



World Scientific News

An International Scientific Journal

WSN 114 (2018) 137-151

EISSN 2392-2192

Specific features of the culture during the colonial period. A case of Samarkand city

Siddikova Mastura Khakberdievna

History Faculty of Samarkand State University, Samarkand city, Uzbekistan

E-mail address: sidikova2016@inbox.ru

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates Samarkand city with the comparisons of the past and current times. Paper makes deep analyses of the lifestyle and cultural values with the connection to the tourism sector as the whole. Analyses of the author made possibilities of the development of further deployment.

Keywords: Samarkand, city culture, local people, industry, markets, buildings, production, train, wine, factory, factory

1. INTRODUCTION

The historic town of Samarkand, located in a large oasis in the valley of the Zerafshan River, in the north-eastern region of Uzbekistan, is considered the crossroads of world cultures with a history of over two and a half millennia. Evidence of settlements in the region goes back to 1500 BC, with Samarkand having its most significant development in the Timurid period, from the 14th to the 15th centuries, when it was capital of the powerful Timurid realm (Hunter, 2002; Kantarci, 2007; Newswire, 2012).

The historical part of Samarkand consists of three main sections. In the north-east there is the site of the ancient city of Afrosiab, founded in the 7th century BC and destroyed by Genghis Khan in the 13th century, which is preserved as an archaeological reserve.

Archaeological excavations have revealed the ancient citadel and fortifications, the palace of the ruler (built in the 7th century displays important wall paintings), and residential and craft quarters. There are also remains of a large ancient mosque built from the 8th to 12th centuries (Baxtishodovich, Suyunovich, & Kholiqulov, 2017; Megoran, Raballand, & Bouyjou, 2005).

To the south, there are architectural ensembles and the medieval city of the Temurid epoch of the 14th and 15th centuries, which played a seminal role in the development of town planning, architecture, and arts in the region. The old town still contains substantial areas of historic fabric with typical narrow lanes, articulated into districts with social centres, mosques, madrassahs, and residential housing (Kuralbayev, Myrzaliev, & Sevim, 2016; Turtureanu et al., 2012).

The traditional Uzbek houses have one or two floors and the spaces are grouped around central courtyards with gardens; built in mud brick, the houses have painted wooden ceilings and wall decorations. The contribution of the Temurid masters to the design and construction of the Islamic ensembles were crucial for the development of Islamic architecture and arts and exercised an important influence in the entire region, leading to the achievements of the Safavids in Persia, the Moghuls in India, and even the Ottomans in Turkey (Anonymous, 2010b; Unwto, 2013).

To the west there is the area that corresponds to the 19th and 20th centuries expansions, built by the Russians, in European style. The modern city extends around this historical zone. This area represents traditional continuity and qualities that are reflected in the neighbourhood structure, the small centres, mosques, and houses. Many houses retain painted and decorated interiors, grouped around courtyards and gardens (Lima & Moreira, 2014; Stokes, 2008; Tao & Wall, 2009).

The major monuments include the Registan mosque and madrasahs, originally built in mud brick and covered with decorated ceramic tiles, the Bibi-Khanum Mosque and Mausoleum, the Shakhi-Zinda compound, which contains a series of mosques, madrasahs and mausoleum, and the ensembles of Gur-Emir and Rukhabad, as well as the remains of Ulugh-Bek's Observatory (Anonymous, 2010a; Spechler, 2007).

