

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF THE FORMATION OF RURAL SETTLEMENTS IN NORTHERN KAZAKHSTAN DURING THE PRE-REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

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Abstract. *This article is concerned with the historical aspects of the formation and development of rural settlements in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan. It explores how the structural and functional organization of rural settlements has changed since Palaeolithic times under the influence of climatic, technological and sociological change including, since the seventeenth century, colonization by Russia. The paper examines how the functional organization of rural settlements has passed through a number of historical stages, influenced, among other things, by cycles in the relative importance of (semi-)nomadic herding and the cultivation of crops. The settlement of the region by Russian Cossacks saw the development of numerous border fortifications and Cossack villages, whose way of life – being primarily based on agriculture – was markedly different from the livestock-centred economic activities of the Kazakh population.*

Keywords: *settlements, encampment, Andronian culture, Bronze Age, zhuz, dwelling, yurt.*

Introduction

Rural settlements were historically the first centres of population, before the development of towns. They represented the best traditions of the local culture, being both a material and a spiritual reflection of the general evolutionary formation. In the recent years, Kazakhstan has adopted a number of legislative and regulatory acts that regulate the development of agriculture and rural settlements.

Studies on various aspects rural settlement have been undertaken by a wide range of specialists, including historians, economists, architects and

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geographers. The historical and national aspects of the formation and development of settlements are shown in surveys conducted by T. I. Anufrieva, Kh. Argynbaev, N. V. Alekseenko, A. V. Bunin, T. V. Savarenskaya and B. A. Glaudinov. The following scholars have greatly contributed to research on Kazakh settlements: Kh. A. Alpysbaev, A. G. Meduev, M. N. Klanchuk, G. I. Pacevich, E. I. Ageeva, K. A. Akishev, A. N. Bernstam, K. M. Bajpakova and L. B. Erzakovich.

In particular, Kh. A. Alpysbaev is a pioneer in the study of Palaeolithic cultures in Kazakhstan. He is known for the discovery of a multi-layered Palaeolithic encampment (which was later named after Ch. Valikhanov),¹ and a unique Neolithic cave encampment in the Tyulkubas region.² Based on numerous archaeological findings, Kh. A. Alpysbaev proposed a theory that Kazakhstan may have been one of the colonization centres of ancient people. The territory of modern Kazakhstan, starting from the Lower Paleolithic - Shel-Ashel period, was included in the region of formation of the oldest human.³ A. G. Meduev and M. N. Klanchuk also discovered new Palaeolithic settlements in Central Kazakhstan.

However, it should be mentioned that archaeologists have mainly been searching for and excavating the oldest settlements in order to record and describe the various finds. Due to this focus, a deeper analysis of the formation of the oldest settlements was put on the back burner. The archaeological excavations in Kazakhstan by G. I. Patsevich, E. I. Ageeva, K. A. Akishev, A. N. Bernstam, K. M. Baypakova and L. B. Erzakovich, have helped to identify the various stages in the formation and development of the architecture and layout of historical settlements.

The development of populated areas in the general system of settlements is considered by F. N. Bazanov, N. F. Golikov, U. M. Iskakov and D. K. Chudinov. However, the historiographic analysis of the settlement of Northern Kazakhstan allows us to state that this problem is still underdeveloped. Thus far, theoretical and applied research on the formation and development of rural settlements from a historical viewpoint has not yet been carried out, and specific local features have not been fully taken into account. In this regard, a comprehensive study of the formation and development of rural settlements in Northern Kazakhstan aiming to reveal the historical pattern of their development is long overdue.

Rural settlements in Northern Kazakhstan formed and developed under the influence of various natural, geopolitical and economic factors. Their planning and layout is dependent on traditional-historical and national-

¹ Alpysbaev 1959.

² Alpysbaev 1962.

³ Kan 2011, p. 14.

ethnographic approaches, which have had both positive and negative consequences. This article focuses in particular on the influence of Northern Kazakhstan's colonial history on the development of its rural settlements.

Materials and methods

To study the history of human colonization in Northern Kazakhstan and its effect on the formation and development of rural settlements, we used a number of analytical approaches (statistical and selective). We used these materials to analyse how various historical phenomena, events and conditions affected rural development.

The data analysed in this study was amassed as follows:

- Expeditions to the study region (1980-2015) to conduct outdoor surveys of rural settlements in order to identify the peculiarities of their formation (we selected a number of populated areas which typified local natural, economic, historical, national and demographic conditions for our research);
- The collection of departmental materials (materials collected during fieldwork in certain settlements);
- The collection of state statistics (a list of populated areas, information on the movement of the population, the location of cultural and domestic facilities);
- The collection of archival and historical materials (in the archives of Astana and Almaty);
- The study of literary sources, maps, climate records and other general reference works (in the libraries of Astana and Almaty);
- The study of statistical and environmental reports (from the regional and city departments of architecture of Northern Kazakhstan);
- The study of photomaps and general plans of the villages under consideration to track their formation and development.

Results

The first settlements in the territory of Kazakhstan were formed in the Lower Palaeolithic period (about 700,000 to 140,000 years ago). Archaeologists have found many encampments from which they have determined the geographical colonization of ancient tribes. In the Lower Palaeolithic period, people already knew how to produce fire and they used basic stone tools for cutting and other tasks. Later, in the more innovative Middle Palaeolithic or Mousterian period (100,000 to 40,000 BC), stone axes, thumb flints, sharp weapons and stone hammer were invented. This period is the first from which we have evidence of primitive religious beliefs, and it is around this

time that early forms of matriarchal tribal community are evidenced.⁴ By the Late Palaeolithic Period (40,000 to 12,000 BC), the representation of man in the spiritual sphere had become more complicated. Early forms of religion and art became widespread, and new dwellings (built from wood, bones and skins) were built.⁵ These changes were probably caused by the climate becoming more humid and cooler.

