USSR

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3

DEMOCRACY IN PRACTICE

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U. S. S. R.
SPEAKS FOR ITSELF

VOLUME THREE

DEMOCRACY IN PRACTICE

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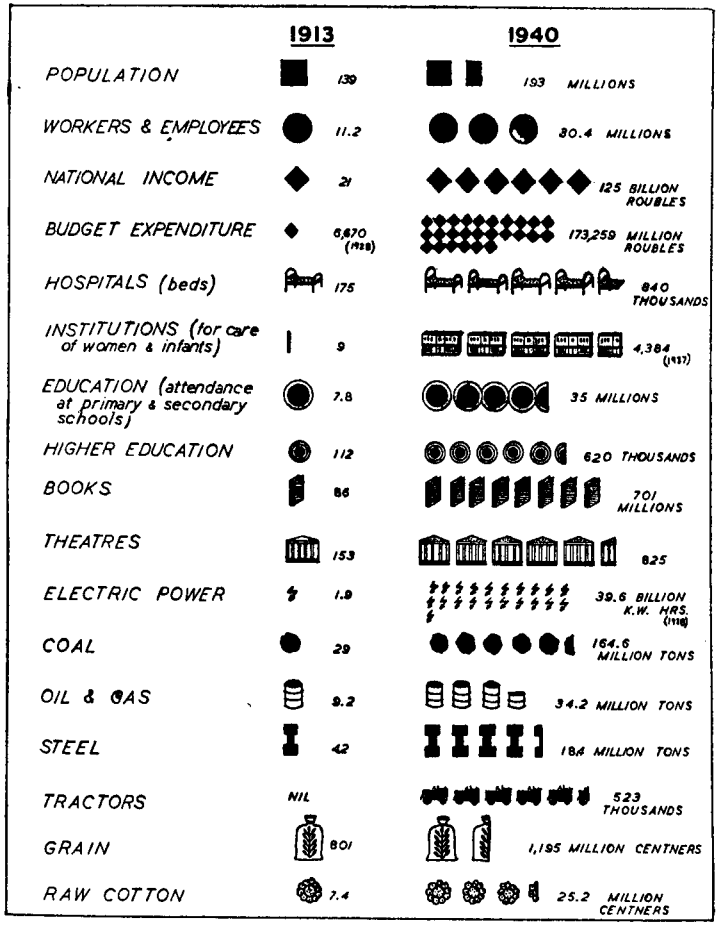
This series, U.S.S.R. Speaks for Itself, *consists of the following volumes, uniform in appearance and format.*

1. INDUSTRY
2. AGRICULTURE AND TRANSPORT
3. DEMOCRACY IN PRACTICE
4. CULTURE AND LEISURE

GROWTH OF THE U.S.S.R.

1913 figures are represented by one unit



The statistics on which the above diagram is based are those referred to in the Publishers' Note and are more recent therefore than the figures used in the various articles. The basic sources for the diagram are U.S.S.R. STATISTICS (Moscow); AMERICAN REVIEW ON THE SOVIET UNION (June 1941) published in New York by the American Russian Institute; the REPORT made by N. VOZNESENSKY to the 18TH ALL UNION CONFERENCE OF THE C.P.S.U. (B), February 1941, and since published as a pamphlet in English.

PUBLISHER'S NOTE.

During the last twenty years, hundreds of books about the Soviet Union have been published in England. Many of them have shown a sympathetic understanding of this great experiment in civilization, but many also have been marred by hostile prejudice, whether avowed or implicit. Only a very few have been the work of experts, qualified by training and experience both to observe and to report objectively; and, to whichever category they may belong, the greater majority of books that have appeared have been written by foreigners.

It is therefore the special interest of the present series, *U.S.S.R. Speaks for Itself,* that all the articles have been contributed by Soviet citizens actually engaged in the work which they describe. Moreover in every case the author is a distinguished specialist in his subject, occupying a position of honour and responsibility in Soviet Society, sometimes as a member of the Academy of Sciences, sometimes as a member of the Supreme Soviet—and often enough as both. Thus in these four small volumes, *Industry, Agriculture and Transport, Democracy in Practice, Culture and Leisure,* we have a picture of unrivalled authenticity of the material and spiritual strength of our great ally in the war against Fascism.

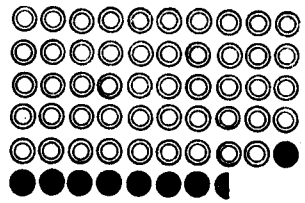
The articles were originally prepared as separate brochures in connection with the New York World's Fair, 1939, and the present volumes are only a selection from a very much larger number. At the time they were written two Five-Year Plans had been completed and the third had just commenced, but such is the tremendous rapidity of progress in the U.S.S.R. that already by the end of 1940 further huge increases in production had been achieved. In order therefore to bring the statistical material up to date we give below extracts from the report made on February 18, 1941, to the Eighteenth All Union Conference of the Communist

BUDGET OF THE U.S.S.R. FOR 1941

REVENUE

216,840,000,000 *Rubles*

Increase of 21% *on previous year*



TURNOVER TAX
on Industry and State and Co-operative Trade
124,500 *million rubles.*

PROFITS TAX
31,000 *million rubles.*

STATE SOCIAL INSURANCE
10,000 *million rubles.*

STATE LOANS
13,000 *million rubles.*

INCOME AND AGRICULTURAL TAX
10,842 *million rubles.*

OTHER ITEMS
27,498 *million rubles.*

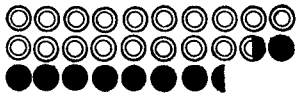
Each circle equals 1% or 2,168.4 *million rubles.*
Black circles denote increase over previous year.

The basic source of this diagram is the speech by Zverev, People's Commissar for Finance of the U.S.S.R., made at the 8th Session of the Supreme Soviet in February, 1941

EXPENDITURE

216,052,000,000 *Rubles*

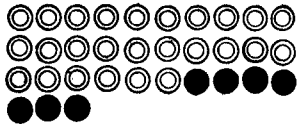
Increase of 23% *on previous year*



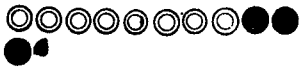
NATIONAL ECONOMY
New Factories, Mines, Electric and Power Plants, Transport and Communications, Research, etc.
59,320 *million rubles.*

AGRICULTURE
Credits and Technical Equipment to Collective Farms, 387 New Tractor Stations, Experimental Stations, Irrigation, etc.
13,580 *million rubles.*

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL SERVICES
Education, Health, Pensions, Protection of Mothers and Children, Sanatoria and Rest Homes, etc.
47,800 *million rubles.*



DEFENCE
70,900 *million rubles.*



OTHER ITEMS
24,452 *million rubles.*

Each circle equals 1% or 2,160.52 *million rubles.*
Black circles denote increase over previous year.

Party of the Soviet Union by N. VOZNEZENSKY, the Chairman of the State Planning Committee.[1]

"I now pass to the material and cultural standards of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

"The systematic growth of the national income of our country[2] and hence of the social wealth and the personal consumption of the working people, is due to the fact that new contingents of workers, collective farmers and intellectuals are constantly being drawn into production, as well as to the increasing productivity of labour.

"The size of the working class in the U.S.S.R. is growing from year to year. The number of workers and office employees engaged in the national economy increased to 30,400,000 in 1940, as compared with 27,000,000 in 1937. According to the plan for 1941 the number of workers and office employees is to increase to 31,600,000.

"The continual development of industry demands the systematic replenishment of the working class with new skilled forces and a proper distribution of labour power among the various branches and regions such as the interests of the national economy warrant.

"In 1940, on the initiative of Comrade Stalin, the Party and Government began to create state labour reserves by training skilled forces of young workers in trade schools and factory training schools.

"In 1941 it is proposed to enrol an additional 350,000 new students in the trade and railway schools, and

[1]In the other volumes of this series further extracts from the Report are given relating to the subject of the particular volume.

[2]Details of this growth may be found in the passages from Voznezensky's Report quoted in Volume I of this series, *Industry*, or in the full Report which is published separately, (price 6d.).

537,000 in the factory training schools. Already in 1941 socialist industry will be reinforced by 794,000 young skilled workers who have been through the factory training schools.

"The steps taken by the Party and Government to create state labour reserves are of fundamental importance in determining the qualitative and quantitative composition of the working class, in further advancing our industry, and in placing the Socialist planning of the national economy on a firm footing.

"The rising standard of living of the people of the U.S.S.R. is attended by a rise in the level of culture. State appropriations for social and cultural services, which amounted to 35,200 million rubles in 1938, increased to 41,700 million rubles, or by 18.5 per cent, in 1940. The draft state budget for 1941 provides for an increase in expenditure on social and cultural services to 47,800 million rubles, 14.6 per cent more than in the previous year.

"The cultural progress of the peoples of the Soviet Union is indicated by a further increase in the number of school pupils and university students. The total number of elementary and secondary school children in the school year 1941-42 will reach 36,200,000, or an increase of 3.4 per cent over 1940-41. The number of university students will reach 657,000, or an advance of almost 13 per cent.

"The increase in the number of students in 1941 and the growth of the number of engineers and technicians in industry will mark a further step in the cultural and technical advancement of the peoples of the Soviet Union. The people, their culture and their productive skill, these are the decisive productive force in our society.

"During the period of the Five-Year Plans the Soviet people have advanced immensely in culture and in the acquisition of technical skill. Very interesting in this respect are the figures of the last census in the U.S.S.R.

"As you know, the census shows that between 1926 and 1939 the population of the Soviet Union increased by 16 per cent. But just see how fast the forces of skilled workers and intellectuals in the Soviet Union increased in the same period:

	Increase
a) Workers:	
Mechanics	3.7 times
Turners	6.8 ,,
Millwrights	13.0 ,,
Locomotive Drivers	4.4 ,,
Plasterers	7.0 ,,
Tractor Drivers	215.0 ,,
b) Intellectuals:	
Engineers	7.7 ,,
Agronomists	5.0 ,,
Scientists	7.1 ,,
Teachers	3.5 ,,
Physicians	2.3 ,,

"Such are the chief indices of the rising material and cultural standard of the peoples of the U.S.S.R."