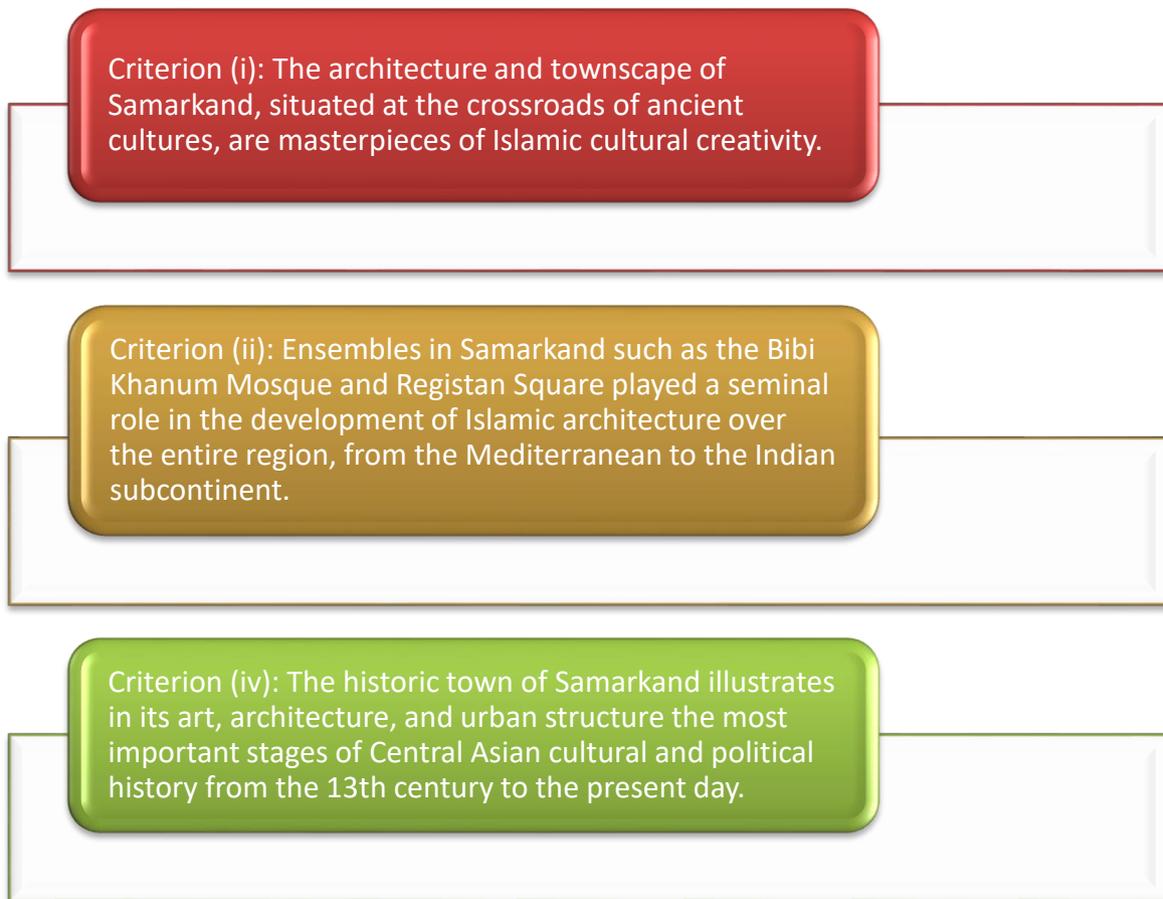
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Uzbekistan is considered as one of the developing countries of the Central Asia. According to its regional separation it is divided into 12 provinces (viloyatlar). Samarkand is the main part of the Samarqand Viloyati, which is divided into 14 administrative districts. Uzbekistan has issues with terrorism by Islamic militants, economic stagnation, and the curtailment of human rights (Abubakirova, Syzdykova, Kelesbayev, Dandayeva, & Ermankulova, 2016; Kenebayeva, 2017; Law, 2007).

Uzbekistan in 2008 was the world's second-largest cotton exporter and fifth largest producer, relying heavily on cotton for export earnings, along with gold, natural gas, and oil. Uzbekistan's per capita gross domestic product was estimated at \$USD 2400 in 2007. Samarkand is the second largest center for economy, science, and culture in Uzbekistan, after Tashkent (Akbarzadeh, 1996; Megoran et al., 2005; Werner, 2003).

The Registan, Shahi Zindah, and other ancient sites should be swarming with tourists, but in 2008 there were few groups of foreigners gaping at the marvels. In a country where statistics are a state secret, it is unclear how many foreign tourists visit and what revenues they bring in.

Samarkand province has significant natural resources, including marble, granite, limestone, carbonate, and chalk. Main agricultural activities include cotton and cereal growing, winemaking and sericulture (the rearing of silkworms for the production of raw silk). Industry involves manufacturing spare parts for automobiles and combines, food processing, textiles, and ceramics (Graph 1).



Graph 1. Criterion formularies of the Samarkand city

Integrity

The different historic phases of Samarkand's development from Afrosiab to the Temurid city and then to the 19th century development have taken place alongside rather than on top of each other. These various elements which reflect the phases of city expansion have been included within the boundaries of the property. The inscribed property is surrounded by more recent developments, of which parts are in the buffer zone. Afrosiab has been partly excavated and the Temurid and European parts of the city are being conserved as living historic urban areas (Adams, 2010; Seiple, 2005).

The main listed monuments are well maintained. Some of the medieval features have been lost, such as the city walls and the citadel, as well as parts of the traditional residential structures especially in areas surrounding major monuments. Nevertheless, it still contains a

substantial urban fabric of traditional Islamic quarters, with some fine examples of traditional houses. Notwithstanding, there are several factors that can render the integrity of the property vulnerable that require sustained management and conservation actions.

Authenticity

The architectural ensembles of Samarkand as well as archaeological remains of Afrosiab have preserved all characteristic features related to the style and techniques and have maintained the traditional spatial plans of the urban quarter. However, inadequate restoration interventions as well as the challenges faced in controlling changes, particularly the construction of modern buildings, and the modernization on private properties have affected the authenticity of the property and make the property vulnerable to further changes.