The next periods of development were the Neolithic and the Eneolithic (or Copper) Ages. Neolithic tribes would spend most of the year in one location. In Kazakhstan, there are more than 500 settlements dating from that time. These settlements were located along river banks or near lakes, and were typically small camps consisting of five or six dugouts. These dugouts were rectangular in shape and covered with tents made of wooden poles covered with layers of branches, rushes and clay.⁶

The territory of Northern Kazakhstan is best known for the encampment of Penka. In the second millennium BC, bronze-making first appeared on the steppes of Kazakhstan. The Bronze Age in Kazakhstan is associated with the Andronovo culture, named after the location of the first excavations of one of their cemeteries near the village of Andronovo (Achinsk, Southern Siberia). The Andronovo culture was common to Southern Siberia, Kazakhstan, the Urals and Central Asia, and its centre was located in the territory of Kazakhstan. The main distinguishing feature of this period was progress in the field of metallurgy and cattle breeding. From the beginning of the second millennium BC, the steppe tribes of Kazakhstan formed complex cattle-breeding households. By the second half of the second millennium BC, cattle breeding had become crucial for the economy of the population of Eurasian steppes. Due to growing aridity, the economy and life of Kazakh steppe tribes also changed. In the Bronze Age, the Kazakh Steppe was inhabited by kindred tribes with similar historical development. The Andronovo population mainly led a settled lifestyle. Their villages were located along river banks with wide floodplain meadows. Families built dugouts with various outbuildings and a cattle pen.⁷ The Andronovo tribes also built funeral structures. Their pottery and jewellery greatly differed from that of previous eras.

The Andronovo culture was one of the largest cultures of the Bronze Age in Europe and Asia. It existed between the eighteenth and tenth centuries BC. This period was, for a long time, regarded by academics as a fairly homogeneous one. However, as archaeological study of the territory of

⁴ Kan 2011, p. 15.

⁵ Kan 2011, p. 15, 170, 184.

⁶ Zhumakhanov et al. 2013, p. 224; Zhumakhanov, Zhumataev 2013, p. 224.

⁷ Rudenko 1927, p. 29.

Kazakhstan expanded, opinions changed dramatically and different stages in its development were gradually highlighted. Nowadays, there are considered to have been two main periods in the development of the Andronovo culture: the first between the eighteenth and fourteenth centuries BC, and the second from the fourteenth to the tenth centuries BC.

In the first (early) period, the Andronovo people engaged in three types of labour activity: agriculture, cattle breeding and bronze metallurgy (in its infancy). The second period represents a new stage in the life of the Andronovo tribes based on a higher level of economic development. Animal husbandry and farming were steadily developing; the number of plots for hoe farming was increasing; and the extraction of copper, tin and gold was increasing.

At the end of the second and beginning of the first millennium BC, Andronovo culture, economy and everyday life were undergoing many changes, brought about by the new economic basis of this society and its transition to *yailag* cattle rearing (where cattle are moved between summer and winter pastures) and nomadic cattle breeding. Searching for good pastures, people migrated further from their permanent wintering grounds. The emergence and development of nomadic cattle breeding in Kazakhstan was a progressive phenomenon which resulted in a growth in productivity. Nomadic cattle breeding expanded the sphere of human economic activity and increased the value of labour.⁸

In the beginning of the first millennium, semi-nomadic and nomadic cattle breeding became the main and then the dominant form of economic activity, which had decisive influence on the development of settlements and dwellings. In this period, mostly nomadic settlements prevailed over permanent ones. Permanent settlements of the Bronze Age consisted of half-dugouts. These were rectangular and divided into living and working areas. In Northern Kazakhstan, early bronze monuments have been found in the Petropavlovsk area. During this period (the middle Bronze Age), settlements began to resemble the predecessors of towns.

The Saki were the successors of the Andronovo culture. The Saki culture developed in the steppes between the ninth and eighth centuries BC and lasted until the third century BC. The main focus of animal husbandry for the Saki was breeding horses and sheep. The Saki period was characterized by a transition to new progressive forms of management, the development of a new metal (iron), and nomadic cattle breeding. This period in Kazakhstan (from the beginning of the first millennium BC) is commonly referred to as the Early Iron Age, “the era of early nomads,” “the Scythian

⁸ Shakhmanov 1964, p. 39, 41.

period” or “the Saki period.”⁹ The ethno-cultural successors of the Saki were the Wusuns. Wusun culture existed until the fifth century AD.

Alongside cattle breeding, the Wusun engaged in agriculture as well as various crafts. Permanent settlements and agriculture were a typical feature of Wusun culture in the second century BC. This period was also characterized by the construction of winter buildings. Wusun families built dwellings of two types: winter houses and portable yurts.¹⁰

In the first millennium BC, we can see the gradual accumulation of new production skills in the territory of Kazakhstan, as farmsteads were strengthened, a network of irrigation canals was created, and a massive transition of the local population to agriculture took place.

In the territory of Kazakhstan, archaeological excavations have been carried out by G. I. Patsevich, E. I. Ageeva, K. A. Akishev, A. N. Bernstam, K. M. Baypakova, L. B. Erzakovich and others. Their research has made it possible to identify various stages in the formation and development of the architecture and layout of ancient settlements. As a result, it has been established that in the last centuries of the first millennium AD there were two ways in which permanent agricultural settlements developed in this region.¹¹

The first was the development of settlements located in the most favourable economic and geographical conditions, i.e. along caravan routes, in river deltas, near woodlands, and so on. These settlements would merge into a single complex and eventually grow into large feudal towns.

The second way was for settlements to gradually turn into trade and handicraft suburbs or agricultural districts of large towns. The majority of ancient settlements fall into this group.

In the beginning of the first millennium, fortifications and caravanserais were further improved. The first were fortified settlements for garrisons guarding the most important parts of caravan routes, and the latter, although not adapted for defence, were, like the rebates, surrounded by earthen ramparts. There were diverse types of permanent settlement in the territory of Kazakhstan and their form and historical development depended on local and regional peculiarities (economic, geographic, natural and climatic, etc.).

Between the sixth and eighth centuries AD, a large number of settlements, residential and public buildings were built on the fertile lands of Kazakhstan (the valleys of the Chu River and the Talas River and in the foothills of the Karatau Ridge). In 1946, archaeologist A. Kh. Margulan made

⁹ Kan 2011, p. 17-19, 75.

