of prayer (mosque), and there is also a reading room and a Komsomol office. The population has repeatedly appealed to the District Executive Committee and the Slavgorod UONO to open a school, but as a result, they received a response that their school was not included in the network. Currently, the community is carrying out repairs on its own and stocking up on firewood to heat the school, but the population is unable to pay for teachers from its own funds. There are 35-40 school-age children» [18, p.1]. The instructor paid particular attention to the condition and quality of educational institutions, in particular schools, reading rooms and other social facilities. His overall conclusion regarding the quality of the work of the local administrative and party organisation is as follows: «No work was done in the entire Slavgorod district, the reason for this being the lack of Tatar-Kyrgyz workers. Although workers from general organisations were sent several times, they were sent back due to a lack of staff. Currently, there is one district-level worker from the Komsomol, but the general organisation does not take him into account when carrying out various activities, viewing him as unnecessary ballast» [18, p.25].

Inspectors regularly visited rural settlements. In 1924, inspectors visited several Kazakh schools in the Tsivilno-Ezerka volost. The volost consisted of six administrative auls with a total population of 970 people. Residents of the auls attended a collective meeting with the inspectors, during which the inspectors communicated with Kazakh teachers, for example, in auls No. 1 and No. 4. The teacher was Islyamov, and there were 12 students. The students were taught in Tatar and Russian. The improvised schools did not have adequate furniture or textbooks. Before teaching at a secular school, the teacher of aul school No. 5 was involved in religious instruction. The inspector noted many religious books in his library, and the number of students was 23. No work was carried out among the Kazakh population in the Kalachinsky district. One of the inspectors surveyed the Kazakh schools in the Kaugulsky volost of the Tatarsky district. In his opinion, teacher Fatanov taught children in a school that did not have the necessary furniture [17, p.5]. The school was maintained at the expense of Shergipov and Taymanov, and only 4-5 pupils attended the school. Many pupils wore torn shirts. Education in schools was free of charge. The pupils were provided with paper and pencils at the expense of the aforementioned citizens. Graduates of short-term courses, from among the heads of reading rooms, Misaev organised a reading room in aul No. 3, which was attended by 15 students. According to the inspector in the Tatar and Kalachinsky districts, the local administration carried out complex work to revive the education system [17, p.5 ob.].

The authors of the documents traditionally focused on comprehensive work to eliminate illiteracy and establish various educational and cultural centres, reading rooms and other institutions for educating the population. This reporting period is characterised by the implementation of 10-day preparatory courses for political and technical literacy eradicators among the Kazakh population during the summer. Certified graduates of educational institutions who received the status of «eradicators» were involved in the implementation of literacy eradication programmes. Ideologically trained specialists, mainly graduates of workers' faculties, were delegated to these positions. For example, in 1924, S. Baykanov, a graduate of the Omsk Rabfak, was sent to the Kalachinsky UONO to work among the Kazakh population [19, p.3]. Another graduate of the same educational institution, Sapakov, carried out tasks related to teaching children on an «individual basis», which in fact meant a transition to a system of home education [20, p.2]. Archival sources show that the professional careers of many officials of that time, such as H. Berikbaev [21, p.3] and T. Sarsenbaev [22, p.6], began precisely with the position of liquidator in rural literacy centres. The working conditions of teachers deserve special attention: while working in the Odessa district, T. Sarsenbaev was forced to rent a separate yurt for the organisation of the educational process at his own expense (from his 11th grade salary). These facts show that in the early 1920s, the success of educational reforms in the auls was largely ensured by the personal initiative and self-sacrifice of national personnel working in conditions of acute shortage of state funding and material and technical resources. The programme of