Protection and management requirements

There are adequate legal provisions for the safeguarding of the heritage property. The State Samarkand Historical Architectural Reserve was established under the Decree of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan (26 May 1982). Within the Reserve all construction and development work is done according to the recommendations of the Samarkand Regional Inspection on Preservation and Restoration of Objects of Cultural Heritage (Apergis, Economics, & 2011, n.d.; Garkavenko & Baisakalova, 2014; Michael Hall & Page, 2016; Osman, Education, & 2007, n.d.).

The overall responsibility of the management of protected areas is with the Ministry of Cultural and Sport Affairs and the Samarkand provincial government. The operating bodies that influence the conservation and management of the property include the Ministry of Culture and Sports of the Republic of Uzbekistan and the Principal Scientific Board for Preservation and Utilization of Cultural Monuments, the Municipalities of the Samarkand Region and Samarkand city, the Samarkand Regional State Inspection on Protection and Utilization of Cultural Heritage Objects. Decisions on construction/reconstruction within the protective Reserve of Samarkand are taken in consultation with the Samarkand Regional State Inspection on Protection and Utilization of Monuments, or by the Scientific Board on Protection and Utilization of Monuments in Samarkand. Major projects receive approval at the national level (A Aw-Hassan, Korol, ..., & 2016, n.d.; Megoran et al., 2005).

The Regional State Inspection on Protection and Utilization of Cultural Heritage is in charge of day-to-day activities related to the monuments such as registration, monitoring, technical supervision of conservation and restoration, or technical expertise of new projects, these are implemented by the Scientific Board on Protection and Utilization of Monuments in Samarkand, which is obtaining the function of a Coordinating Committee and should have the main role to bring together all parties with interest in the conservation and development of Samarkand. Taking into account a scope and a complexity of issues facing the property, site management system could be strengthened through an operational unit.

The sustained implementation of the Management Plan is needed to ensure to further improve the cooperation between the various national and local authorities and set international standards for conservation. Several factors that can pose a threat to the conditions of integrity and authenticity of the property need to be systematically addressed through the implementation of an integrated conservation strategy, that follows internationally accepted conservation standards, as well as through the enforcement of regulatory measures.

The management system will need to be integrated into other planning tools so that the existing urban matrix and morphology of the world heritage property are protected.

Funding is provided by the State budget, extra-budgetary sources and sponsorship. Resources needed for all aspects of conservation and development of the property should be secured to ensure the continuous operation of the management system (Luong, 2004; Morrison, 2009).

3. HISTORY OF THE SAMARKAND CITY

Founded circa 700 B.C.E., Samarkand was the capital of the Sogdian satrapy under the Achaemenid dynasty of Persia when Alexander the Great conquered it in 329 B.C.E. Although a Persian-speaking region, it was not united politically with Iran between the times of Alexander and the Arab conquest. The Greeks referred to Samarkand as Maracanda.

In the sixth century it was within the domains of a Turkish kingdom. At the beginning of the eighth century, Samarkand came under Arab control. Under Abbasid rule, the legend says, the secret of papermaking was obtained from two Chinese prisoners from the Battle of Talas in 751, which led to the first paper mill in the Islamic world to be founded in Samarkand. The invention then spread to the rest of the Islamic world, and from there to Europe (Phillips & Jones, 2006; Pratt, 2015).

From the sixth to the thirteenth century, Samarkand grew steadily and was controlled by the Western Turks, Arabs (who converted the area to Islam), Persian Samanids, Kara-Khanid Turks, Seljuk Turks, Kara-Khitans, and Khorezmshah before being sacked by the Mongols under Genghis Khan in 1220. A small part of the population survived, but Samarkand suffered at least another Mongol sack by Khan Baraq in his quest to obtain the treasure he needed with which to pay an army. The town took many decades to recover from these disasters (Landau & Kellner-Heinkele, 2001; Studies & 1995, n.d.).

Marco Polo (1254-1324), who recorded his journey along the Silk Road, described Samarkand as "a very large and splendid city..." He also related the story of the Christian church in Samarkand, which miraculously remained standing after a portion of its central supporting column was removed.

In 1365, a revolt against Mongol control occurred in Samarkand. In 1370, Amir Temur, decided to make Samarkand the capital of his empire, which extended from India to Turkey. During the next 35 years he built a new city and populated it with artisans and craftsmen from all of the places he had conquered. Temur gained a reputation as a patron of the arts and Samarkand grew to become the center of the region of Transoxiana. During this time the city had a population of about 150,000.

In 1499, the Uzbek Turks took control of Samarkand. The Shaybanids emerged as the Uzbek leaders at or about this time.

In the sixteenth century, the Shaybanids moved their capital to Bukhara and Samarkand went into decline. After an assault by the Persian king, Nadir Shah (1698–1747), the city was abandoned in the eighteenth century, about 1720 or a few years later (Nurmagambetova & Agybetova, 2014; Rahmatullaev, Ganieva, & Khabibullaev, 2017).