SOVIET DEMOCRACY

By I. Trainin

MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE U.S.S.R.

SOVIET democracy is the expression of the sovereignty of the Soviet people, exercised through the medium of their Socialist state.

The principles of Soviet democracy were affirmed by the Great October Socialist Revolution. These principles were later consolidated in the severe battles of the Civil War, in the struggle against the numerous enemies of Soviet power. In this war the exploiting classes were supported by foreign interventionists who strove to subjugate the country and its people.

The working people of the U.S.S.R. have not only liberated themselves, once and for all, from the yoke of the exploiting classes, but have upheld their national independence against the attacks of foreign interventionists.

But this was not the end of the struggle. Routed in open battle, the enemies of the Soviet state attempted to offer resistance by other means. They organized conspiracies against the Soviet Government and insinuated themselves into the Soviet state apparatus in order to use it to the detriment of the working people.

Under the conditions of Civil War and the subsequent struggle against the covert agents of the defeated classes, there could be no equality between the people who were defending what they had won in the revolution and the remnants of the exploiting classes, who persisted in their efforts to continue their subversive activities. This explains why, prior to the adoption of the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R. in 1936, there were franchise restrictions in the case of the bourgeoisie and persons who had constituted the pillars

of the overthrown regime—former members of the tsarist police and gendarmerie, etc.

The Communist Party and the Soviet Government, however, never regarded the restriction of rights, and particularly the disfranchisement of certain groups, as a measure for all time.

As far back as 1919, during the Civil War, V. I. Lenin stressed the fact that ". . . in the not distant future the cessation of foreign invasion and the completion of the expropriation of the expropriators may, under certain conditions, create a situation in which the proletarian state power will choose other methods of suppressing the resistance of the exploiters and will introduce universal suffrage without any restrictions."

It must be pointed out that the Socialist state, in depriving an insignificant handful of exploiters of the franchise, at the same time drew into the activities of the Soviets the great mass of the people, who had enjoyed no political rights under tsardom.

Likewise, certain inequality in the basis of representation which formerly existed[1] was of a temporary character. It served to consolidate the leading role of the working class, which, because it was more organized, conscientious, staunch, bold and resolute in the fight against the enemy, in alliance with the peasantry, prepared the conditions for the extension of Soviet democracy. Under the leadership of the working class, the peasants, that vast mass of small property owners, resolutely took the path of large-scale collective farming, the path of Socialist development.

By fighting for the vital interests of the whole people, the working class has learned to administer the state. The alliance of the working class with the peasantry was forged in the joint struggle against the enemies of the Soviet power. The colossal successes achieved in the creation of the new, Socialist society have won over the wavering elements to the side of the working class.

[1]Elections to All-Union Congresses of Soviets were held on the following basis: From urban Soviets—one delegate for every 25,000 electors and in the case of rural districts—one delegate for every 125,000 of the population.

The training of executives for all spheres of state and economic activities has always constituted a special concern of the Soviet Government. A new intelligentsia which serves the people in all branches of Socialist construction has come to the fore from among the people, from the ranks of the workers and peasants.

The indissoluble contact between the Soviet state apparatus and the people has made it possible to achieve results unparalleled for their significance, in a short space of time and in a country occupying one-sixth of the earth's surface and inhabited by scores of nationalities living amicably in an atmosphere of fraternal co-operation.

The Socialist economic system fully prevails in the U.S.S.R. The entire wealth of the country—the land, waters, forests, mills, factories, mines, railways, etc.—belongs to the whole people. The Stalinist Five-Year Plans of economic development have served to multiply manyfold the wealth of the U.S.S.R. Exploitation of man by man has been completely abolished. The rapid growth of Socialist economy forms the basis for the steady rise of the material well-being and culture of the working people.

The mighty Stakhanov movement, aimed at increasing the productivity of labour, is an expression of the creative enthusiasm of the masses. The working people of the U.S.S.R. realise that they are working for themselves and that the increased prosperity of their country leads to an increase in their own well-being. In this ever growing activity of the people lies the power and might of Soviet democracy.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. is the legislative consolidation of the victory of Socialism. The elimination of the exploiting classes, the increased political activity of the working people, and the growing might of the Socialist state have rendered the former franchise restrictions unnecessary. The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. marks an important stage in the extension and strengthening of Soviet democracy.

The very manner in which the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R. was adopted furnishes a model of genuine democracy. The nation-wide discussion of the new Constitution, unprecedented for its scope, brought out with remarkable clarity the activity and political maturity of the people. At the same time, this nation-wide discussion showed that the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. embodies the aspirations and vital interests of the wide masses of the multi-national Soviet population.

The distinguishing features of Soviet democracy were especially evident during the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and to the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics, which were conducted on the basis of the Constitution.

Candidates were nominated by the various organizations of the working people. In every electoral area hundreds of meetings were held at mills, factories, on collective farms, state farms, in Red Army units, etc., at which the merits of each candidate were very thoroughly discussed. The confidence of the electorate in the given candidate was determined by his or her activities in the interests of the people, manifested in the various fields of Socialist construction—in industry, agriculture, science, art, etc.

The Soviet electoral system, too, is a model of the broadest democracy. The Electoral Law, based on the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., contains no restrictions with regard to property status, standard of education, domicile, sex, nationality or race. Suffrage in the U.S.S.R. is indeed universal, since it has been extended to all citizens, men and women, who have reached the age of 18, with the exception of insane persons and persons who have been convicted by a court of law to sentences involving deprivation of electoral rights.

Soviet elections are direct elections, *i.e.,* Soviet citizens elect all Soviets, from top to bottom, by direct vote.

Elections in the U.S.S.R. are equal, each citizen being entitled to one vote.

Finally, voting in Soviet elections is by secret ballot and the law provides for strict punishment for any attempts to exercise influence on the voter during the polling.

The relations between the deputy and his constituents are a characteristic feature of Soviet democracy. Soviet electors entrust their deputy with the elaboration of laws designed to strengthen the Soviet state and to facilitate the further development of Socialism. The electors exercise systematic control over the activities of their deputy. It is the duty of every deputy to report to his electors, and the Constitution provides that he is liable to recall at any time should he deviate from the policy adhered to by the electors.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. expresses the moral and political unity of the multi-national Soviet people. It provides the conditions for a still greater development of the public and state activities of the people. This was particularly clearly displayed during the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and to the Supreme Soviet of the Union and Autonomous Republics.

The election campaign began with the study of the Electoral Law by all the voters. Study circles and lectures on the Electoral Law were organized in the mills, factories, and in apartment houses. Each citizen received a comprehensive explanation in his native language of his rights and duties as an elector.

The election campaign involved millions and millions of people, who on their own initiative, or through their various public organizations, took an active part in the campaign. In addition to members of local Soviets, hundreds of thousands of volunteer workers took part in drawing up and verifying the lists of electors. The ballot papers were printed in the native languages of the population of the given district. These conditions made for the widest possible participation of the electors in the election campaign and for a high attendance at the polls.

Altogether, public organizations delegated about one million of their representatives, including a large percentage of women, to

the area and ward electoral commissions. This form of public control excluded any possibility of foul play, which is so frequent an occurrence during elections in other countries.

The extent of popular activity is shown by the fact that on December 12, 1937, the day of the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., 91,113,153 people or 96.8 per cent of the total electorate of the country went to the polls. The Communist Party formed a bloc with the non-Party workers, peasants, office employees and intellectuals—a bloc with the trade unions, the Young Communist League and other non-Party organizations and societies and put up joint candidates. In the elections to the Soviet of the Union 89,844,271 or 98.6 per cent of all who voted, cast their votes for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. In the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities (the other Chamber of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.) 89,063,169 people or 97.8 per cent, voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. In the elections to the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics, 93,013,433 people participated, 92,461,146, or 99.4 per cent, voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc.

The development of Soviet democracy has enhanced the creative activity of the great mass of Soviet people in the construction of a new Socialist economic system. Democracy in the Soviet Union is not democracy in the abstract, but Socialist democracy.

One of the outstanding features of Socialist democracy consists in the fact that it not only proclaims the right of the citizens but actually guarantees the exercise of these rights by placing them on a firm economic foundation. This economic foundation of Soviet democracy is the Socialist ownership of the means and instruments of production, which guarantees the rights of the Soviet people, their material well-being and cultural development. The Soviet state guarantees to people real liberty.

". . . . It is difficult for me to imagine," said J. Stalin, on one

occasion "what 'personal liberty' is enjoyed by an unemployed person, who goes about hungry, and cannot find employment. Real liberty can exist only where there is no oppression of some by others, where there is no unemployment and poverty, where a man is not haunted by the fear of being tomorrow deprived of work, of home and of bread. Only in such a society is real, and not paper, personal and every other liberty possible."

Such a society has been established in the U.S.S.R.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R., that clearest expression of Socialist democracy, proclaims that:

"The right to work is ensured by the Socialist organization of the national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment." (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 118.)

The Socialist state presents the greatest possibilities for creative labour. The Stakhanov movement cements the union of science and labour. By their enthusiasm and practical experience, the Stakhanov workers contribute greatly to the scientific organization of labour and increase labour productivity. The tremendous facilities at the disposal of the working people for mastering science and technique open up unlimited perspectives for the development of the productive forces and, consequently, for the progressive rise in the well-being of the working people.

The Socialist state manifests particular solicitude for the working people. The Constitution guarantees to the working people the right to rest and leisure.

"The right to rest and leisure is ensured by the reduction of the working day to seven hours for the overwhelming majority of the workers, the institution of annual vacations with full pay for workers and employees and the provision of a wide network of sanatoria, rest homes and clubs for the accommodation of the working people." (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 119.)

This article of the Constitution ensures the workers not only rest and leisure, but also the possibilities for cultural development and education.

Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to maintenance in old age and also in cases of sickness or loss of capacity to work. (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 120.)

The right to education is ensured by education being free of charge and by the system of state stipends for students in the universities and colleges. (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 121.)