¹⁰ Nazarov 1968, p. 21.

¹¹ Gladinov 1976, p. 134.

the first reconnaissance trip across Kazakhstan and identified six types of settlement from that period, namely, sovereign residences, castles and manors of the nobility, trade and craft settlements, military fortresses, caravanserais, and agricultural settlements of nomads who had become impoverished and, as a result, settled down.

Medieval states in the territory of Kazakhstan were based on nomadic and semi-nomadic cattle breeding closely associated with settled agriculture, which led to the formation of permanent settlements in the most favourable locations for growing crops. The nomadic way of life influenced the formation of a special type of settlement called the aul.¹² Auls were small and consisted of 8 to 15 households (**table 1.1**). In 1909, in Akmola county, the number of farms (households) within a single aul was distributed in the following manner: 1 to 5 farms = 26%; 6 to 10 = 40%; 11 to 20 = 28%; and 21 and more = 6%.¹³ The following types of aul were distinguished:¹⁴

- Cattle breeding, with wintering and permanent buildings;
- Agricultural, mainly based on permanent buildings, but in summer using yurts on jailows (summer pastures);
- Mixed, with some farms engaged in agriculture and others dealing with cattle breeding.

County name	Number of auls	Number of households	Number of households in an aul	Total population of an aul	Number of people in an aul
Akmola	1,617	16,361	10	94,460	59
Petropavlovsk	1,357	12,238	10	77,246	57
Kokshetau	1,756	15,217	9	88,907	51
Atbasar	703	6,943	10	37,822	54

Table 1.1. Data on colonization of Kazakhstan

Throughout the entire territory of Kazakhstan, the consolidation of many tribes into a single nation can be observed. However, in the first decade

¹² Gladinov 1999, p. 295.

¹³ *Kirgiskoe khozyaistvo* 1910.

¹⁴ Sokolovskii 1926, p. 3, 15.

of the thirteenth century, this process was interrupted by the Mongol invasion (1219-1220).

In the fourteenth and the fifteenth centuries, as the severe consequences of the Mongol yoke were gradually overcome in Kazakhstan, agricultural oases were revived and nomadic and semi-nomadic cattle breeding continued to develop, which led to a growth in productive forces, trade relations, and cultural and economic connections with neighbouring regions. Trade relations among the cattle breeders of Northern Kazakhstan and the towns along the Syr Darya River, which runs through Central Asia, were restored, and transit trade expanded with an access to the ancient Silk Road.

In the middle of the fifteenth century, a large feudal state was formed, known as the Kazakh Khanate. The most important aspect of the Kazakh economy in the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries was nomadic cattle herding. Nomads followed specific routes,¹⁵ which were determined by both natural geographical conditions and historical traditions. During the Kazakh Khanate, settled agricultural life coexisted with nomadic and semi-nomadic cattle-raising. Agriculture and permanent settlements developed in the most favourable locations, in terms of the natural landscape. The land was cultivated by the poorest peasants, who had insufficient cattle to be able to sustain nomadic herding (*shataks*). The main crops were millet and barley. The choice of crops depended on climatic and soil conditions. At the same time, domestic crafts developed based on the processing of raw materials from the livestock.

Later in the Kazakh Khanate, three distinct economic ethno-territorial associations arose within the Kazakh Khanate, known as the Senior *shuz* (or Horde), the Middle *shuz* and the Junior *shuz*. The members of these three Kazakh *shuz* were engaged in nomadic and semi-nomadic cattle herding, irrigated and rain-fed farming, and various domestic and other crafts, and they also had trade relations with neighbouring countries and peoples.¹⁶

In the seventeenth century, internal strife and raids on the Kazakh lands by the Dzungar (Oirat) and other Central Asian khanates weakened the unity of the Kazakhs and increased the isolation of the various *shuz*. The threat of enslavement and physical extermination by the Chinese Empire to the East, the rulers of Kokand to the South, and Bukhara and Khiva to the West, none of which were averse to the idea of capturing the riches of the steppes, forced the Kazakh people to realize the need for rapprochement with Russia as a defender.¹⁷

¹⁵ Saksenbaev 1968, p. 31, 42, 47.

¹⁶ Segizbaev 1996, p. 472.

¹⁷ Dzhaniybekov 1991, p. 17, 19, 75.

The Russian state was interested in relations with Kazakhstan to guarantee the security of traditional Central Asian routes through the Kazakh Khanate. Russia's economic recovery under the reign of Peter I had precipitated a growing need to strengthen its trade relations with countries to the East. For this reasons, Peter I paid close attention to Kazakhstan. The Siberian governor, Prince M. Gagarin, introduced Peter I to the idea of creating a series of fortified points from the Irtysh River to Yarkend. Under Peter I, the Siberian, Irtysh and Kolyvan lines were laid. Their reliable fortifications stopped raids by the Dzhungar on the Kazakh steppes. After the Dzungar danger had been eliminated, these fortresses were turned into centres of Cossack colonization.¹⁸ When the Cossacks received the Russian citizenship, the tsarist government expected to turn the territory of Kazakhstan into a strategic base for the implementation of its foreign policy in the East. In January 1734, the incorporation of the Junior *zhuz* into Russia was formalized. The Sharua people, tired of wars and intergenerational strife, were interested in an alliance with Russia. After the Junior *zhuz* became a part of Russia, relatively peaceful living conditions developed which contributed to the restoration of cattle-raising and the construction of settlements.¹⁹

In 1742, Russian citizenship was accepted by the Middle *zhuz*, and in 1847 the Senior *zhuz* joined Russia. Despite the colonial yoke of tsarism, the accession of the Kazakh lands to Russia gave serious impetus to the development of Kazakhstan as a whole and its agriculture, in particular. Taking into account the experience of Russian peasants, the Kazakhs began to engage in haymaking.²⁰ When choosing wintering locations, cattle breeders began to pay attention to meadows which could be used for haymaking and that had arable land nearby. *Zhataks* settled in marginal areas alongside river banks and lakes and engaged in crop farming.