From the 1720s to the 1770s, Samarkand was nearly deserted, and the madrasas on the Registan were turned into winter stables by nomads. From 1784, Samarkand was ruled by the emirs of Bukhara.

The city came under Russian rule after the citadel had been taken by a force under Colonel Alexander Abramov in 1868. Shortly thereafter, the small Russian garrison of 500 men were themselves besieged. The assault, which was led by Abdul Malik Tura, the rebellious elder son of the Bukharan Emir, and Bek of Shahrisabz, was beaten off with heavy losses. Abramov, now a general, became the first Governor of the Military Okrug which the Russians established along the course of the River Zaravshan, with Samarkand as the administrative center. The Russian section of the city was built after this point, largely to the west of the old city.

The city later became the capital of the Samarkand Oblast of Russian Turkestan and grew in importance still further when the Trans-Caspian railway reached the city in 1888. It became the capital of the Uzbek SSR in 1925 before being replaced by Tashkent in 1930.

Since somewhat reluctant independence from the Soviet Union in August, 1991, Uzbekistan has struggled with Islamic terrorist attacks, and authoritarian rule.

During that years the city artificially divided into two "old" and "new" parts. The arrival of the first train in Samarkand in 1888 led to a turning point in the industry, in the production of local artisans and the field of trade.

In May 1968, when the Russian Emperor's campaign against the Emirate of Bukhara, the battle at the Chopin hill at the gorge of Samarkand ended with defeat due to the inability of Muzaffar. The gates of Samarkand were dismantled, the walls surrounding it were destroyed, the city's fortress was destroyed. On June 28, 1868, according to the agreement between the ambassador of Muzaffar and K. Kaufman, the upper part of the river Samarkand, Kattakurgan and Zarafshan crossed the Russian Empire. On June 24, 1868, the Zarafshan district, which included the Samarkand and Kattakurgan branches, was formed. On June 12, 1886, Zarafshan district was transformed to Samarkand region by the adoption of the "Regulation on Turkestan Region Administration." The Samarkand city is the center of the

Samarkand region (Smykova, Mutaliev, & Baitenova, 2012; Winter, 2007; Xu, 2010).

From the first years of the Russian rule, the provincial government was largely controlled by the military. The Uezd administration employs five elders, 2 Star Wars, and more than 40 officers from local communities. During this period, the city of Samarkand was subdivided into a new, artificial 2-year-old and a new section for Russian administrators, soldiers, and residents. According to 1891, 364 "desyatina" of the old city made 2100 square meters and the new city - 229 "desyatina" - 400 square meters. There are 25 streets in the new town, surrounded by two terraces, ribbons, and 350 lighting lanterns. The streets were sprinkled two times a day for six months in spring and summer. The old part of the local population consisted of Hoja Akhrar, Khozangaran, Kalandarkhana and Juhutan.

The new part of the city was built mainly from the land taken from the local population, with a special emphasis on construction and improvement, improvement and supervision. The streets, bridges, and the construction of market spaces are funded without money. In the city built many buildings with double bricks and solid building materials. In the new city, there are built gothic, baroque and classic buildings by the three-dimensional compositions of the city of Marseille, Sankt-Peterburg, and Washington, designed mainly by Russian engineers. The Central Avenue, the main square of the city, the churches, the House of the Officers, the post office, military hospital, banks, women's gymnasium, two hospitals for 87 seats and other buildings. Architect G. N. Chabrov wrote about the construction of a new part of Samarkand. "In the new part of the city, there are large streets, squares, modern buildings, and oasis gardens, and all this creates favorable conditions for the population to live in."

The results of revision of the life of the country by Girs in 1882 show that the costs of a new part of large cities such as Samarkand and Tashkent are covered by old city revenues which have caused the local people's dissatisfaction. For the new part of Samarkand, the old city has been paid 4,000 rubles annually. There are about 70 shops and streets, two beer, two wine, one vodka, two mineral water, and lemonade plants, dressing and sewing workshops.

The old part of the city has been neglected. The urban structure has maintained its traditional status. The author of that period, Vasiliy VI, wrote that the streets of the old city were narrow and curved. In the old town, the head office of the uezd, located in the city's agricultural management. In the old town in 1871 there were 116 big streets, of which 15 were flattened, trees were planted, the rest were narrow and dusty. The main streets are equipped with 55 paraffin lamps. Later in Samarkand, a women's and children hospital, a station, two women's and children's outpatient clinics were opened (Anonymous, 2010b; Management & 2007, n.d.). In the old city there were workshops, craftsmen, locksmiths, goldsmiths, mischiefs, bakers, and artisans who made painters. According to Jesus Jabborov, 29% of the population of Samarkand was self-employed. For the first time in Samarkand, trainers in Central Asia have set up a new set-up for knitting machines to facilitate their work and accelerate their product quality.