The development of the native languages of the various peoples of the U.S.S.R. has become a powerful means for the introduction of Socialist culture among the formerly backward nationalities.

Women in the U.S.S.R. are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, state, cultural, social and political life. (Constitution of the U.S.S.R., Article 122.)

The Constitution provides legislative guarantees for the equality of rights of all citizens of the U.S.S.R. without exception. Article 123 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. emphasizes:

"Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of, or, conversely, any establishment of direct or indirect privileges for citizens on account of their race or nationality, as well as any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or hatred and contempt, is punishable by law."

Soviet democracy has saved the small nationalities who were oppressed under tsardom and doomed to extinction. It has granted them equality, inspired them with a new confidence in their strength and abilities and has directed them along the path of economic and cultural development.

Socialist democracy, based as it is on a firm economic foundation, has raised the dignity of man. It has once and for all put an end to class and national oppression. It has led to a situation in which the working men and women of all peoples of the U.S.S.R., regardless of language, nationality or race, march forward as a united

and single Soviet people, as masters of the country and its national economy.

Having established the moral and political unity of the people, Soviet democracy ensures for the country further victorious development and further successes on the path to the complete triumph of Communism.

THE NATIONAL QUESTION SOLVED

By Chimnaz Aslanova

VICE-CHAIRMAN OF THE SOVIET OF NATIONALITIES OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL, BAKU, AZERBAIJAN

THE U.S.S.R. is a country of many nationalities. Its vast territory, stretching from the Arctic tundras to the subtropics, is inhabited by scores of different peoples: Russians, Ukrainians, Byelorussians, Uzbeks, Georgians, Kazakhs, Azerbaijanians, Turkmenians, Yakuts, Buryats, Tajiks, Jews, Poles, Nentsi, Ossetians, Lezghins, Greeks, Tatars, Kalmyks, Chukchi, Yukaghirs, Aleuts, and numerous others.

Want and destitution was the lot of these nationalities in the past. Theirs was a life of endless misery left in the wake of frequent bloody tragedies which took their toll of thousands—and sometimes millions—of human lives. Lenin called tsarist Russia "a prison of nations."

Prior to the Great October Socialist Revolution only the Russians were considered the indigenous population of the country. All other nationalities were termed "aliens." But even of the Russians only a small minority enjoyed a privileged position. The overwhelming majority of the Russian people—the workers and peasants—were denied political rights and bore the yoke of economic oppression.

The peoples of the Far North were the victims of the sharp practices of the traders who would come to their habitations and exchange a sewing needle for a deer, or a bottle of vodka or a

brick of pressed tea for the skin of a sable. The Chukchi would be tricked into exchanging a beaver skin for a bottle of vodka treated with makhorka and blue vitriol to give it an extra kick. In the Northern Urals traders would wheedle out a couple of the exceedingly valuable blue fox skins in exchange for an axe.

The mountaineers of the Caucasus—after having for many decades waged an unequal war for their freedom—abandoned their auls (villages), orchards and pastures and retreated into the mountains, preferring to lead a life of semi-starvation in the recesses of the naked ridges rather than to submit to slavery. Many Kirghiz, Tajiks, and other inhabitants of the mountainous districts of Central Asia likewise left their fertile land and pastures in the valleys and retreated into the mountains.

Many a time did the peoples of the Caucasus and Central Asia suffer cruel and bloody defeat in their fight for their national independence; but defeat could not stifle their love for liberty, and tsarist Russia was always rife with insurrections and rebellions of the oppressed peoples.

The tsarist government tried to paralyze the resistance of the subjugated peoples and to maintain its own rule by sowing hatred and discord among the various nationalities and inciting one nation against another: Russians against Jews, Armenians against Azerbaijanians, the Turkmenian tribes against one another, etc.

Anti-Jewish pogroms and massacres of other nationalities were quite frequent in tsarist Russia. In the Caucasus a whole town, Shusha, was razed to the ground and most of its inhabitants—about 20,000 people—slaughtered as the result of a bloody massacre instigated by the tsarist government authorities.

The tsarist government resorted to pogroms and incitement of national hatred most often as a means of stemming the rising tide of the revolutionary movement in the country. By these means the tsarist officials tried to divert the anger of the people

from the autocracy, to blame one nationality for the misery and destitution of another, to head off the struggle of the working people against the tsar's arbitrary rule.

Jews, Azerbaijanians, Uzbeks and people of many other nationalities were not allowed to hold government positions. The tsarist government was particularly ruthless in its policy of hate with regard to the Jews. In this respect the German fascists are worthy successors to the Black Hundreds of tsarist Russia.

Jews were confined to a so-called Pale of Settlement. They were not permitted to live in Central Russia or in St. Petersburg, then the capital, and in a number of other large cities. It may be mentioned that the Russian landscape painter Levitan, one of the greatest artists of Russia, was deported from Moscow as a Jew. Jews were not allowed to engage in agriculture. A special quota was established for the admission of Jewish children to high schools and universities, according to which the number of Jews could not exceed three per cent of the total number of students in St. Petersburg and Moscow and five per cent in other cities.

The numerous peoples inhabiting the territory of the former Russian Empire endured the double yoke of the tsarist government and of their own landlords, feudal princes, priests, and merchants.

The policy of the tsarist government was to keep the enslaved peoples of its colonies in a state of ignorance and darkness. In pre-revolutionary Kirghizia only one out of two hundred could read and write. There was not a single university or college in Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Armenia and other colonies of the tsar's government. The number of elementary schools could be counted on one's fingers. Instruction in the native languages was forbidden. No literature was published in the languages of the oppressed colonial peoples. The creative genius of the non-Russian nationalities was suppressed. The treasures of folk art, the products of the age-old national cultures of the Ukrainian,

Georgian, Armenian, Kirghiz and other peoples, were buried in oblivion. In Georgia people were persecuted for singing popular folksongs. The Ukrainians were not permitted to have their own theatre. Scores of peoples of old Russia even had no alphabet of their own.

The Great October Socialist Revolution, which transformed the former Russian Empire into a free democratic state, into the fatherland of all labouring people, put an end to national oppression. The October Revolution emancipated all the peoples of Russia, and they have since become the masters of their own destinies.

A few days after the victorious October Revolution, on November 15, 1917, the "Declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia," a document of the greatest historic significance, was signed by Lenin and Stalin, the leaders of the Revolution.

This document announced the principles of the national policy of the Soviet Government:

1. Equality and sovereignty of the people of Russia.
2. The right of the peoples of Russia to free self-determination, including the right to secede and form an independent state.
3. The abolition of all national and national-religious privileges and restrictions whatsoever.
4. Free development for the national minorities and ethnographic groups inhabiting the territory of Russia.

The declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia pointed out to the labouring masses of the various nationalities the only way to their emancipation—the brotherly union of peoples, their common struggle against the rule of the bourgeoisie—for their independence and freedom.

The Russian workers and peasants, fighting in close unity with the working people of all the nationalities of the Soviet Republics, defended their state independence and routed the internal counter-revolutionary forces and the foreign interventionists. This

historic victory of the Soviet power welded the working people of the various nationalities into a mighty force.

In 1922, soon after the end of the Civil War and the defeat of the foreign interventionists, the first All-Union Congress of Soviets was convened in Moscow. This Congress decided unanimously to form the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. The declaration adopted by the Congress stressed the voluntary nature of the union of all the Soviet Republics, each of which reserved the right freely to secede from the Union.

The amalgamation of the several Soviet Republics into a single Union was dictated, on the one hand, by the problems of economic restoration following the havoc wrought by the war, and, on the other hand, by the instability of the international situation and the danger of new attacks, which necessitated the formation of a common front of all the Soviet Republics in the face of the capitalist world surrounding them.

The Great Socialist October Revolution abolished all national privileges and restrictions. But there still remained the heritage of the past—the actual inequality of the various peoples as a result of the deliberate policy of the tsarist government to maintain a different level of economic and cultural development for the different nationalities. When the Soviet Republic was formed, the Party of Lenin and Stalin at once set out to do away with this inequality.

The working class of the great Russian people and the splendid Russian culture with centuries of development behind it came to the assistance of the nationalities which had remained backward in their economic and cultural development. Russian culture has exercised an enormous and beneficent influence upon the culture of all the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

With the abolition of political inequality and of the exploitation of man by man the causes for national enmity have also been removed.

Suleiman Stalsky, the famous people's poet of Daghestan, once said: "The Bolshevik upheaval, which shook the whole world, has shaken up our old mode of life as well. Our vast plains have been lighted up by the bright and eternal fire of the Great October Revolution." The light of this revolutionary fire has penetrated to the mountain fastnesses of the Caucasus as well as to the deserts of Central Asia, to the Far Eastern taiga as well as to the tundras of the Far North.

There are peoples in the Soviet Union that have in two decades made a leap from medieval backwardness to twentieth century conditions. Modern culture has penetrated to the most remote and inaccessible auls whither the "natives" once withdrew in order not to submit to the tsarist colonizers.

All the national republics have been progressing at a tempestuous rate. Their mineral wealth no longer lies idle in the bowels of the earth. Each year brings with it discoveries of new deposits of gold, zinc, coal, manganese, oil, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, etc. Over the landscape rise the derricks of newly-sunk mines and the smoke-stacks of recently-built factories. Powerful industries have sprung up in the various national republics. Coal, copper and lead in Kazakhstan, manganese ore in Transcaucasia, coal in Kirghizia, zinc in North Ossetia in the Caucasus, oil in Checheno-Ingushetia and along the southern slopes of the Urals in Bashkiria—all these mineral resources have become the basis for the industrial development of the respective republics.

In the past, the coal, copper and lead resorces of Kazakhstan were left practically untouched. There was even no railway there before the Revolution. The first railroad to traverse Kazahkstan was the Turksib, built in 1928-32. It connects Turkestan with Siberia and has brought to life vast stretches of semi-desert land.

A marvellous transformation has been wrought in the economic life of Uzbekistan. Here a number of huge textile mills have been built, and a powerful and complex irrigation system has brought

about an unprecedented development of cotton growing.