courses for "liquidators" also included: problems of the transition from nomadic to sedentary life, medical and sanitary conditions, the development of cooperation, printing, school construction, trade unions, and work with young people. Fifteen people attended the courses, including four full-time instructors from the Provincial Committee and the Regional Committees, the Regional Committee of the Communist Party, who were distributed as follows: Omsk district – 4, including 2 political liquidators and 2 technical liquidators; Kalachinsky district – 4, including 2 political liquidators and 2 technical liquidators; Slavgorodsky district – 4, also 2 of each; Tatarsky district – 3, including 2 political liquidators and 1 technical liquidator. A total of 15 people. However, three trained workers, including one Kazakh woman, could not be used for their intended purposes due to a lack of funds at the Provincial Department. Of the trained workers, nine were party members and Komsomol members, while the rest were non-party teachers [17, p.17]. The instructors met personally with the liquidators, i.e. those workers who were responsible for overcoming illiteracy. The distance between the auls was 10-30 versts. The instructors gave lectures on the abolition of kalym, cooperation, and trade unions in agriculture. On 5 July 1924, the instructors held a cooperation festival in one of the auls. On the initiative of instructor Bayazitov, two oil mills were named «Kochevnik» and "Trud". The instructors noted the following: «In general, the attitude of the Kyrgyz population towards us was such that at first they looked down on us, that is, they treated us very badly, hated us extremely, called us communists... and later they changed their minds when they realised that the communists were their defenders. Even some of the poor, realising that we were protecting them, came to support the communists. They listened to us very well and treated us like their brothers» [17, p.6].

The Agitprop Department officially functioned within the administrative system. Regular meetings were held by the collegium of the Agitprop Department of the Siberian Regional Committee, in which representatives of national communities, in particular Kazakhs and Tatars, participated. At each meeting of the Agitprop Department, issues related to education in the Omsk, Tomsk, Yenisei, Altai, Novo-Nikolaevsk, and Irkutsk regions were discussed. Representatives of the provincial and regional Gubonos were graded according to national groups, which, according to the documentation, were recorded as eastern and western nationalities. In the first half of the 1920s, a compact settlement of representatives of different peoples remained in a number of regions. In the spirit of ideological traditions, it was prescribed that educational and administrative structures should have authorised representatives of national minorities. Inspectors of the relevant nationalities were to operate in a number of districts of Siberia. In the Omsk province, there were to be full-time inspectors from the nationalities living in the Omsk, Tatar, Tarsk, and Slavgorod districts. Obviously, representatives of a number of ethnic groups lived in these districts. It is noteworthy that the meeting of the Sibkrayrakom Agitprop Collegium on 25 June 1924 was attended by the secretaries of the Tatar section, Valeev, the Latvian section, Eshmidt, the Estonian section, Raut, and the German section, Fink. The agenda consisted of the following items:

Consideration of draft resolutions of the commission on the following issues: a) On the organisational forms of the national minority apparatus at the SKO, b) On the inclusion of Sovnatsmen expenses for 1924-1925 in the local budget, c) On the national minority network for the 1924-1925 academic year, d) On the workload standards for national minority schools;

e) on schools for peasant youth for the National Men's Council, f) on national departments at the Soviet Party School, g) on the Siberian-Tatar-Kyrgyz Pedagogical Technical School, h) on the Tatar-Kyrgyz department of the Omsk Workers' Faculty [23, p.49].

This summer meeting addressed large-scale issues related to preparations for the new academic year. An extensive programme for the development of public education for all national groups was developed, taking into account regional settlement and logistics. Several dozen items were considered, including issues of financing, providing schools with teaching materials, building libraries, recruiting teaching staff, and determining the curriculum. The problems of developing Kazakh schools, which were often identified within the Tatar-Kazakh school system, were considered

individually. In particular, the need was noted to develop a network of boarding schools for the Kazakh population and to include all functioning Tatar-Kazakh schools in the local budget for 1923-1924. Kazakh schools were to be provided with textbooks in the Kazakh language. Formation of a unified type of Kazakh-Tatar schools [23, p.28]. Thus, with regard to the inclusion of schools in the local budget system, the problem of covering the expenses of one so-called Kyrgyz school in the Yenisei province, which operated in parallel with the Khakass school, was considered. It was planned to allocate funds for the retraining of national minority education workers during the summer period from the Omsk province. In terms of building a network of schools, it was planned to organise two Kazakh boarding schools and expand the network of schools for the Kazakh population. Similar decisions were extended to other national groups [23, p.50].