Craftsmanship has long been developed in Samarkand. However, his labor was very heavy because of the high level of handicraft, and the salary was very small. The working hours of craftsmen were 14 hours and, in some cases, 18 hours. The salary was very low. The average salary of craftsmen in ginneries ranges from 130 to 184 rubles a year. Also, products imported from Russia in Turkestan were destroyed by this type of craftsman. Many artisan workshops have fallen into crisis and have gone to work. According to Senator Palen, a local textile workshops that could not withstand the Russian textile industry competition, in Samarkand region, from 1905 to 1908, the number decreased to 132.

Construction of the railway in Samarkand in 1881 led to the rapid development of industrial enterprises in the city. Inexpensive labor in the city and Russian people in business, widely used in local products, begin to build various industrial enterprises in the colonial lands. First of all, they focus on alcohol and cotton ginning. Because these two types of production goods and labor were cheap and foreign countries had a high demand for these products. One of those Russian businessmen, D.L.Filatov, began to build a vodka plant in Samarkand in 1870 by buying a large vineyard (Anonymous, 2010a; Aden Aw-Hassan et al., 2016; Mukhambetov, Janguttinav, Esaidar, Myrzakulova, & Imanbekova, 2014; Nurmagambetova & Agybetova, 2014).

Domestic and foreign trade has long been established in the Zarafshan district. Their main source of income was the market. Traditions in Samarkand, Kattakurgan, Panjikent, Uratapa, Yangikurgan, Dahbet, and Urgut districts were quite successful.

4. TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF SAMARKAND CITY

Samarkand city has been considered as one of the major touristic city of the Uzbekistan and Central Asia as the whole. City has great atmosphere, cultural values, ancient monuments, unique lifestyle and so on. The Registan Square, the age of old intersection of the Silk Road trade routes, is the reason why people come to Samarkand.

It is the centerpiece of the city is one of the most important monuments of Islamic arts (Picture 1 & 2).



Picture 1. Magic city Samarkand



Picture 2. Major monuments of the city

Although the old center has not really survived, you can find reminders of the greatness of the rulers of Samarkand, especially Ulughbek and Tamerlane, all over town (Bifulco & Leone, 2014; Simon & Zhou, 2017; Sobirov, 2018).

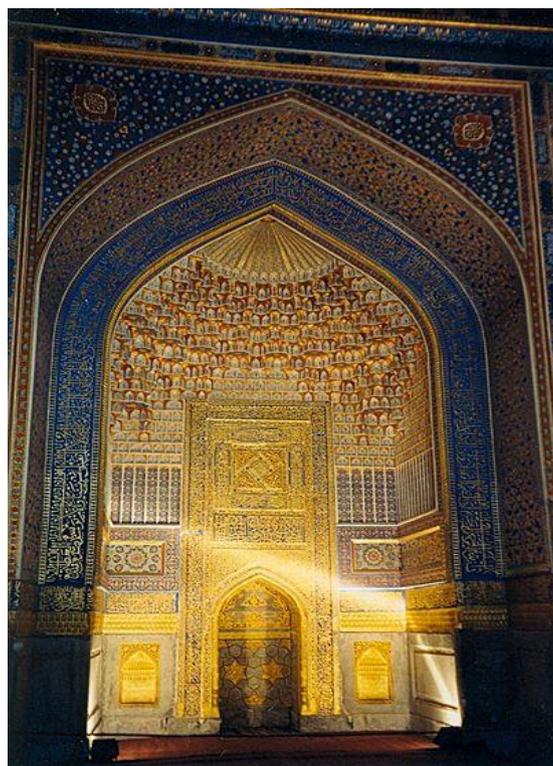
There is the Khodja Abdi Darun Shrine, the Chupan Ata Shrine, and a central bazaar street market. Other buildings and sites of interest include:

Bibi Khanym Mosque, which was built between 1399 and 1404 by Timur using precious stones captured during his conquest of India, was one of the Islamic world's largest mosques which crumbled for centuries before collapsing in an 1897 earthquake.

Ulughbek Observatory, which is a small museum of astronomy that stands on the remains of the observatory of Ulugh-Beg, a Timurid ruler and astronomer.

The Shahr-i-Zindar Monuments, which are tombs belonging to Timur and his family and favorites that are decorated with the city's finest majolica tilework. The Sher Dor, Ulugbek, and Tillya Kori Madrasahs, which are the three Muslim clergy academies surrounding the Registan.

The Afrasiab, which is the site of an ancient settlement that existed more than two thousand years ago. The Gur Emir Mausoleum, which is the grave of Timur, built in 1404. The Samarkand market was one-third of the city, one side extending from the Registan Square to the Gate of the King and the other to the Kalandarho and Gozangaran gates. Most of the monuments are believed as a unique one in the destination (Picture 3).