Azerbaijan had only one industrial centre in the past—Baku, famous for its oil fields. But the Baku oil resources were exploited in a wasteful manner. The oil kings reaped enormous profits, while the whole country and the population of Azerbaijan lingered in poverty. At present many new industries are developing in Azerbaijan, while the output of oil has increased more than threefold.

Every one of the eleven republics comprising the U.S.S.R. has been undergoing a profound economic change and development. The railway stations of the Ukraine alone now handle more freight in a year than all the railway stations of tsarist Russia in 1913. More freight and mail is carried by airplanes in Transcaucasia, Central Asia and Kazakhstan than in Germany, Great Britain and France combined,

Industrial progress in the national republics has been accompanied by an intensive development of agriculture. Collective farming has transformed the old auls and kishlaks. Modern scientific methods of cultivation and stockraising have been introduced where formerly primitive nomadic economy prevailed. Hundreds of thousands of tractors, harvester combines and other machines are used on the fields of the collective farms and state farms. Mountainous regions and boundless steppes where formerly only the wooden plough and mattock were known, have now been provided with modern implements and machines for efficient farming. 88,000 tractors and 27,000 harvester combines are in use on the fields of the Ukraine. The collective farms and state farms of Byelorussia dispose of 8,100 tractors, 4,000 threshing machines, 4,000 trucks, 1,200 flax-pulling machines. The valleys and plateaus of Kirghizia are cultivated with the help of 3,964 tractors. There are 6,885 tractors and 2,871 harvester combines in Tataria, 5,562 tractors in Azerbaijan, etc.

New crops have appeared in the national republics. Rice grow-

ing has been introduced in the Ukraine. In Transcaucasia, tea is grown on an extensive scale, and large citrus fruit groves have been planted. The breeds of cattle have improved. Among sheep the fine wool varieties are becoming prevalent.

The growth of industry and agriculture has created a large demand for workers proficient in various trades and professions which were formerly unknown in some of the national republics. Among the native Kazakh population, for instance, there were formerly no smiths even, not to speak of engineers, agronomists or physicians. Today Kazakhstan has its own native intelligentsia. There has been a steady increase in the number of professional people and the variety of professions among the people of the remote sections of the Caucasus, Central Asia, the Far North.

One of the manifestations of the former cultural backwardness of some of these peoples was the tenacity with which the survivals of tribal feudal customs persisted among them, particularly with respect to women. When a girl was ready to be married she was traded off to the highest bidder. Her consent was never asked. She went to the man who offered the highest "ransom." Women were frequently abducted. Their homes were prisons to them. No strange man was allowed to see the face of a woman who did not belong to him. Women had to wear veils ("chadra" among the Azerbaijanians) or nets made of horse-hair ("chavchan" among the Tajiks and Uzbeks). The vendetta existed among the mountaineers of the Caucasus, and blood feuds between families were kept up for generations.

Among most of the Eastern peoples women enjoyed no rights whatsoever. Woman was looked down upon. She was the docile slave of her husband, father or brother. The Lezghins of Daghestan used to express contempt with the words: "If you can't do that you are nothing but a woman." In Azerbaijan men would say to women: "Don't mix into men's affairs with your dough-

covered hands."

Only Soviet power brought the women emancipation. The Soviet laws protect the rights of women, which are in every respect the same as those of men. Under the beneficent rays of the Soviet national policy thousands of women in the East have developed and become statesmen, doctors, engineers, fliers, teachers, agricultural experts, etc.

The Soviet Government has from the very outset devoted great attention to the development of national culture and public education in the border regions of the former Russian Empire.

Universal free elementary education is enforced in the national republics just as it is throughout the Soviet Union. The number of children attending school has increased 35 times in Azerbaijan, 37 times in Turkmenia, 53 times in Uzbekistan, 58 times in Kazakhstan, 68 times in Armenia, 172 times in Kirghizia. In 1936 children in the U.S.S.R. were taught in school in 112 languages, many of which had no alphabet of their own before the Revolution.

The few universities and scientific institutes that existed in tsarist times were all Russian. There were many nationalities that knew nothing about them. At present there are 22 institutions of higher learning in Byelorussia, 13 in Azerbaijan, 19 in Kazakhstan. The number of universities and scientific institutes in the Ukraine has grown from 15 to 139. The Ukraine today has more institutions of higher learning than Germany, although the population of the latter is twice as large as that of the former. The universities and other institutions of higher learning of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic alone are attended by more than three times as many students as there are in Great Britain, Germany and Italy combined.

The national policy of the Soviet Government has stimulated the development of creative talent and has opened up the springwells of national art. It has revived the creative forces of the

peoples. The works of the great writers of the Ukraine, Georgia, Armenia and other republics have become the property of the entire Soviet nation. The rich heritage of the culture of the various nationalities has been made accessible to the Russian people and to all the other peoples of the Soviet Union. The Ukrainian poet Taras Shevchenko, the Georgian poet Shot' ha Rust'hveli, the Kirghizian epos are now read by millions in the Soviet Union.

On the other hand, Russian and world culture has become accessible to all the nationalities inhabiting the U.S.S.R., exercising a tremendous influence on the development of their national culture. Pushkin and Darwin, Shakespeare and Cervantes, Tolstoy and Marx have been translated into dozens of languages of the Soviet peoples.

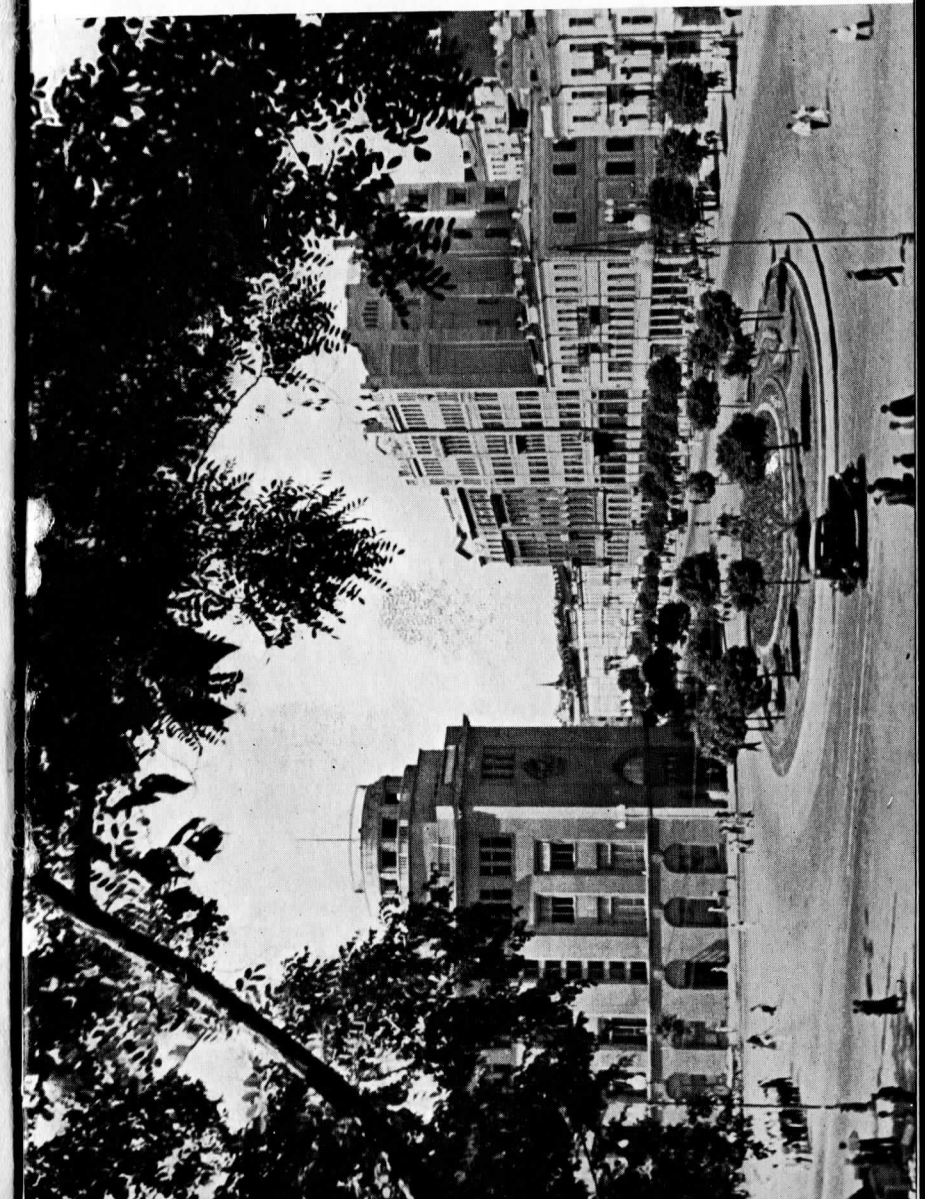
All the nations and races of the U.S.S.R., irrespective of their past or present condition, and irrespective of their numbers, enjoy fully equal rights in all spheres of economic, public, political and cultural activity.