The first Russian settlements in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan were strongholds formed in connection with the Russian government's colonization policies. In Northern Kazakhstan, fortresses and Cossack villages were built, as well as towers for guarding the border, which was undertaken by the Siberian Linear Cossack Army. One of the first fortifications built was the 750-verst Ishim chain of military fortifications, located near the Bitter Lakes, which later became known as the "Bitter Line" or the "Gorkaya Line" and included the Peter and Paul Fortress. In the 1720s, the Cossack army captured the best (mountainous) part of today's Kokshetau county, and formed the Karkaralinsk fortifications on the site of today's

¹⁸ Kalmykova 1991, p. 122.

¹⁹ Argyubaev 1962.

²⁰ Nazarenko 1961, p. 57, 61.

Akmolinsk, Bayanaul and Kokshetau.²¹ In 1752, a line of military fortifications was built consisting of 10 fortresses and 53 redoubts that connected the Uyiskaya line with the Irtysh line. This line, called Novo-Ishimskaya, connected the Omsk and Zverinogolovskaya fortresses. As a result, the Russian border was pushed 50-200 versts further into the lands of the Middle *zhuz*. The Kazakhs were not allowed to cross the Irtysh River or roam within 10-versts of it, or to come within 30 miles of the fortresses and outposts.²²

The first Cossack village in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan was Atbasar (in the Akmola region). A total of 90 Cossack settlements were built in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan (**table 1.2**).²³

County name	Cossack lands (square versts)	Number of Cossack settlements	Number of households	Total number of inhabitants	Average population of Cossack villages
Omsk	9,206	27	2,938	19,346	720
Petropavlovsk	9,745	46	4,958	29,252	640
Kokshetau	5,104	15	2,811	19,274	1,285
Atbasar	299	1	177	1,253	1,253
Pavlodar	7,320	20	1,590	8,313	440
Akmola	316	1	183	966	966

Table 1.2. Characteristics of the Cossack army settlements

Economic difficulties and crop failures in Russia caused the massive resettlement of peasants. According to V. I. Lenin, “the Russian peasant was ready to flee not only to Siberia, but to the end of the world.”²⁴ Seeking to rectify the situation and eliminate the shortage of cultivable land in the internal provinces of Russia at the expense of the Kazakh steppe, the tsarist government adopted in 1881 the *Provisional rules for the resettlement of rural inhabitants to the Kyrgyz steppe*, according to which immigrants were given 30 dessiatines (around 80 acres) per person and a number of benefits. To make the resettlement movement more organized and limit the unauthorized and spontaneous resettlement of peasants in Kazakhstan, on 13 July 1889, the

²¹ *Rossiya* 1903, p. 146-161.

²² *Akmola. Entsiklopediya* 1995, p. 38, 40.

²³ Usov 1879, p. 21, 27, 38.

²⁴ Lenin 1968.

Russian government adopted the special provision *On the voluntary resettlement of rural townsmen and townspeople to state lands and the procedure for assigning persons of the above-mentioned estates who had resettled in former times*. Thus, resettlement was possible only with the permission of the relevant authorities.²⁵ Relocation to certain areas such as Akmola, Semirechensk or Semipalatinsk was specifically indicated. In 1893, the *Rules for setting up resettlement areas* were issued. By that time, a number of Russian villages with 300-400 households had been formed in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan. In 1896, an expedition was sent to the Kazakh steppe under the leadership of the famous statistician Shcherbina to determine a “land surplus” of local residents that could be confiscated from Kazakh cattle farmers to enrich the resettlement fund.

The expedition found a “surplus” of 20 million dessiatines (54 million acres).

On new lands [...], even those that are called convenient, immigrants reach the prosperity they had in their homeland before the resettlement only in 8 years. However, hitting in lean years or on infertile areas, new settlers are living for 3 and 4 years in misery such that they never knew at home.²⁶

In the second half of the nineteenth century, a number of Russian-Ukrainian villages were formed in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan, such as the villages of Chernigovka, Kievka, Romanovka, Ivanovka and others which emerged in the Nura Valley.²⁷

These Russian-Ukrainian villages consisted of small wooden or adobe huts with a front yard and a garden in the back. As agriculture in Kazakhstan was developing an increasing number of Kazakhs were transitioning to a settled way of life, the old Kazakh auls (*kystau*) were expanded and new ones were founded. As a rule, *kystaus* were sheltered from wind and located near forests or along the banks of rivers and lakes. Manors were characterized by the compact and closed arrangement of the residential house and adjacent livestock or farm buildings.²⁸

The forest-steppe area of Northern Kazakhstan was intensively colonized (**table 1.3**).²⁹ From 1885 to 1905, over 1.5 million people moved to the Urals. From 1906 to 1910, the number of settlers reached 2.5 million. In 1910, before the Akmola region was formed, lands were distributed as follows: the peasants' land was 5.723 million dessiatines (15.5 m acres); the Cossack land measured 2.55 m dessiatines (6.9 m acres); the colonization fund was 12.31 m dessiatines (33.31 m acres); Kazakh land was 13.519 m

²⁵ Alekseenko 1999.

²⁶ Sumkin 1908, p. 61.

²⁷ Chudinov 1929, p. 13, 17, 21.

²⁸ Yaralov 1971, p. 352.

²⁹ *Spravochnye svedeniya* 1911, p. 19, 27.

dessiatines (36.58 million acres); urban land measured 42,000 dessiatines (113,652 acres); and unexplored lands totalled 14.915 m dessiatines (40.36 m acres).³⁰

Despite the fact that Russian and Kazakh settlements existed under the same natural and geographic conditions, two different economic systems emerged in Northern Kazakhstan. The Russians focused on crop-based agriculture and had less developed livestock farming, while the Kazakhs were experts in cattle breeding and many still led semi-nomadic lifestyles, living on the high pastures in the summer and returning to permanent settlements only in the winter.