In this context, the content of Shammato's report at the Siberian meeting of secretaries of the Tatar-Kazakh bureau of the RCP Provincial Committee, the RKSM and the district committees of the working districts is characteristic. In his report, Shammato drew attention to the need to establish close contacts between representatives of the party, the Komsomol and the organs of the People's Commissariat for Education. A great deal of responsibility was placed on representatives of the education apparatus in the person of the instructor of the sovnatsmen, who was charged with direct interaction with party and Komsomol workers. Shammatov drew attention to the need for representatives of education to participate in the formation of volost budgets for the purpose of developing education. In his theses, Shammato noted the need to preserve the importance of national languages, given that a significant part of the youth did not speak Russian. Therefore, in his opinion, schools should retain the right to teach in national languages. In the mid-1920s, according to Shammato, a programme to establish a network of schools should have been launched [23, p.84]. During this period, there were more than 100 primary schools for Tatars and Kazakhs [23, p.84 ob.].

The speaker noted the negative aspects of the development of national schools. For example, Kazakh schools completely lacked Kazakh textbooks, which was due to the lack of a smooth supply and the lack of funds to purchase them. By the end of 1923-1924, 80-90% of Tatar-Kazakh schools had been transferred to the local budget, but in some settlements, so-called contractual schools remained, which was evidence of the population's desire for education. Shammatov identified a number of tasks that needed to be implemented in the near future. These tasks concerned the following aspects: the elimination of child homelessness, the retraining of workers during the summer holidays through the organisation of courses, conferences and the selection of trained teachers. Strengthening ideological education in schools. A plan to agitate children was introduced.

Much attention was paid to the work of literacy centres aimed at eliminating illiteracy. In parallel with the literacy centres, it was planned to build reading rooms. The reading rooms were to be turned into centres where agricultural clubs and model vegetable gardens were to be organised. Particular attention was paid to the development of political education. Political education involved the purchase of literature in the Tatar and Kazakh languages, the organisation of subscriptions to literature in these languages, the training of political education leaders, and the involvement of young people in the work of schools [23, p.51].

At the same time, the task of creating general education courses in state farms and collective farms became more pressing. An important function of such schools was to raise the level of general education and «social» knowledge among a mixed-age contingent of students consisting of young people and adult agricultural workers. The term «general education» meant that students were taught political knowledge from the perspective of preserving the ideology of Soviet reality. In the Omsk region, given the multi-ethnic nature of the population, work was done to create national schools. There were different types of schools with 4-year and 5-year programmes. However, according to a number of representatives of administrative structures, the quality of education in schools remained poor. Representatives of German, Latvian, Estonian, and partly Tatar and Kazakh nationalities were educated in 5-year schools. The Russian language was introduced in these schools in the second half

of the second year of study. At the same time, these schools retained a zero group, in which children were taught in their native languages. Thus, over a period of 3-4 years of schooling, rural children acquired knowledge equivalent to that of the second and third groups of Russian schools. The reasons for the low level of schools were as follows: «there is a lack of good textbooks in the native language, and only Ukrainians have national programmes. There are no methodological guidelines on how to teach in national schools in general and in the native language in particular. There are no guidelines on how to teach local history in national schools and how to localise programmes. Teachers are poorly trained» [24, p.73]. Significant shortcomings were noted in the training of national teachers of the Russian language. National teachers of Russian had a poor command of Russian or did not know it at all. National methodological cells for the training of teaching staff officially operated in the regions. During this period, methodological cells operated only for Germans in Omsk and a Tatar methodological cell in a Tatar school [24, p.73 ob.]. National associations of Ukrainians and Estonians met sporadically. In a number of regions in the Omsk province, the Baptist and Evangelical movements grew stronger among Germans and Ukrainians. Inspectors analysed the quality of education of children in Russian and national schools. Children in many schools demonstrated poor Russian language skills. The proportion of repeat students was 8-15%. The following methods were proposed to ensure the successful teaching of the native language to schoolchildren: the introduction of national languages into office work and national village councils; the strengthening of the publication of literature, magazines and newspapers in national languages and reducing their cost. The publication of methodological literature in national languages. Introduction of a system for retraining teaching staff by opening national teacher training colleges and offering long-term courses for training and retraining teachers. Strengthening school construction [24, p.74].