Article 123 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. states:

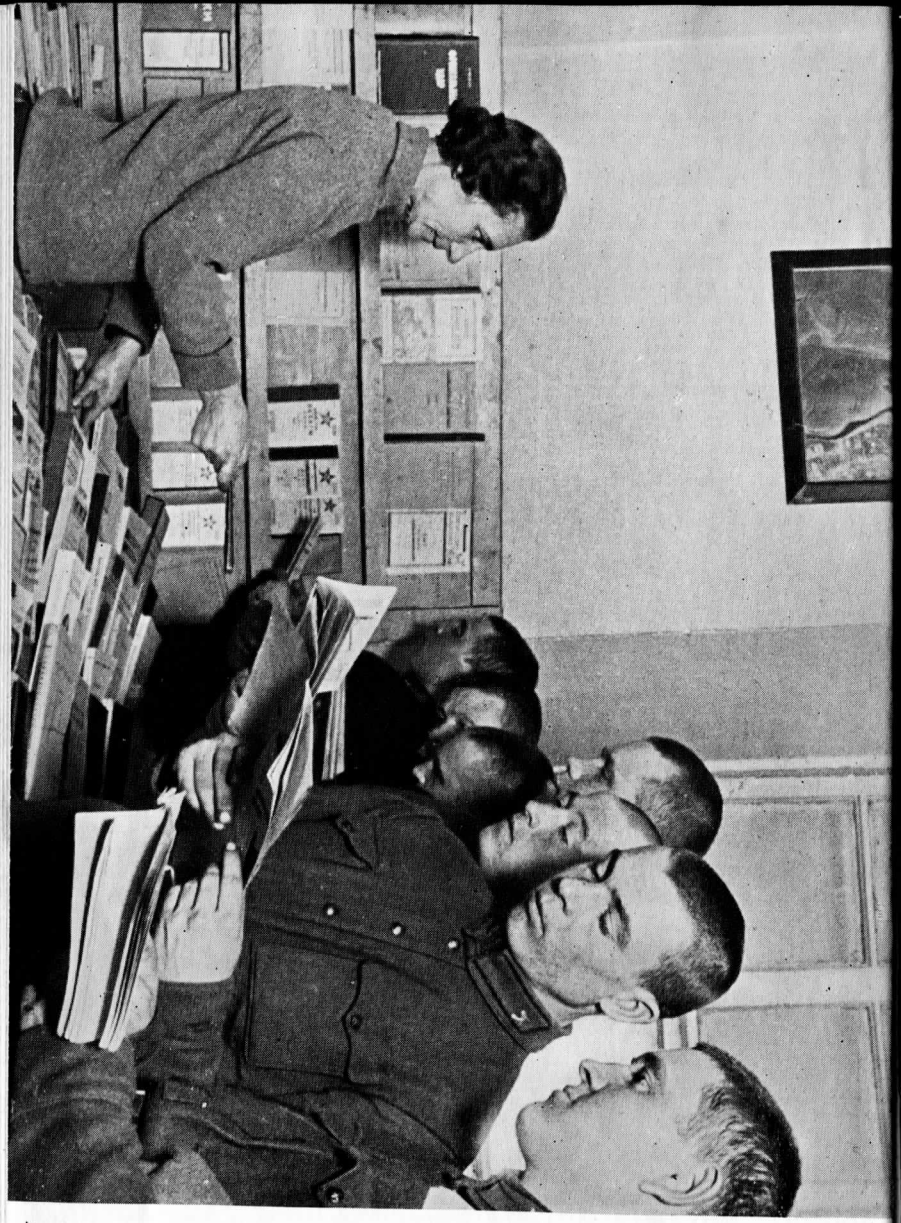
"Equality of rights of citizens of the U.S.S.R., irrespective of their nationality or race, in all spheres of economic, state, cultural, social and political life, is an indefeasible law.

"Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of, or, conversely, any establishment of direct or indirect privileges for, citizens on account of their race or nationality, as well as any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or hatred and contempt, is punishable by law."

All the Union Republics enjoy equal rights in absolutely every respect. Each of these constituent republics has its own constitution, which takes into account the specific features of the republic and its drawn up in full conformity with the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. To every Union Republic is reserved the right freely to secede from the U.S.S.R. The territories of the Union Republic cannot be altered without their consent.



KIEV
Square of the
Third International



THE STATE PUBLISHING HOUSE
A Display of Red Army Books

The highest organ of state authority in the U.S.S.R. is the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., which consists of two Chambers enjoying equal rights—the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities.

Each Union republic, irrespective of the size of its population, elects 25 deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities; each autonomous republic elects ten deputies, each autonomous region five deputies, and each national area one deputy. Thus the Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic, with a population of slightly over three million, and the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, with a population of over thirty million, each send the same number of deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities. This places all the constituent republics, irrespective of the size of their population, on an equal footing, and enables each of them to fully defend its specific interests in the Soviet of Nationalities.

Such, in brief, are the main features of the policy which has led to the solution of the national problem in the Soviet Union. We may sum up in the words of J. V. Stalin, the author of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.:

> ". . . . the absence of exploiting classes, which are the principal organizers of strife between nations; the absence of exploitation, which cultivates mutual distrust and kindles nationalist passions; the fact that power is in the hands of the working class, which is an enemy of all enslavement and the true vehicle of the ideas of internationalism; the actual practice of mutual aid among the peoples in all spheres of economic and social life; and, finally, the flourishing national culture of the peoples of the U.S.S.R., culture which is national in form and Socialist in content—all these and similar factors have brought about a radical change in the aspect of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.; their feeling of mutual distrust has disappeared, a feeling of mutual friendship has developed among them, and thus, real fraternal co-operation between the peoples has been established within the

system of a single federated state.

"As a result, we now have a fully formed multi-national Socialist state, which has stood all tests, and the stability of which might well be envied by any national state in any part of the world."

To Soviet people, the amity of nations is the most sacred and most indispensable condition for the further success of Socialism. The most gifted artists and writers devote their works to the idea of internationalism and the brotherhood of peoples in the Soviet Union. These works reflect the thoughts and sentiments of the millions.

The Dungans, a people inhabiting the approaches to the central range of the Tian-Shan Mountains in Central Asia, have a fine saying expressing the idea of the fraternal friendship of the people:

"The bonfire will burn brighter if all the twigs are put together."

CHILDREN IN THE LAND OF SOCIALISM

By A. Makarenko

ORDER OF THE RED BANNER OF LABOUR. AUTHOR OF THE "PEDAGOGICAL POEM"

I WORKED as a teacher in an elementary school before the Revolution and have been working among children ever since the Revolution. The great changes which have taken place in the life of the people inhabiting the territory of the former Russian Empire in the last twenty years naturally inspire one to compare figures. But when we come to examine the situation of children, statistical comparisons seem to lose their impact on the mind, so great is the disparity between the old and the new. If, for instance, we say that the number of secondary schools in the countryside has grown by 19,000 per cent in the last twenty years— nineteen thousand per cent!—statistical comparison in this case can hardly be grasped by the mind and defeats its own purpose.

Tsarist Russia, as all the world knows, was a purgatory for little children. She may have been behind other countries in general progess but few could rival her for child mortality. The cause of this high mortality was the low level of subsistence of the overwhelming majority of the population, the vicious exploitation of the workers in the towns, the dire poverty of the peasants in the countryside and the employment of juveniles for adult labour.

The situation is radically different today. Compared with 1913 the national income of the Soviet Union has increased fivefold. As a result of the elimination of exploiting classes the whole income accrues to the benefit of the people, whose standard of living is rising steadily year by year. In spite of the phenomenal increase in

industrial output and the great demand for labour power, the Soviet law forbids the employment of children under the age of fourteen, and forbids the employment of young people under seventeen years of age in mines or at any occupation that may be harmful to the health. Children from fourteen to sixteen years of age may be allowed to work only by special permission of the factory inspectors. They have a four-hour day and work under the guidance of experienced instructors. That explains why you will never see a Soviet youngster suffering even the slightest degree of fatigue. You will never see that blighted look that comes of overwork and habituation to the grindstone.

This of course does not mean that children in the Soviet Union are brought up to be idle and irresponsible. On the contrary, we expect rather a lot from our children: we expect them to be good pupils at school, we expect them to develop themselves physically, to prepare themselves to be good citizens of the U.S.S.R. when they grow up, to know what is going on inside the country, what our society is striving for, where it is making progress and where it is still behind. We promote the general and political development of the children, help them to be active and intelligently disciplined. But we have not the slightest occasion to use force against them, or cause them the slightest suffering. Our children cannot be conscious of the affection, solicitude and care which attend them at every step without being morally convinced of their duties, so that they fulfil their obligations willingly, without their becoming irksome.

Our children can see that all that they do is necessary not for the pleasure of their elders but for themselves, and for the whole future of our state. Soviet children are strangers to fawning and servility. They do not have to demean themselves to a taskmaster as to one who can make or break them.

Not only have children in our country never known what it is to be dependent on some other person, a master, proprietor, employer or patron, but adults have forgotten long ago. These are all things of the distant past. Our children better than anyone else feel the freshness in the air of our Socialist country. That is why they can study, develop and prepare for their future freely. That is why they are assured for their future, love their country and strive to become worthy citizens and patriots of the U.S.S.R.

From the example of their parents and their whole environment they see that all careers are open to them, all pathways, success in which depends entirely on their diligence and honest endeavour in the classroom.

Soviet boys and girls finishing elementary school or secondary school have as many ways open to them as there are trades and professions; they have the right and the opportunity to choose any of them. There are no insuperable difficulties to hamper their choice. Boys or girls wishing to enter a college know they can leave for another town if necessary without having to worry about board and lodging, for every college has living quarters and every student is entitled to an allowance from the state whether he has parents or not.

Yet freedom is not the only advantage which our children enjoy from these intrinsic conditions of our social order. They are a stimulus to zeal in school-life and make them confident in the future.

Even in the first years of Soviet rule the Workers' and Peasants' Government valiantly shouldered the problem of the millions of waifs left destitute as a result of the imperialist war of 1914 and the armed intervention of 1917-21. In addition to this onus the young Soviet state had to contend with economic ruin, widespread famine and war on all its frontiers. Even so, the first care of the Soviet Government was for the children. In our country there were many homeless waifs—children who had lost their parents, relations or guardians, children of no fixed abode, adrift on the streets of our towns and villages.

But all of them grew up to be fine workers and good citizens. Soviet society gave each of them not only refuge and maintenance but education and the means to an honest livelihood. Many years have passed since our country put an end to juvenile vagrancy. In our factories and offices you will often meet former homeless waifs who are now holding positions of responsibility, respected by society and the people they work with.

If anything has been proved by the history of our struggle with the evil of juvenile vagrancy, the cause of so much gloating and slander on the part of our enemies, it is that Soviet society spares no effort nor resources where the welfare of children is at stake, and does so without lowering its respect for the individual. Only this can explain the remarkable fact that in spite of the great difficulties which sometimes arose in the course of our struggle on this front the Soviet Government never once resorted to juvenile prisons or corporal punishment. It preferred to rely upon education and congenial employment to help the waifs and strays to become worthy citizens of their country.