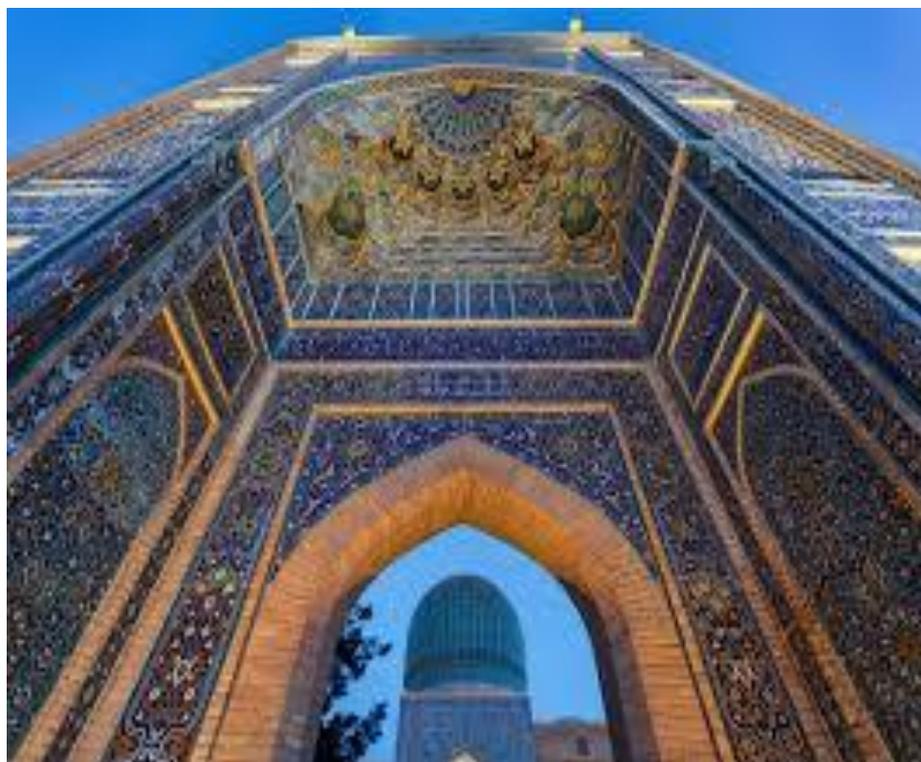


Picture 3. Unique monuments of Samarkand city.

Every Sunday, the retail market was a great market on Wednesday and Sunday. At the same time, the Samarkand market had a leading position in the sale of bread and bakery products and agricultural products. In 1924, there were 23 markets in Samarkand, eight shopping centers and 546 shopping malls, kiosks, and shops (A Aw-Hassan et al., n.d.; Djanibekov, Hornidge, & Ul-Hassan, 2012; Scarnecchia, 2004).

Colonial policy in Turkistan The first train arrived in Samarkand on May 20, 1888, with the aim of bringing the raw materials of the country faster and worse to the Russian land. The 1818 km long train from Krasnovodsk to Samarkand has been built for less than eight years. It is located at 7 km from the Samarkand City Railway Station and is connected to the Kukushka

railroad track, which runs 2-3 times a day and half an hour. City has great history and people on this case they also have illustrated building on different colors (Picture 4).



Picture 4. Unique illustration of sightseeing places.

In 1880 there were 31 madrasahs in Samarkand, where the imams, judges, mezzo and mudarris were prepared. Mudarris and students lived mainly from the foundations of the foundation. Reading in Madrassah is divided into three stages. The academic year began in October and ended in April-May. The study is held four days a week, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, with classes in Arabic, Persian and Turkish. According to the 1897 population list in Russia, there were 5281 thousand people in 5 provinces of Turkestan, 860 thousand in the Samarkand region. The population of Samarkand was 342,197 people. As a result of the development of industry in Samarkand, the population of the city has grown year by year due to the fact that the population of the new populations has been migrated (Abubakirova et al., 2016).

5. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, in the years of the colonial period, city culture in Samarkand has undergone a period of controversy. In the city, textile shops of factories and factories have been built in many modern European-style buildings and amusement parks. At the same time, the first engineering, communication, and logistics services were launched in the city.

The city began to be a modern European-style city. There are some critical shortcomings in the city as well. In particular, the construction of the city and the development of the local part of the "old city" were behind, and the historical part of the city collapsed. Industrial plants, especially the spirits factory and similar plants and factories that damage the city's ecology, were built in the city center. The failure of this kind of waterfall engineering continued during the Soviet era.