The dynamics of the development of urban educational structures during the period under review are as follows: while on 1 July 1924 there were 121 schools with 2,068 students in the republic, by 1 January 1925 their number had increased to 160 with a total enrolment of 5,350. As of 1 March 1925, excluding data for the Orenburg and Syrdarya provinces, there were 125 schools with a total of 5,150 students. The total number of students exceeded 5,000, with 536 Kazakh students representing the national segment. A comparative analysis of these indicators clearly confirms the sustained positive dynamics of the expansion of the educational network. The most important vector of educational policy during the period under review was the implementation of programmes to eliminate illiteracy in all provinces of the region. The effectiveness of these measures is confirmed by the data of the 1926 All-Union Population Census: in the Orenburg province, the literacy rate exceeded 50%, while before the civil war, this figure did not even reach 20% [25, p.161]. Such a significant increase testifies to the effectiveness of the implemented public education system and its ability to cover a large part of the population in a short period of time.

Nevertheless, the process of integrating Kazakh children into the general education environment remained fraught with a number of objective difficulties, which led to the preservation of a low percentage of students from the indigenous population. The specific nature of the socio-economic way of life dictated the need to find adaptive forms of education. In particular, a network of mobile national schools was launched in the Orenburg province: two Kazakh, two Tatar and one Bashkir [26, p.1]. According to the strategy of the organisers of the education system, it was precisely these mobile schools that were the most relevant model of education, capable of functioning effectively in the conditions of the traditional way of life of the Kazakh aul.

Thus, during the period under review, a clear understanding of education as a basic factor in social mobility and personal growth took root in the public consciousness of the Kazakh population. Researchers and educators of the pre-revolutionary period repeatedly noted the high cognitive potential of Kazakh children, in particular, their developed memory, ability to learn languages, and clarity of logical thinking. It seems reasonable to assume that these intellectual qualities were formed as a result of centuries of adaptation and harmonious interaction between the nomadic way of life and

the natural environment. With an adequate methodological basis, this allowed students to demonstrate a high rate of assimilation of educational material.

It is noteworthy that this ethno-cultural focus on education remained stable even in the difficult conditions of the mid-1920s, complicated by the aftermath of the civil war, systemic socio-economic crisis, unemployment and mass child homelessness. Despite the unfavourable social background, the Kazakh youth's thirst for knowledge remained a stable vector of development. This circumstance created the necessary prerequisites for the further implementation of the school education system in the republic, ensuring the high receptivity of students to new forms of pedagogical influence.

At the highest party and state level, the task of implementing national policy in the republic became a priority, the essence of which was to develop the public education system and train specialists in line with the socio-economic conditions of the modern world. Representatives of the relevant structures analysed the number and quality of national schools in the period from 1923 to 1926.

Regional administrative party structures updated their work among the Kazakh population. The most massive events were held among social categories, which are described in the documentation as "farm labourers". The effectiveness of the events was assessed using numerical indicators. For example, based on the results of the work of the Omsk administrative and party structures in 1925, cultural and educational work among the Kazakh population was assessed as ineffective due to the lack of a sufficient number of schools. In the mid-1920s, there were plans to open 10 schools. In reality, only six were operational. The six functioning schools did not have the necessary methodological and educational infrastructure. In the summer of 1925, 15 literacy centres were opened with the specific task of teaching the Kazakh population literacy and technical education. At the same time, a programme of «connecting with the masses» was implemented, which involved instructors regularly travelling to the regions to meet with the local population [27, p.68].