But the struggle to eliminate juvenile vagrancy was only a small part of the great work among children which Soviet society has accomplished in twenty-one years. The overwhelming majority of the population of tsarist Russia was illiterate. Everybody took it for granted that the ruling classes and the state power had no consideration for people, and for children even less. Such amenities as children's playgrounds, kindergartens and nurseries were unknown to the vast majority of people even by name. Soviet Society had to create all these things literally from nothing.

At the present time even in the most remote regions of the Soviet Union the population sees from its own experience that care for the children is the prime concern of the Socialist state of workers and peasants. Thousands of schools have been built, scores of national alphabets have been created, new writers have developed, new teachers have been trained to educate peoples

who before the Revolution had no written alphabet and often did not know what paper was for. Nurseries, kindergartens, children's clubs have become an indispensable element of Soviet life, and no one in the U.S.S.R. can imagine life without these institutions.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan (1933-37) 864 palaces and clubs were built for children, 170 children's parks and gardens, 174 children's theatres and cinemas, 760 centres for the technical and art education of children. More than ten million children are attending classes for technical and cultural education. From 1933 to 1938 20,607 new schools were built. In the U.S.S.R. elementary education has been made universal and under the Third Five-Year Plan (1938-42) high school education will be made universal in the towns and junior high school education will be made universal in the countryside. These figures show what great efforts are being made to give Soviet children happiness and a purpose in life.

The children's camps and other provisions for well-spent summer vacations are a striking example. At the end of the term the majority of children go off to the country to rest. Children's camps are organized by the state, by trade union bodies and by industrial enterprises. Every factory and office in the U.S.S.R. has the resources and the facilities to do so. Camps are organized in the vicinity of all cities and are particularly numerous in the southern parts of the Soviet Union—the Crimea and the Caucasus. In 1939 the summer camps accommodated some 1,400,000 children. Sometimes these camps are of the stationary, sometimes of the travelling type.

I myself, for instance, have made seven big trips round the U.S.S.R. with my children's commune. Having at its disposal tents, camp equipment and provisions, my commune has covered thousands of kilometres by rail, by water and on foot. We have rambled over the Crimea and the Caucasus, the coast of the Sea of Azov, through the Donbas. We have sailed on the Black Sea

and the Volga. We have pitched our tents in Sochi, Yalta, Sevastopol, and on the banks of the Donetz. Everywhere we have been given a warm welcome by the local people, who have shown us round their factories, their children's institutions and their clubs. Nothing can equal holiday tours of this kind as a method of cultivating and educating the young mind. At the close of their studies at the high school, Soviet boys and girls have not only acquired learning but have stored their minds with impressions, a knowledge of people, their work and psychology.

But even in the winter time the development of Soviet children is not restricted to the walls of the school. After school they go to children's clubs which, with every year that passes, are developing into first-class research and art institutes for juveniles in which any child can find assistance and a useful occupation if there is a spark of inquiry or originality in his mind.

Soviet children have a remarkable penchant for mechanics. Among children between twelve and sixteen years of age it is almost impossible to find anyone uninterested in technical questions or ignorant of the principles of the most common machines. This avid interest in mechanics and engineering is not only catered for by clubs organized for the purpose, but by numerous technical journals and books published specially for children. These are of great value in assisting in the training of technical personnel for the young industries of the U.S.S.R.

In the army and navy, in the field of art, literature and politics the rising Soviet generation is proving at every step that the attention which is paid to children in the U.S.S.R. from their earliest infancy is already having its abundant reward.

SOVIET YOUTH AT WORK AND PLAY

By S. Sobolev

MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE U.S.S.R.

MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE R.S.F.S.R.

A SONG that is very popular in the U.S.S.R.—*Our Soviet Land*—has the following lines:

"To the youth now every door is open,
Everywhere the old with honour go."

And this is the plain truth, for in the Soviet Union man is considered the most valuable asset the world possesses.

The steady growth in the material welfare of the working people of the U.S.S.R. has ensured security for all. Young and old have no fear for the morrow. The aged are provided for by the state, which also affords every opportunity, backed by material aids, to the young people to whom all doors are wide open.

The Soviet Government is tireless in its efforts to ensure the maximum of care and attention to every working man and woman. The entire efforts of the country, of state and public institutions and Soviet industry, are aimed at improving the material conditions and raising the cultural standards of the working people.

The Soviet people know that the future belongs to the youth. That is why the rising generation, the heir to the vast wealth and the traditions of the new Socialist society, is being brought up with so much care. The Soviet people affectionately call the younger generation their relay. Upon them will devolve not only the duty

of consolidating the successes achieved by the Socialist society in which they now live but also that of building up a Communist society, that is, a society in which the principle: "From each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs," will be realized.

The older generation of workers, who began to work before the Revolution, when the factories were the private property of the capitalists, remember that one out of every three workers in tsarist Russia had to go to work when he had barely reached the age of twelve. Their working day then was half as long again as that established for adult workers in the Soviet Union. Boys and girls slaved away the same long hours as adult workers, and for much lower pay.

The laws in force in the U.S.S.R. have always stipulated that boys and girls from 14 to 16 years of age are permitted to work only 4 hours a day, and young people from 16 to 18 years —6 hours, with payment, however, equivalent to that of a full working day. The employment of juveniles under 17 years of age at hazardous occupations, or in mines and shafts, is prohibited. Child labour up to 14 years of age is categorically forbidden.

Boys and girls from 14 to 16 years of age are allowed to start work only after receiving special permission from the Labour Protection Board. This implies that in the Soviet Union every care is taken that young people grow up physically strong and healthy and that they have every opportunity to study before they begin to work. How is this ensured in practice?

It is already several years since elementary education was made universal in the Socialist state. The task now confronting the government is to introduce universal secondary education within the next few years. In the last five years alone (1933-38) the number of elementary and secondary school pupils increased from 23,000,000 to over 33,000,000. It should be mentioned here that in the U.S.S.R. education of every kind, from elementary school to

university and college, is absolutely free. Moreover, university and college students receive allowances from the state.

In the Land of Soviets young people graduating from school are confident of their future. What to do, in what field to apply their talents, are questions which present no problem to them. Many school graduates enter universities, colleges or military schools. Those who desire to take up a trade are equally confident that their ambitions will not be baulked by the fear of unemployment and, what is more, that they can continue their education at any time they like.

It is already many years since unemployment was abolished for good in the U.S.S.R. Over 7,000,000 young workers were employed in industry and agriculture in 1936. Young people up to 23 years of age comprise about one-third of the working class in the U.S.S.R. At many of the large factories and mills they represent half of the total number of workers.

The Soviet Government manifests constant care for raising the cultural level and technical skill of the youth. An extensive system of courses and study circles provides a wide range of educational facilities enabling them to become proficient in their particular trade or profession.

A system of vocational training schools attached directly to the factories has been functioning in the Soviet Union for more than fifteen years. In these schools highly skilled workers for all branches of industry and the transport services are trained free of charge. The pupils in these schools acquire a general education equal to that provided in secondary schools, and, under the supervision of qualified instructors, learn to become proficient in the trade they have selected. The vocational training schools are equipped with workshops, classrooms and experimental laboratories.

At regular intervals the pupils go through a course of practical work in the factories and mills under the supervision of engineers,

technicians and competent foremen. Pupils are granted an allowance by the state during the entire period of study at the vocational training schools. Upon graduation they are immediately assigned to work in some factory or mill at their newly-acquired trade.

Since their foundation the vocational training schools have supplied the country with about 2,000,000 skilled workers in various trades. Many of their graduates have since developed into master craftsmen, setting outstanding records of labour productivity.

The rapid growth of industry and agriculture created a tremendous demand for new intellectual forces throughout the country. This demand was met by a radical increase in the number of higher educational establishments and technical schools. In tsarist Russia there were only 91 higher educational establishments. The U.S.S.R. has 716 universities and colleges, with a total student body of 601,000, and over 2,500 technical schools, with twenty-four times as many students as in tsarist Russia. During the first two Five-Year Plan periods alone (1928-37) the technical schools gave the country 1,500,000 young technicians, children of workers, peasants and professional men.

Neither age nor birth, wealth nor connections, but only personal effort and personal abilities determine one's position in Soviet society.

According to Soviet law all citizens of the U.S.S.R. who have reached the age of eighteen enjoy equal rights in all spheres of the country's economic and political life. And the Soviet youth are making full use of the rights accorded to them.

The number of young engineers and technicians is increasing with every year. Thus, according to statistical data at July 1, 1937, 19 per cent of the total number of engineers and technicians employed in large-scale industry were young men and women up to 26 years of age.

Young workers, engineers and technicians of working-class and

peasant stock are coming to the fore as executives and managers of industries, plants and railroads. Young men and women under 30 years of age comprise 10.4 per cent of the total number of directors of various factories and plants, 18.5 per cent of the total number of chief engineers and 26.1 per cent of the total number of departmental managers.

The 28-year-old engine driver Pyotr Krivonoss—the initiator of the Stakhanov movement on the railroads—is now the general manager of the South Donetz Railroad, one of the largest trunk-lines in the country; Zinaida Troitskaya, who only recently was an engine driver, is now general manager of the Moscow Circuit Railway. Ognev, another young engine driver, is the general manager of the Dzerzhinsky Railroad, and Shchegolev—still a very young man—is the director of the Trekhgornaya Textile Mills in Moscow.

In the Soviet Union young people with ability are being promoted boldly and in ever increasing numbers to leading posts. However, this does not mean that the country depends only on its young forces. The older forces too are highly valued in the Soviet Union, for they have the experience and knowledge that the younger forces often lack. The older forces are dwindling in number, while the younger forces are coming to the fore and rapidly proving their worth. The policy adopted by the Soviet Government is to unite the efforts of the old and the young forces in building up the new state.

Figures to hand for June 1, 1938, show that 4,260 young men and women under 30 years of age have been decorated by the Soviet Government. These include 586 of the finest representatives of the younger generation who have been decorated with the highest distinction in the Soviet Union—the Order of Lenin. As many as 1,566 young people have been decorated for distinguished service in the development of various branches of industry and transportation.