Reference

- [1] Abubakirova, A., Syzdykova, A., Kelesbayev, D., Dandayeva, B., & Ermankulova, R. (2016). Place of Tourism in the Economy of Kazakhstan Republic. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 39, 3–6. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(16\)30232-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(16)30232-5)
- [2] Aalto, P. (2007). Russia's quest for international society and the prospects for regional-level international societies. *International Relations*, 21(4), 459–478.
- [3] Aris, S. (2011). Eurasian regionalism: The Shanghai cooperation organization. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [4] Ascheron, N. (1981). The Polish August. The self-limiting revolution. New York: The Viking Press.
- [5] Ayoob, M. (1999). From regional system to regional society: exploring key variables in the construction of regional order. *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, 53(3), 247–260.
- [6] Bartelson, J. (1996). Short circuits: society and tradition in international relations theory. *Review of International Studies*, 22(4), 339–360.
- [7] Berridge, G. (1980). The political theory and institutional history of states systems. *British Journal of International Studies*, 6, 82–92.
- [8] Bull, H. (1971). Order versus justice in international society. *Political Studies*, 19, 47–59.
- [9] Bull, H. (1977). The anarchical society: A study of order in world politics. London: Macmillan.
- [10] Bull, H., & Watson, A. (1984). The expansion of international society. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- [11] Buranelli, F. C. (2013). Russia, Central Asia and the mediated expansion of international society. In Paper presented at the 54th ISA annual convention, April 3–6, San Francisco, CA, USA.
- [12] Butterfield, H., & Wight, M. (1966). Diplomatic investigations: Essays in the theory of international politics. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- [13] Buzan, B. (2004). From international to world society? Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Buzan, B. (1993). From international system to international society: structural realism and regime theory meet the English school. *International Organization*, 47, 327–352.

- [15] Buzan, B., & Gonzalez-Pelaez, A. (2009). *International society and the Middle East: English school theory at the regional level*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [16] Buzan, B., & Waever, O. (2003). *Regions and powers: The Structure of international security*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [17] Buzan, B., Jones, C., & Little, R. (1993). *The logic of anarchy: Neorealism to structural realism*. New York: Columbia University Press
- [18] Baxtishodovich, B. S., Suyunovich, T. I., & Kholiqulov, A. (2017). The start-up of tourism in Central Asia Case of. *World Scientific News*, 67(2), 219–237.
- [19] Bifulco, G. N., & Leone, S. (2014). Exploiting the Accessibility Concept for Touristic Mobility. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 111, 432–439.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.076>
- [20] Djanibekov, N., Hornidge, A.-K., & Ul-Hassan, M. (2012). From joint experimentation to laissez-faire: transdisciplinary innovation research for the institutional strengthening of a water users association in Khorezm, Uzbekistan. *The Journal of Agricultural Education and Extension*, 18(4), 409–423.
- [21] Gilbert, M. (2012). *European integration: A concise history*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- [22] Ginsberg, R. H. (2010). *Demystifying the European Union: The enduring logic of regional integration*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- [23] Gong, G. (1984). *The standard of “Civilization” in international society*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- [24] Grader, S. (1988). The English school of international relations: evidence and evaluation. *Review of International Studies*, 18, 217–240.
- [25] Halliday, F. (1992). International society as homogeneity: Marx, Burke, and Fukuyama. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 21, 435–454.
- [26] Hoffmann, S. (1986). Hedley Bull and his contribution to international relations. *International Affairs*, 62, 365–372.
- [27] Hunter, S. T. (1996). *Central Asia since independence*. New York: Praeger.
- [28] James, A. (1978). International society. *British Journal of International Studies*, 4, 91–106.
- [29] James, A. (1993). System or society? *Review of International Studies*, 19, 269–288.
- [30] Jones, R. E. (1981). The English school of international relations: a case for closure. *Review of International Studies*, 14, 267–274
- [31] Hunter, C. (2002). Sustainable tourism and the touristic ecological footprint. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 4(1), 7–20.
<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016336125627>
- [32] Kantarci, K. (2007). Perceptions of Central Asia Travel Conditions: Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 15(2), 55–71. https://doi.org/10.1300/J150v15n02_04