County name	Number of villages built between				Total number
	1890-1895	1896-1900	1901-1905	1906-1910	
Petropavlovsk	40	7	1	161	209
Kokshetau	27	67	15	189	298
Atbasar	10	11	18	96	145
Akmola	12	38	46	102	198
Total	89	123	80	548	840

Table 1.3. The dynamics of the region colonization

Regarding the total number of households in the Akmola region (16,357), it is stated that 29% were purely livestock-based (i.e. not engaged in cultivating crops or in professional crafts), 60% raised livestock and also grew crops, and 11% engaged in cattle rearing without cultivation, but with some crafts. Auls differed in terms of how long they had been farming crops. Some auls (25%) had been engaged in cultivation for 1 to 10 years, 39% had been growing crops for 11 to 30 years, and there were even farms that had been cultivating their land for several generations (23% from 30 to 50 years and 12.5% from 51 to 70 years or more). The constant growth in the number of farmers from the indigenous population led to an increasingly settled life among Kazakhs. The cost of certain buildings relative to the total value of buildings in an aul was as follows: yurts 50-54%, wooden huts 8-13%, dugouts 11-13%, kitchens and pantries 3-6%, canopies for cattle 17-20%, and wells 1%.

Yurts were the most expensive to build. There were no significant differences in the cost structure between various regions. An average household had 1 to 1.15 yurts, 0.2 to 0.4 wooden huts, and 0.5 to 0.7 kitchens and storerooms.³¹

³⁰ *Obzor Akmolinskoi* 1911, p. 11, 13.

³¹ Anufrieva 1996, p. 41, 47.

In 1900, 2.6 million people lived in former Kirghiz Krai (Akmola, Semipalatinsk, Turgai and Ural regions), including a settled population of 736,000 and a nomadic population of 1.9 million.³²

Conclusions

While conducting this research, we established the following main historical preconditions for the formation of permanent settlements in the pre-revolutionary period (i.e. from the emergence of the first settlements approximately 1 million years ago to 1917):

- The transition of the indigenous population from a nomadic to a settled way of life, leading to the formation of settlements in permanent locations;
- Russia's colonial policy, which laid the foundation for the formation of permanent settlements, giving to the region's urban development;
- The resettlement of Russians, which resulted in the development and expansion of rural settlements, and their increasingly sophisticated architectural and planning.

In the pre-revolutionary period, village households were engaged in livestock farming only, mixed livestock and crop farming, or livestock rearing with some crafts. The particular form of economic activity the local population engaged in determined the nature of the architecture and layout of the various villages.

In the second millennium BC (the Bronze Age), due to the increasing aridity of the local climate, the economy and way of life of steppe tribes in Kazakhstan changed, which influenced the formation of settlements. In general, the population had a settled, non-nomadic lifestyle. Families built dugouts with various outbuildings and a cattle pen. By the beginning of the first millennium, nomadic settlements prevailed while permanent settlements were quite random. Permanent settlements in the Bronze Age consisted of half dugouts.

The domination of nomads in Kazakhstan lasted until the fifth century AD. During this period two types of house were built: winter houses and portable yurts. From the Middle Ages until Kazakhstan became a part of Russia, the construction and development of villages was characterized by cycles of growth, decline and recovery, related to the aggressive policies of neighbouring states.

The annexation of Kazakh lands by Russia gave a serious impetus to the development of Kazakhstan as a state and, particularly, as an agricultural country. The first Russian settlements in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan were built in connection with governmental colonization and

³² *Rossiya* 1903, p. 146-161.

tended to be strongholds for the Russians who were settling in Kazakhstan. In Northern Kazakhstan, these included fortresses, border walls and Cossack villages.

As Kazakh agriculture developed and the Kazakhs adopted an increasingly settled way of life, the old Kazakh auls (*keystan*) grew larger and new ones were built. This occurred most intensively in the forest-steppe area of Northern Kazakhstan.

Despite the fact that Russian and Kazakh settlements shared the same natural and environmental conditions, two different economic systems soon emerged in the territory of Northern Kazakhstan: the Russians focused on cultivation of crops, with less developed livestock breeding, while the Kazakhs' main activity was cattle breeding type and many continued to live a nomadic way of life, which affected the structure of villages.

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- Zhumakhanov, Zhumataev 2013 - T. Zhumakhanov, B. Zhumataev, *Kazakhskoe khanstvo*, Almaty, 2013.

LISTA ABREVIERILOR DE PERIODICE

- AB** - Analele Buzăului. Muzeul Județean Buzău.
- Academe** - Academe. The American Association of University Professors. Washington.
- ACNLU** - Acta Conventus Neo-Latini Upsaliensis. Proceedings of the Fourteenth International Congress of Neo-Latin Studies (Uppsala 2009). Leiden.
- ActaHASH** - Acta Historica Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae. Budapest.
- ActaMN** - Acta Musei Napocensis. Muzeul de Istorie a Transilvaniei. Cluj-Napoca.
- AÉ** - Archaeologiai Értesítő a Magyar régészeti, művésztörténeti és éremtani társulat tudományos folyóirata. Budapest.
- AI** - Anale de Istorie. Institutul de Studii Istorice și Social-Politice de pe lângă CC al PCR. București.
- AIAC** - Anuarul Institutului de Istorie și Arheologie Cluj-Napoca.
- AIIAI/AIIX** - Anuarul Institutului de Istorie și Arheologie „A. D. Xenopol” Iași (din 1990 Anuarul Institutului de Istorie „A. D. Xenopol” Iași).
- AIIN** - Anuarul Institutului de Istorie Națională. Cluj, Sibiu.
- Alba-Iulia** - Alba-Iulia. Alba Iulia.
- AM** - Arheologia Moldovei. Institutul de Istorie și Arheologie „A. D. Xenopol” Iași.
- AnB** - Analele Banatului (serie nouă). Muzeul Național al Banatului. Timișoara.
- Antik Tanulmányok** - Antik Tanulmányok. Akadémiai Kiadó. Budapest.
- AO** - Arhivele Olteniei (serie nouă). Institutul de Cercetări Socio-Umane. Craiova.
- Apulum** - Apulum. Acta Musei Apulensis. Muzeul Național al Unirii Alba Iulia.
- ArhSom** - Arhiva Someșană. Revistă istorică-culturală. Năsăud.
- ArhMed** - Arheologia Medievală. Reșița, Cluj-Napoca.
- Astra Salvensis** - Astra Salvensis. Cercul Salva al ASTRA. Salva.
- AT** - Arhivele totalitarismului. Institutul Național pentru Studiul Totalitarismului. Academia Română. București.
- AUASH** - Annales Universitatis Apulensis. Series Historica. Universitatea „1 Decembrie 1918” din Alba Iulia.
- AUMCS** - Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Sklodowska. Uniwersytet Marii Curie-Sklodowskiej. Lublin.