In agriculture, too, the role played by young people, especially among the leading forces of the countryside, has grown considerably during the last few years. Young people are acquitting themselves with credit as chairmen of collective farms, brigade leaders, cattle breeders, agronomists, soil cultivation experts, and zootechnicians. More than 1,500,000 people, the overwhelming majority of whom are young collective farmers, have in recent years been trained as tractor drivers, harvester combine operators and truck drivers.

In the U.S.S.R. youth is no barrier to advancement in the scientific field. Soviet youth has in its ranks quite a number of talented scientists of world renown.

L. Pontryagin, although still a young man, is a professor of mathematics. G. Alexandrov, at 29, is a professor in the history of philosophy. E. Fyodorov, Doctor of Geography, who is only 28 years old, was one of the members of the Papanin group who spent nine months on the drifting North Pole station. The Soviet Government has conferred upon him the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. Those just mentioned are but three out of a list that runs into hundreds. Youth is no handicap. I myself, for instance, although only 29 years of age, am a professor of mathematics in Moscow University. Early this year I was accorded the honour of being elected a member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. I am the youngest academician in our country, and most probably in the whole world.

Among other notable representatives of Soviet youth are the prize-winners of international music contests. They include David Oistrakh (now a professor in the Moscow Conservatory of Music), Mikhail Fichtenholtz, Rosa Tamarkina, Emile Hilels, Yakov Flier and Maria Kozolupova.

The Soviet youth avails itself fully of its political rights.

". . . . all citizens of the U.S.S.R. who have reached the age of eighteen, irrespective of race or nationality, religion, educational and residential qualifications, social origin, property status or past activities, have the right to vote in the election of deputies and to be elected . . ." (Article 135 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.)

The finest representatives of the Soviet youth have been elected deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and the Supreme Soviets of the Union and autonomous republics.

Among the members of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. there are 284 young men and women under 30 years of age. In the Supreme Soviets of the constitutent republics there are 1,009 young deputies, which constitutes 28.2 per cent of the total number of deputies. The Supreme Soviets of the autonomous republics have 692 young deputies, or 30 per cent of the total number of deputies.

The cultural level of our young people is rising with every year. Books, newspapers and periodicals have become a prime necessity to the broad masses of the working-class and collective-farm youth. Their ample earnings not only allow our young men and women workers to live in comfort, but also to be constant visitors to theatres, concerts, and museums.

The short working day enables the Soviet youth to make good use of their free time. They take an active part in literary, artistic, amateur theatrical, technical and other circles. In 1938, 56,000 young members of various theatrical and choral circles participated in the review of folk art given by amateurs in Moscow.

Over 10,000,000 young men and women are members of various sports Societies. Soviet sportsmen have at their disposal 650 stadiums, 7,200 athletic fields, 350 aquatic sports stations, 2,700 skiing stations, 100 physical culture centres, 2,713 gymnasiums, etc. There were no stadiums at all in tsarist Russia. The very few athletic fields that existed were available only to people of wealth.

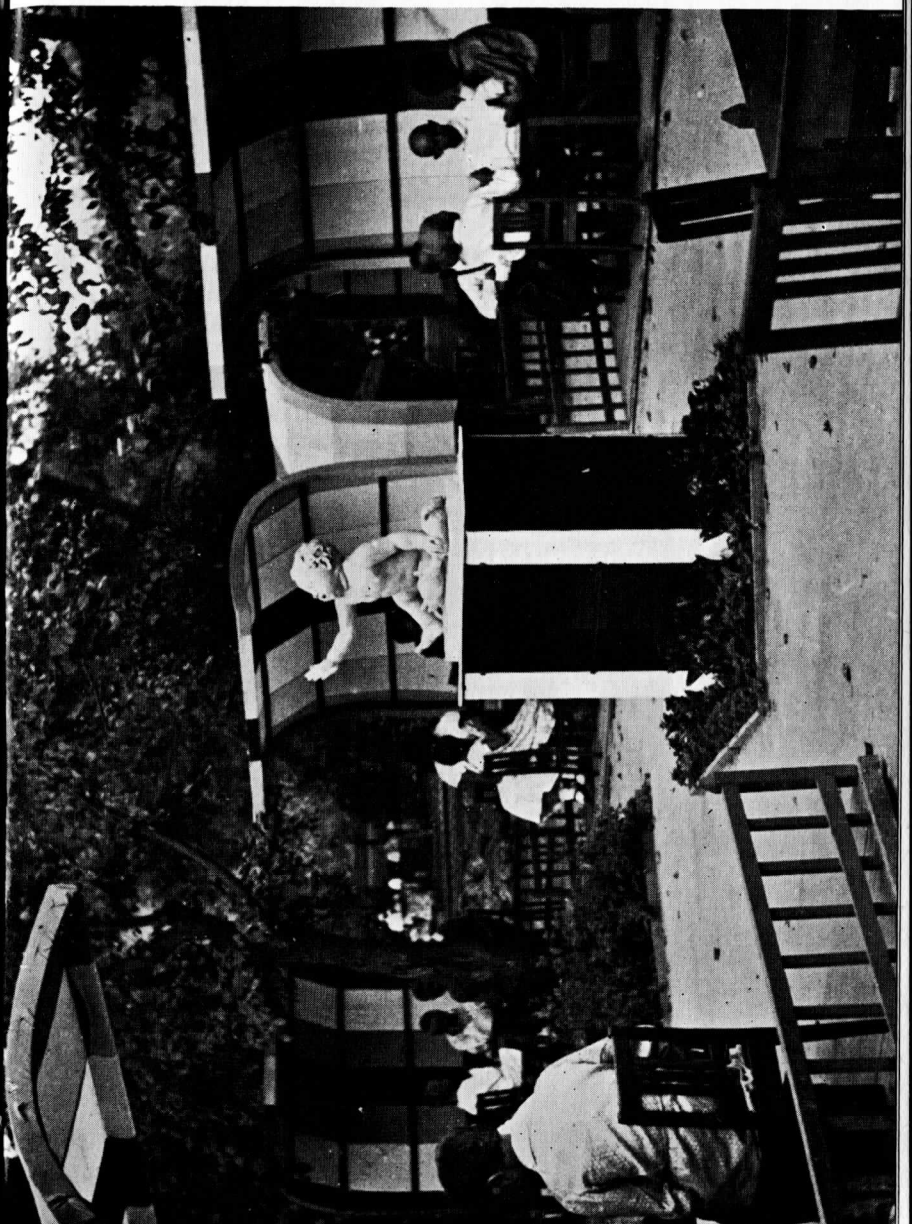
Thousands of young workers and collective farmers are taking

to tourism and mountain climbing. Young Soviet mountain climbers have scaled the highest peaks of the Caucasian mountain range and Central Asia. Tourists are provided at a small charge with all they require during their trips through the Soviet Union.

Young women enjoy equal rights with young men. Many young women are directors of industries and plants, scientists, and chief engineers in factories and mills. Six hundred and three young women have been decorated for distinguished service by the Soviet Government. Six hundred young women have been elected members of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and the Supreme Soviets of the constituent and autonomous republics. The title of Hero of the Soviet Union was conferred upon the world famous airwomen, Valentina Grizodubova, Marina Raskova, and the late Paulina Ossipenko, for their record-breaking non-stop flight from Moscow to the Far East.

In the Soviet Union marriage is a question which young men and women decide for themselves, without any constraint from any quarter. Consequently, such considerations as differences in social status, which in the Soviet Union no longer exist, or financial position, cannot in any way serve as a barrier. Coercion of any kind is punishable by law. In the Soviet Union a young woman is absolutely free in her choice of a husband, just as she may at her own free will sever marital relations.

A new generation has grown up during the period of Soviet rule, a young generation which has never experienced the capitalist system and capitalist-exploitation. This young generation is public-spirited and self-disciplined, able to combine revolutionary zeal with American efficiency. This young generation is supremely devoted to its Socialist country. Service in the Red Army is regarded as a high honour, and young folks gladly enroll in its ranks. The high sense of patriotism of the Soviet youth was strikingly evinced when the Japanese militarists attempted



MOSCOW ZOOPARK
Children's Restaurant

A KIRGHIZ COLLECTIVE FARM WORKER

to encroach on the frontiers of the U.S.S.R. at Lake Hassan.

As is well known, the Japanese aggressor was severely tackled by the Soviet forces and, after suffering considerable casualties, was compelled to beat a hasty retreat.

The Soviet youth love their country above all else. And it is with good reason that the song which we mentioned in the first lines of this article concludes with the words:

"But if any foe should try to smash us,
Try to desolate our land so dear,
Like the thunder, like the sudden lightning,
We shall give our answer sharp and clear."

WOMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

By P. Pichugina

ORDER OF THE RED BANNER OF LABOUR. MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.

CHAIRMAN OF THE TAGANSK DISTRICT SOVIET, MOSCOW

WOMAN in tsarist Russia had no rights whatever. She was disfranchised. The doors to government and civic activities were closed to her. The humiliating tsarist laws regulating marriage relations made a veritable slave of her. It was considered quite natural that there were more women than men among the illiterates.

The lot of the working class women was particularly joyless. It was the working woman, often a minor, who did the most unskilled and back-breaking work, for which she received a much lower pay than the man. Like the man, she had to work ten and twelve hours a day; her life was one of semi-starvation, ignorance and want. Frequent periods of unemployment and savage exploitation were factors contributing to the break-up of the working class family.

Nor was the position of the peasant woman, who worked from dawn to dusk without a moment's respite, any better.

As for the women of the numerous smaller nationalities, their lot was the most miserable of all. Thus, for instance, the woman of the eastern regions of tsarist Russia was deprived of the most elementary human rights. She was forced to conceal her face with the *parandjhah,* the traditional oriental veil. She was forbidden to sit at table with the men. The birth of a daughter was considered a misfortune, and if several girls were born to a family it was regarded as a disgrace.

The Great October Socialist Revolution emancipated woman, giving her full equal rights with man.