In the summer of 1927, a teachers' congress was held in the republic. Following the congress, a resolution consisting of several points was adopted. In each point of the resolution, the Secretariat of the Kazkraikom VKP (b) attempted to reflect the issues discussed and the decisions made at the congress. First and foremost, the secretariat remained interested in publicising the results of the congress among the general public. Representatives of the Secretariat noted the weak advertising campaign for this republican event among teachers, so according to the resolution, the APO, NKP and factions of the Central Committee of Rabpros and the State Committee were instructed to launch a campaign to cover the work of the congress using additional resources from the autumn teachers' conferences. One of the points proposed that the NCP and the Press Department launch work with the magazine Zhana Mekteb to serve the interests of rural teachers [28, p.14].

Conference participants developed a package of proposals for forming a teaching corps. In particular, proposals were made to attract qualified teaching staff to the republic, to provide Kazakhstan with quota places for training specialists at the Karl Liebknecht Institute, to create a department for training workers for vocational education at the practical institute of public education and the regional institute of public education, and to increase teachers' salaries. Karl Liebknecht Institute, creating a department for training workers for vocational education at the practical institute of public education and the regional institute of public education, increasing the salaries of teachers, especially those teaching core subjects, and organising a regional vocational education fund to finance vocational technical education institutions. The hierarchy of the education system presupposed the presence of teachers who were linguistically connected with the students. Given the situation, it was pointed out that it was necessary to quickly train teachers to work in the Kazakh apprenticeship environment: «Instruct the KNCK's Profobru to study the feasibility of organising courses to train individual and team apprenticeship leaders from among qualified Kazakh workers» [28, p.15].

Thus, the decisions of the 1927 congress and subsequent directives of the Kazkraikom VKP (b) testified to the transition from spontaneous measures to eliminate illiteracy to a stage of systematic state planning. Thus, the consolidation of the resources of trade unions, relevant print media and the education system was aimed at comprehensively solving the problem of staff shortages, which for a

long time remained a fundamental obstacle to the profound modernisation of the Kazakh aul. Attempts to create a centralised system for training specialists and providing financial support to educational institutions demonstrated a desire to establish a national school system capable of functioning in the new socio-economic realities.

Discussion. Issues related to the formation and transformation of the public education system in the 1920s occupy a fundamental place in Russian historical science. The historiography of this problem can be divided into several key stages, each of which is characterised by its own methodological approaches and object of study.

The works of A.I. Sembaev, which reconstruct in detail the process of institutional formation of schools in Kazakhstan, make an important theoretical contribution to understanding the origins of the transformation of the sector [1]. The researcher pays particular attention to the mechanisms of forming a professional teaching corps and creating a system of continuous professional development for teachers as a key condition for the sustainability of the education system. In turn, the joint monograph by A.I. Sembaev and G.P. Kireeva offers an in-depth analysis of the didactic and organisational aspects of education in the republic [2]. The authors examine the educational process in close connection with the socio-political context of the 1920s and 1930s, which allows them to trace the specifics of the school's adaptation to the challenges of the modernisation period. Of scientific interest in the context of the topic under study are the works of Sh.Yu. Tastanov, in which the process of education development is examined through the prism of the formation of the national intelligentsia [3]. The researcher departs from a formal description of quantitative indicators, focusing on qualitative changes in the structure of Kazakh society in the 1920s. His works provide a detailed analysis of the mechanisms behind the emergence of a new professional group – teachers, who became the main transmitters of modernisation ideas in traditional villages. Sh.Yu. Tastanov emphasises that, in conditions of staff shortages, it was they who became the link between state institutions and the masses [4].