Lista abrevierilor de periodice

AUS	- Acta Universitatis Szegediensis De Attila József Nominatae. Acta Historiae Litterarum Hungaricarum. A József Attila Tudományegyetem-Bölcsészettudományi Kar. Szeged.
AVSL	- Archiv des Vereins für Siebenbürgische Landeskunde. Sibiu.
Banatica	- Banatica. Muzeul de Istorie al Județului Caraș-Severin. Reșița.
BAR	- British Archaeological Reports (International Series). Oxford.
BC	- Biblioteca și cercetarea. Cluj-Napoca.
BCȘS	- Buletinul Cercurilor Științifice Studentești. Universitatea „1 Decembrie 1918” din Alba Iulia.
BHAB	- Bibliotheca Historica et Archaeologica Banatica. Muzeul Banatului Timișoara.
Boabe de grâu	- Boabe de grâu. Revistă de cultură. București.
Brukenthal	- Brukenthal. Acta Musei. Muzeul Național Brukenthal. Sibiu.
București	- București. Materiale de istorie și muzeografie. Muzeul Municipiului București.
Bylye Gody	- Bylye Gody. International Network Center for Fundamental and Applied Research. Washington.
Caietele CNSAS	- Caietele CNSAS. Consiliul Național pentru Studierea Arhivelor Securității. București.
CB	- Călăuza bibliotecarului. Biblioteca Centrală de Stat București.
CBAstra	- Conferințele Bibliotecii Astra. Biblioteca Județeană Astra. Sibiu.
Cărți românești	- Cărți românești.
CCA	- Cronica cercetărilor arheologice. cIMeC. București.
CEHF	- Cahiers d'Études Hongroises et Finlandaises. Université Sorbonne Nouvelle Paris 3.
CollMed	- Collegium Mediense. Comunicări științifice. Colegiul Tehnic „Mediense” Mediaș.
Colloquia	- Colloquia. Journal of Central European History. Institutul de Studii Central-Europene al Facultății de Istorie și Filosofie a Universității „Babeș-Bolyai” Cluj-Napoca.
ComȘtMediaș	- Comunicări Științifice. Mediaș (este continuată de CollMed).
Contimporanul	- Contimporanul. Revistă de avangardă, cu program constructivist. București.
Corviniana	- Corviniana. Acta Musei Corvinensis. Muzeul Castelului Corvineștilor.
Cumidava	- Cumidava. Muzeul Județean de Istorie Brașov.

Țitatel	- Țitatel. Matica slovenská. Martin.
Discobolul	- Discobolul. Revistă de cultură. Uniunea Scriitorilor din România. Alba Iulia.
Drobeta	- Drobeta. Seria Etnografie. Muzeul Regiunii Porților de Fier. Drobeta-Turnu Severin.
Drobeta. Artă Plastică	- Drobeta. Seria Artă Plastică. Muzeul Regiunii Porților de Fier. Drobeta-Turnu Severin.
eClassica	- eClassica. Centro des Estudos Clássicos. Lisabona.
EF	- Einband-Forschung, Informationsblatt des Arbeitskreises für die Erfassung, Erschliessung und Erhaltung Historischer Bucheinbände (AEB). Berlin.
EJCE	- European Journal of Contemporary Education. Academic Publishing House Researcher. Bratislava.
EJST	- European Journal of Science and Theology. Gheorghe Asachi Technical University of Jassy.
EO	- Etnograficheskoye obozreniye. Institut etnologii i antropologii RAN. Moskva.
EphNap	- Ephemeris Napocensis. Institutul de Arheologie și Istoria Artei Cluj-Napoca.
EPK	- Egyetemes Philologiai Közlöny. Akadémiai Kiadó. Budapest.
ER	- Exportgut Reformation. Veröffentlichungen des Instituts für Europäische Geschichte Mainz. Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht. Göttingen.
ESTuar	- ESTuar. Online. București.
Familia	- Familia (seria I: 1865-1906). Oradea.
FI	- File de Istorie. Muzeul de Istorie Bistrița (continuată de RB).
FM	- Europäische Zeitschrift für Mineralogie, Kristallographie, Petrologie, Geochemie und Lagerstättenkunde. Deutschen Mineralogischen Gesellschaft. Stuttgart.
Folklore	- Folklore. Centre de Documentation et le Musée Audois des Arts et Traditions populaires. Carcassonne. Montpellier.
Gazeta ilustrată	- Gazeta ilustrată. Literară. Politică. Economică. Socială. Cluj.
GeoJournal	- GeoJournal. Spatially Integrated Social Sciences and Humanities. Springer Science and Business Media (Netherlands).
GT	- Geographia Technica. Geographia Technica Association. Cluj University Press. Cluj-Napoca.
HE	- Historia Ecclesiastica. Prešovská univerzita. Prešov.
HHCT	- History and Historians in the Context of the Time. Academic Publishing House Researcher. Bratislava.