- [33] Kenebayeva, A. S. (2017). How do rural tourism providers exploit opportunities? Insights from Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 21(2).
- [34] Landau, J., & Kellner-Heinkele, B. (2001). Politics of language in the ex-Soviet muslim states: Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, and Tajikistan.
- [35] Law, R. (2007). Internet and tourism in the Asia Pacific region. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660701243380>
- [36] Lima, S., & Moreira, J. (2014). *A semantic framework for touristic information systems. Hospitality, Travel, and Tourism: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications* Vol. 1. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-6543-9.ch011>
- [37] Linn, J. F. (2012). Central Asian regional integration and cooperation: Reality or mirage? *EDB Eurasian Integration Yearbook*, 96–117.
- [38] Neumann, B. I. (1994). A region-building approach to Northern Europe. *Review of International Studies*, 20, 53–74.
- [39] Neumann, B. I. (2002). Returning practice to the linguistic turn: The case of diplomacy. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 31(3), 627–651.
- [40] Megoran, N., Raballand, G., & Bouyjou, J. (2005). Performance, Representation and the Economics of Border Control in Uzbekistan. *Geopolitics*, 10(4), 712–740. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14650040500318498>
- [41] Michael Hall, C., & Page, S. J. (2016). *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism in Asia*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315768250>
- [42] Morrison, A. (2009). Russian Rule in Samarkand 1868-1910: A Comparison with British India. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199547371.001.0001>
- [43] Mukhambetov, T. I., Janguttinav, G. O., Esaidar, U. S., Myrzakulova, G. R., & Imanbekova, B. T. (2014). The life cycle of sustainable eco-tourism: A kazakhstan case study. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, 187, 39–49. <https://doi.org/10.2495/ST140041>
- [44] Nurmagambetova, A., & Agybetova, R. (2014). Tourism market of Kazakhstan: Key directions of increasing competitiveness of travel companies. *Actual Problems of Economics*, 156(6), 111–122.
- [45] Osman, G., Education, S. H.-T. I. and H., & 2007, undefined. (n.d.). Interaction, facilitation, and deep learning in cross-cultural chat: A case study. Elsevier.
- [46] Phillips, M. R., & Jones, A. L. (2006). Erosion and tourism infrastructure in the coastal zone: Problems, consequences and management. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 517–524. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.10.019>
- [47] Pratt, S. (2015). The Borat effect: Film-induced tourism gone wrong. *Tourism Economics*, 21(5), 977–993. <https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2014.0394>
- [48] Rahmatullaev, M., Ganieva, B., & Khabibullaev, A. (2017). Library and Information Science Education in Uzbekistan. *Slavic & East European Information Resources*, 18(1–2), 41–48. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15228886.2017.1322381>

- [49] Scarnecchia, D. L. (2004). Rangelands of the Arid and Semi-arid Zones of Uzbekistan. *Rangeland Ecology & Management*, 57(2), 227–228.
- [50] Seiple, C. (2005). Uzbekistan: Civil society in the Heartland. *Orbis*, 49(2), 245–259. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orbis.2005.01.011>
- [51] Simon, G. R., & Zhou, I. (2017). *American Journal of Business and Management* Vol. 6. Retrieved from <http://worldscholars.org/index.php/ajbm/article/view/894/pdf>
- [52] Smykova, M., Mutaliev, L., & Baitenova, L. (2012). Evaluation of strategic economic zones for tourism development in Kazakhstan. *Actual Problems of Economics*, 136(10), 508–517.
- [53] Sobirov, B. (2018). The concept of the tourist economic zone. Case of Uzbekistan. *World Scientific News*, 98, 34–45.
- [54] Spechler, M. C. (2007). Authoritarian politics and economic reform in Uzbekistan: Past, present and prospects. *Central Asian Survey*, 26(2), 185–202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02634930701517383>
- [55] Stokes, R. (2008). Tourism strategy making: Insights to the events tourism domain. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 252–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.03.014>
- [56] Tao, T. C. H., & Wall, G. (2009). Tourism as a sustainable livelihood strategy. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 90–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.03.009>
- [57] Paasi, A. (2009). The resurgence of the ‘Region’ and ‘Regional Identity’: Theoretical perspectives and empirical observations on regional dynamics in Europe. *Review of International Studies*, 35, 121–146.
- [58] Peña, A. M. (2015). Governing differentiation: On standardisation as political steering. *European Journal of International Relations*, 21(1), 52–75.
- [59] Pollack, A. M. (2001). International relations theory and European integration. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 39(2), 221–244.
- [60] Pouliot, V. (2008). The logic of practicality: A theory of practice of security communities. *International Organization*, 62(2), 257–288.
- [61] Ridanpää, J. (2015). Imagining and re-narrating regional identities. *Nordia Geographical Publications*, 44(4), 65–73.
- [62] Risse-Kappen, T. (1996). Exploring the nature of the beast: International relations theory and comparative policy analysis meet the European. *JCMS: Journal of Common Market Studies* Volume 34, Issue 1 March 1996 Pages 53-80
- [63] Rosset, D., & Svarin, D. (2014). The constraints of the past and the failure of Central Asian regionalism, 1994–2004. *REGION: Regional Studies of Russia, Eastern Europe, and Central Asia*, 3(2), 245–266.
- [64] Werner, C. (2003). The new silk road: Mediators and tourism development in Central Asia. *Ethnology*, 42(2), 141–159. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3773779>
- [65] Winter, T. (2007). Rethinking tourism in asia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(1), 27–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.06.004>

- [66] Xu, J. B. (2010). Perceptions of tourism products. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 607–610. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.06.011>