The current stage of historiography on the period of independent Kazakhstan is characterised by a paradigm shift and a return to previously closed topics. An important conceptual shift in the study of this issue is associated with the works of Academician M.K. Kozybaev, who was one of the first to propose viewing the history of Kazakhstan in the 1920s not through the prism of class struggle, but as a period of national tragedy and, at the same time, heroic efforts by the intelligentsia to preserve the cultural code [5]. His works allow us to interpret the transformation of education as an attempt at national self-preservation in conditions of severe ideological pressure. K. Nurpeis's research makes a significant contribution to understanding the political context of the formation of the national school [6]. The author analyses in detail the activities of the Soviets and local authorities, revealing the contradictions between the declarative goals of the centre and the real needs of the Kazakh aul. K. Nurpeis emphasises that the formation of the education system was inextricably linked to the struggle for national self-determination, in which the school acted as a strategic tool [7].

Researchers such as E.B. Sydykov [8] and D.A. Amanzholova [9-10] also made a significant contribution to the study of the role of the national elite in educational processes. Their works made it possible to rethink the contribution of representatives of the Alash movement to the creation of the methodological basis of the national school. The researchers emphasise that the transformation of education in the 1920s was not only a political project, but also the result of the intellectual efforts of Kazakh educators who sought to preserve the cultural identity of the people.

The theoretical aspects of social modernisation and changes in the structure of society through the prism of education are thoroughly examined in the works of H.M. Abzhanov [11] and A.M. Awanasova [12]. In their research, the education system is seen as a key factor in the formation of a new intellectual stratum. Tursun H. made a significant contribution to the conceptual understanding of the spiritual and intellectual transformation of Kazakh society in the first third of the 20th century [13-14]. In his research, the author emphasises the continuity of educational traditions and analyses the role of the national school as a space for the formation of political and civic self-awareness. Tursun H. argues

convincingly that the reforms of the 1920s took place in a context of acute conflict between different cultural and educational paradigms. His works provide a deeper understanding of the internal mechanisms of adaptation of the pedagogical community to changing political realities and assess the contribution of the national intelligentsia to the preservation of intellectual identity in conditions of harsh systemic transformation.

At the same time, despite the existence of fundamental works, there is a certain lack of research in historiography devoted to the regional specifics of the functioning of educational institutions in remote and border areas. The problems of material support for rural schools and the everyday practices of teaching in remote villages have not been the subject of special research. The insufficient study of local mechanisms for implementing educational policy at the micro level, as well as the need to introduce new layers of archival documents from regional funds into scientific circulation, determine the scientific relevance and topicality of this study. This article aims to fill this gap by comparing nationwide trends with the specific historical realities of national schools during the socio-economic transformation of the 1920s.

Conclusion. The initial stage of the formation of the education system was characterised by a deep contradiction between state plans for the development of mass schooling and the actual state of resources. In the first half of the 1920s, literacy rates in Kazakh villages remained critically low, which was due to the deep decline of the aul economy. The work of Akhmet Baitursynov and his like-minded colleagues in preparing the first generation of textbooks and teaching aids in the Kazakh language was crucial for the establishment of the national school system. The consolidation of educated personnel around the task of book publishing made it possible to develop teaching materials that were adapted as much as possible to the worldview of Kazakh students in terms of content and methodology, creating conditions for a qualitative increase in the level of knowledge. The practical implementation of education programmes in the regions largely depended on the personal sacrifice of teachers and literacy campaigners. Examples of teachers renting educational premises at their own expense show that in the period under review, the success of educational initiatives in the aul was ensured not only by administrative measures, but also by the high level of civic responsibility of national personnel. The 1927 Teachers' Congress and the decisions adopted as a result marked the transition to systematic management of educational processes. Initiatives to create vocational education funds, develop specialised periodicals and train specialists in higher education laid the foundation for a professional teaching corps. Despite all the difficulties of the transition period, a stable demand for education as the main factor of social mobility and cultural development formed in society. Thus, the 1920s became a period of large-scale transformation, during which, despite systemic crises, the foundations of the modern educational model were laid and the material and methodological basis for the subsequent intellectual development of Kazakhstan was formed.

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