Lista abrevierilor de periodice

HHR	- Hungarian Historical Review. Institute of History, Research Centre for the Humanities. Hungarian Academy of Sciences. Budapest.
Hierasus	- Hierasus. Muzeul Județean Botoșani.
Historica Carpatica	- Historica Carpatica. Zborník Východoslovenského múzea v Košiciach. Košice.
HL	- Humanistica Lovaniensia. Journal of Neo-Latin Studies. Seminarium Philologiae Humanisticae. Leuven.
HQ	- The Hungarian Quarterly. The Hungarian Quarterly Society. Budapest.
HS	- Historické štúdie. Historický ústav slovenskej akadémie vied. Bratislava.
Hyphen	- Hyphen. A Journal of Melitensia and the Humanities. The New Lyceum (Arts), Msida, Malta.
IJCS	- International Journal of Conservation Science. Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Jassy.
IJHCS	- International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies. University of Gafsa.
INT	- Istoriya nauki i tekhniki. Izdatel'stvo „Reaktiv”. Ufa.
IV	- Istoricheskii vestnik. Moskva.
IS	- Izvestiya Samarskogo tsentra Rossiiskoi akademii nauk. Samara.
IYZGU	- Izvestiya Yugo-Zapadnogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Yugo-Zapadnyi gosudarstvennyi universitet. Kursk.
Izvestiya ANKSSR	- Izvestiya Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy Sovetskoy Sotsialisticheskoy Respubliki. Seriya obshchestvennykh nauk. Alma-Ata.
Îndrumător bisericesc	- Îndrumător bisericesc misionar și patriotic. Episcopia Aradului. Arad.
Îndrumător pastoral	- Îndrumător pastoral. Episcopia Ortodoxă Română de Alba Iulia.
JBS	- The Journal of Baroque Studies. International Institute for Baroque Studies at the University of Malta.
JIA	- Journal of International Affairs. School of International and Public Affairs at Columbia University. New York.
JSRI	- Journal for the Study of Religions & Ideologies. The Academic Society for the Research of Religions and Ideologies. Cluj-Napoca.
Kniha	- Kniha. Matica slovenská. Martin.
Knižničný zborník	- Knižničný zborník. Matica slovenská. Martin.
LAR	- Literatură și artă română. Idei, simțire, formă. București.

Limba română	- Limba română. Institutul de Lingvistică al Academiei Române „Iorgu Iordan - Al. Rosetti”. București.
Luceafărul	- Luceafărul. Revistă literară (1902-1945). Budapesta.
MA	- Mitropolia Ardealului. Revista oficială a Arhiepiscopiei Sibiului, Arhiepiscopiei Vadului, Feleacului și Clujului, Episcopiei Alba Iuliei și Episcopiei Oradiei. Sibiu (1956-1991).
Magyar Nyelvőr	- Magyar Nyelvőr. A Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Nyelvtudományi Intézet. Budapest.
Magyarország	- Magyarország. Budapest.
MCA	- Materiale și cercetări arheologice. București.
ME	- Memoria Ethnologica. Centrul Județean pentru Conservarea și Promovarea Culturii Tradiționale Maramureș. Baia Mare.
MH	- Melita Historica. Malta Historical Society.
MK	- Magyar Könyvszemle. Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Budapest. Irodalomtudományi Intézet Országos Széchényi Könyvtár Budapest.
MKS	- Magyar Könyv-Szemle. A Magyar Tudományos Akadémia - Irodalomtudományi Intézet. Budapest.
MLN	- Modern Language Notes. The Johns Hopkins University Press. Baltimore.
MN	- Muzeul Național. Muzeul Național de Istorie a României. București.
MP	- Magyar Pedagógia. A Magyar Pedagógiai Társaság. Budapest.
Muzeum	- Muzeum. Muzejní a vlastivedná práce. National Museum. Prague.
NLWJ	- The National Library of Wales Journal. The National Library of Wales. Aberystwyth.
Noema	- Noema. Comitetul Român de Istoria și Filosofia Științei și Tehnicii. București.
NNI	- Novaya i noveishaya istoriya. Rossiiskaya akademiya nauk. Moskva.
NP	- Novoe proshloe. Yuzhnyi federal'nyi universitet. Rostov-na-Donu.
NS	- Nasledie i sovremennost'. Rossiyskiy nauchno-issledovatel'skiy institut kul'turnogo i prirodnogo naslediya im. D. S. Likhacheva. Moskva.
NVBU	- Nauchnye vedomosti Belgorodskogo universiteta. Seriya Istoriya. Politologiya. Ekonomika. Informatika. Belgorodskiy natsional'nyy issledovatel'skiy universitet. Belgorod.
OK	- Orvostörténeti Közleményel (Communicationes de historia artis medicinae). Budapest Semmelweis

Lista abrevierilor de periodice

	Orvostorteneti Muzeum Es Konyvtar And Magyar Orvostortelenmi Tarsasag. Budapest.
Orizont	- Orizont. Timișoara.
ORP	- Odrodzenie i reformacja w Polsce. Instytut Historii Polskiej Akademii Nauk. Warszawa.
PA	- Patrimonium Apulense. Direcția Județeană pentru Cultură Alba. Alba Iulia.
PB	- Patrimonium Banaticum. Direcția Județeană pentru Cultură Timiș. Timișoara.
Pediatria	- Pediatria de Atención Primaria. Publicación Oficial de la Asociación Española de Pediatría de Atención Primaria.
PH	- Prace Historyczne. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego. Uniwersytet Jagielloński w Krakowie.
Poarta Inimii	- Poarta inimii. Alba Iulia.
Programm Mühlbach	- Programm Mühlbach. Programm des evaghelischen Untergymnasium in Mühlbach und der damit verbundenen Lehranstalten. Sebeș.
PS	- Protestáns Szemle. Magyar Protestáns Irodalmi Társaság. Budapest.
RA	- Russkii arkhiv. Academic Publishing House Researcher. Bratislava.
RAPPS	- Revista de Administrație Publică și Politici Sociale. Universitatea de Vest „Vasile Goldiș” din Arad.
RB	- Revista Bistriței. Complexul Muzeal Bistrița-Năsăud. Bistrița.
RE	- Revista economică. Lucian Blaga University of Sibiu.
REF	- Revista de Etnografie și Folclor. Institutul de Etnografie și Folclor „Constantin Brăiloiu”. Academia Română. București.
Revista Arheologică	- Revista Arheologică. Centrul de Arheologie al Institutului Patrimoniului Cultural al Academiei de Științe a Moldovei. Chișinău.
RFR	- Revista Fundațiilor Regale. Revistă lunară de literatură, artă și cultură generală. București.
RH	- Roczniki Humanistyczne. Towarzystwo Naukowe Katolickiego Uniwersytetu Lubelskiego Jana Pawła II. Lublin.
RHSEE/RESEE	- Revue historique du sud-est européen. Academia Română. București, Paris (din 1963 Revue des études sud-est européennes).
RI	- Revista de Istorie (din 1990 Revista istorică). Academia Română. București.
RJMH	- The Romanian Journal of Modern History. Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Jassy.

RM	- Revista Muzeelor. București.
RMM	- Revista Muzeelor și Monumentelor. București.
RMV	- Revue de médecine vétérinaire. Ecole Nationale Vétérinaire de Toulouse.
România literară	- România literară. Săptămânal de literatură și artă. București.
Rossiiskaya istoriya	- Rossiiskaya istoriya. Akademicheskii nauchno-izdatel'skiy, proizvodstvenno-poligraficheskiy i knigorasprostranitel'skiy tsentr Nauka. Moskva.
RRH	- Revue Roumaine d'Histoire. Academia Română. București.
RT	- Revista Teologică (între anii 1956 și 1991 a apărut sub denumirea de Mitropolia Ardealului). Mitropolia Ardealului. Sibiu.
SA	- Sovetskaya arkheologiya. Akademiya Nauk SSSR. Moskva.
SAI	- Studii și articole de istorie. Societatea de Științe Istorice și Filologice a RPR. București.
Samus Sargetia	- Samus. Muzeul Municipal Dej. - Sargetia. Acta Musei Devensis. Muzeul Civilizației Dacice și Romane Deva.
SCA	- Studii și Cercetări de Antropologie. Institutul de Antropologie „Francisc I. Rainer”. Academia Română. București.
SCIA	- Studii și Cercetări de Istoria Artei. Seria Artă Plastică. București.
SCIV(A)	- Studii și cercetări de istoria veche (din 1974, Studii și cercetări de istorie veche și arheologie). București.
Slavyanskii al'manakh	- Slavyanskii al'manakh. Institut slavyanovedeniya Rossiiskoi akademii nauk. Moskva.
SMIC	- Studii și materiale de istorie contemporană. Institutul de Istorie „Nicolae Iorga” al Academiei Române. București.
SMIM	- Studii și materiale de istorie modernă. Institutul de Istorie „Nicolae Iorga” al Academiei Române. București.
Sovremennik	- Sovremennik. Sankt Petersburg.
SPST	- Sovremennye problem servisa i turizma. Russian State University of Tourism and Service. Moscow.
SS	- The Social Sciences. Western Social Association. Dubai.
Studia Studii	- Studia. Transilvania Express. Brașov. - Studii. Revistă de istorie (din 1974 Revista de istorie și din 1990 Revista istorică). Academia Română. București.

Lista abrevierilor de periodice

- SUP** - Studi Umanistici Pieni. Istituto Internazionale di Studi Pieni. Sassoferato.
- Századok** - Századok. A Magyar Történelmi Társulat. Budapest.
- Terra Sebus** - Terra Sebus. Acta Musei Sabesiensis. Muzeul Municipal „Ioan Raica” Sebeș.
- TIIAE** - Trudy Instituta Istorii, Arkheologii i Etnografii. Akademii Nauk Kazakhskoy Sovetskoy Sotsialisticheskoy Respubliki. Alma-Ata.
- TNK** - Trudy NII kul'tury. Ministerstvo kul'tury RSFSR. Moskva.
- TR** - Transylvanian Review. Centrul de Studii Transilvane al Academiei Române. Cluj-Napoca.
- Transilvania** - Transilvania. Centrul Cultural Interetnic Transilvania. Sibiu.
- TS** - Theologiai Szemle. A Magyarországi Egyházak Ökumenikus Tanácsa. Budapest.
- TT** - Testimonia Theologica. Evanjelická bohoslovecká fakulta Komenského univerzity v Bratislave.
- Unirea** - Unirea. Alba Iulia.
- UR** - Ungarische Revue. Magyar Tudományos Akadémia. Budapest.
- VAH** - Varia Archaeologica Hungarica. Budapest.
- Valori bibliofile** - Valori bibliofile din patrimoniul cultural național. Cercetare, valorificare. Consiliul Culturii și Educației Socialiste. Muzeul Județean Vâlcea. Râmnicu Vâlcea.
- VChGU** - Vestnik Chelyabinskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Chelyabinskii gosudarstvennyi universitet. Chelyabinsk.
- VE** - Vestnik Evropy. Sankt Petersburg.
- Verbum** - Verbum. Revista catolică. București.
- Vestnik Tverskogo** - Vestnik Tverskogo Gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Seriya Istoriya. Tver.
- Vestnik VEGU** - Vestnik VEGU. Vostochnaya ekonomiko-yuridicheskaya gumanitarnaya akademiya. Akademiya VEGU. Ufa.
- VI** - Voprosy istorii. Institut russkoy istorii Rossiyskoy akademii nauk. Moskva.
- Viața românească** - Viața Românească. Revistă literară și științifică. Iași.
- VMKK** - A Veszprém Megyei Múzeumok Közleményei. Veszprém.
- Vox libri** - Vox libri. Biblioteca Județeană „Ovid Densusăianu” Deva.
- VS** - Voennyi Sbornik. Academic Publishing House Researcher. Bratislava.
- VV** - Vestnik vospitaniya. Moskva.

- Zalai Múzeum** - Zalai Múzeum. Zala. Múzeumok Igazgatósága. Zalaegerszeg.
- ZfE** - Zeitschrift für Ethnologie. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Völkerkunde und Berliner Gesellschaft für Anthropologie Ethnologie und Urgeschichte. Berlin.
- ZfhWK** - Zeitschrift für historische Waffen- und Kostümkunde. Dresdner Verein für Waffenkunde. Berlin.
- ZfTZ** - Zeitschrift für Tierzüchtung und Züchtungsbiologie: Organ der Reichsarbeitsgemeinschaft Tierzucht im Forschungsdienst (continua: Zeitschrift für Züchtung. Reihe B, Tierzüchtung und Züchtungsbiologie). Berlin, Hamburg.