Article 122 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. declares:

"Women in the U.S.S.R. are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, state, cultural, social and political life.

"The possibility of exercising these rights is ensured to women by granting them an equal right with men to work, payment for work, rest and leisure, social insurance and education, and by state protection of the interests of mother and child, pre-maternity and maternity leave with full pay, and the provision of a wide network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens."

And Article 137 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. declares:

"Women have the right to elect and be elected on equal terms with men."

Women in the U.S.S.R. are ensured every opportunity of exercising the rights accorded them by law. There are an enormous number of women employed in all branches of the national economy of the Soviet Union today. During the period of the two Five-Year Plans (1928-37), the number of women gainfully employed increased from 3,000,000 to 9,000,000. Moreover, the kind of work done by women has also changed.

In tsarist Russia according to the 1897 census, 55 per cent of the employed women worked as servants in the homes of big landowners, capitalists, merchants and rich government officials; 25 per cent were farm hands on large landed estates; 4 per cent worked in educational and public health institutions, and 13 per cent worked in industry or the building trades.

In 1936, 39 per cent of all the women employed in the U.S.S.R. were working in large-scale industry or the building trades, 15 per cent were employed in shops, stores, etc., transport and public catering establishments, 20 per cent were doctors or teachers, and only 2 per cent were domestic workers, or servants, to use the terminology of the old days. The remaining 24 per cent worked

in various other branches of industry, science or the arts.

There are huge industrial enterprises in the U.S.S.R., like the Skorokhod Shoe Factory in Leningrad, for example, where 60 per cent of those employed are women.

To help women take an active part in production and in public life in general, the Soviet state has established numerous nurseries and kindergartens, where the mother can leave her child while she is at work.

In 1937 the nurseries and kindergartens of the Soviet Union (exclusive of seasonal nurseries and kindergartens) accommodated 1,800,000 children. The Third Five-Year Plan provides for the accommodation of 4,200,000 children by 1942. Seasonal nurseries and kindergartens established by collective farms during the farming season accommodated approximately 5,700,000 children in 1937.

Public dining rooms and the wide sale of ready-to-serve and ready-to-cook food also relieve the woman of a great share of her housework. There are over 30,000 public catering establishments in the U.S.S.R. In 1938 their turnover amounted to 12,000,000,000 rubles. The planned turnover for 1939 was 13,500,000,000 rubles.

The Soviet working woman, like all working people in the U.S.S.R., has a seven-hour working day, and in many branches a six-hour day. The principle of equal pay for equal work, whether performed by women or men, is strictly observed. Like the man, the Soviet woman receives an annual vacation with pay, and if her health requires it, she receives a free vacation in a sanatorium or rest home.

Women are accorded public honour for good work or the attainment of greater proficiency or skill.

A number of professions which were regarded for centuries as being strictly "men's jobs" are now being "captured" by women. Before the Revolution, women were forbidden to hold positions of any importance on the railroads. Now there are over half

a million women working on the railroads in the U.S.S.R., many of them occupying key positions. Among these women railroad workers there are 400 station masters, 1,400 assistant station masters, and about 10,000 railroad engineers and technicians.

Any Soviet working woman or collective farmer who has the desires and who shows the necessary organisational abilities has the opportunity of becoming the manager of any Soviet enterprise.

The U.S.S.R. has its women engineers, physicians, fliers, scientists and executives. There is no branch of industry, agriculture, science or art, and no phase of executive or government work in which women are not employed.

There are more than 100,000 women engineers and technicians employed in large-scale industry or in the building trades in the Soviet Union, whereas in all the other countries of the world combined there are less than 10,000 women engineers.

Tsarist Russia had 2,000 women physicians. In the U.S.S.R. there are 132,000 physicians today, over half of whom are women

There has also been an enormous change in the use of female labour in agriculture.

Approximately 19,000,000 women are now working in the collective and state farms fields. But they are no longer the oppressed and downtrodden peasant women, "the dumb tools," as Gorky expressed it, of the Russia of old. The collective farm system has completely emancipated woman, in the full sense of the word. The women of the pre-revolutionary peasant family who worked from sunrise to sunset never knew how much she actually earned. Now every woman collective farmer is able to tell exactly how much she brings into her family. Data for 1936 show that women collective farmers accounted for over 35 per cent of all the work-day units.

A work-day unit is the equivalent of the average amount of work that can be performed in a working day as set for every type of

work in accordance with the difficulty of the work, the degree of skill required, the condition of the soil, machinery, etc. For the performance of this standard quota of work, the collective farmer is credited with one work-day unit. If the collective farmer performs more than the specified quota in a working day, he is credited with a correspondingly larger number of work-day units. At the end of the season the income of the collective farm in money and kind is shared out according to the number of work-day units each collective farmer has to his credit.

Formerly it was considered that woman was capable of doing only the simplest kind of work, that she could be trusted with no more complicated tools than the sickle and the hoe. Today there are 1,500,000 tractor drivers and combine operators employed in Soviet agriculture, and among them no few are women.

However, labour legislation in the U.S.S.R. takes account of the physical limitations of women and does not allow them to engage in work that is beyond their strength. Thus, for instance, Soviet law forbids the employment of women and young people below the age of 18 in industries which are considered hazardous to health. From the sixth month of pregnancy expectant mothers, as well as nursing mothers during the first six months of feeding their infants, are strictly barred from work on night shifts.

Besides the regular annual vacation, working women are entitled to a maternity leave of thirty-five days before birth and twenty-eight days after birth, with full pay. Women collective farmers are entitled to one month's maternity leave before giving birth and one month after, during which time they receive their average earnings.

Expectant mothers are transferred to lighter work before they go on their maternity leave, their pay remaining the same.

Nursing mothers are given not less than thirty minutes additional time off to feed their infants, at least every three and a half hours.

Soviet legislation on marriage and the family protects the in-

terest of mother and child. In the Soviet Union marriage is a voluntary union of free and equal persons. Registration of marriages in the U.S.S.R. is encouraged both in the interests of the state and society as a whole and in order to facilitate the protection of the personal and property rights of the wife and the children. However, unregistered marriages are just as valid as registered marriages in the eyes of Soviet law. There are no "illegitimate" children in the Soviet Union, all children are accorded the same rights.

A marriage may be dissolved either by mutual agreement of the husband and wife, or at the desire of either one of them. In registering the divorce, the state establishes how much each of the parents must contribute to the support of the children and with whom the children shall live.

In 1936 the Soviet Government called on public opinion to assist in the discussion of a draft decree closely touching the interests and sentiments of all Soviet citizens. The purpose of the decree was to afford still better protection to mother and child, to protect women from the well-known detrimental effects of frequent abortions, to discourage any irresponsible attitude towards paternal obligations, and in general to strengthen the family.

The new decree proposed the prohibition of abortions, with the exception of cases in which the pregnancy endangers the life or health of the woman, or where there is a danger to the child of inheriting some disease from its parents. In addition the decree proposed tightening-up of alimony and divorce legislation.

After a broad nation-wide discussion on this draft decree, it was adopted by the government in conformity with the express desire of the population.

Only under Socialism, the system where there is no exploitation and where the constant improvement of the material welfare of all the working people is a law of social development, is it possible to carry on a serious struggle to strengthen the family.

The enactment of this decree was made possible by the complete elimination of unemployment in the U.S.S.R. by the economic independence of women, by the increased material welfare of the entire population, by the fact that the child is secure and can look forward to an assured future.

With the enactment of this law, the Soviet Government assigned enormous sums as benefits to mothers of large families.

Upon the birth of her seventh child the mother receives a benefit of two thousand rubles annually until the child is five years of age, and the same amount on the birth of every subsequent child. Mothers of ten children receive five thousand rubles on the birth of every subsequent child, and three thousand rubles annually to the fifth birthday of the child.

From the day the law prohibiting abortions went into effect (June 27, 1936) to the present time, the state has paid out 2,000,000,000 rubles in benefits to mothers of large families.

The law fully achieved its aim—the strengthening of the family. There has been a sharp decline in the number of divorces. For example, in Moscow in 1936, 16,182 divorces were registered, whereas in 1937 this number declined to 8,961. In 1936, 71,073 children were born in Moscow, whereas in 1937, 135,848 children were born.

The Soviet woman is eager to acquire knowledge, to learn, and the Soviet Government helps her to study in every way. During the years of Soviet rule, 40,000,000 adults, among whom there are many women, were taught to read and write. And many of these people did not rest content with mere literacy, but continued their studies further in the various schools for adults.

Today women have access to the numerous colleges and universities of the U.S.S.R. Of the 601,000 college and university students in the Soviet Union, 43 per cent are women. The percentage of women students in pedagogical and medical schools is even higher.

The Soviet woman takes great interest in sports and athletics. Over half a million young women have passed athletic tests which entitle them to wear the GTO Badge (Russian initials for "Prepared for Labour and Defence"). Over 100,000 women proudly wear the Voroshilov Badge for marksmanship. Soviet sportswomen hold a number of world records, particularly in parachute jumping and flying.

In tsarist Russia, prostitution was widespread and legalized by the government. Prostitution has been completely wiped out in the U.S.S.R. Nor has it been abolished by means of police legislation, but by life itself, by the economic security and complete independence of the Soviet woman.

Participation in the constructive work of the country has given the Soviet woman more than economic independence. It has given the woman equal rights with man to administer the state. There are 189 women among the Members of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. Among the members of the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics there are 848 women, and 578 women are Members of the Supreme Soviets of the Autonomous Republics Over 1,500,000 women actively participate in the work of Village and City Soviets.

Tens of thousands of women in industry have become Stakhanovites, introducing new and better methods of work. Thus, for instance, the textile workers Evdokia and Maria Vinogradova, bold fighters for high labour productivity in their industry, are extremely popular and honoured by the whole country.

It was the women collective farmers who won the honour of achieving the highest yields of sugar beets. The Socialist competition for high sugar beet yields was started by Maria Demchenko, a collective farmer. She started out by attaining as much as 50 tons of sugar beets per hectare (2.47 acres). Now there are collective farm women in the Soviet Union who harvest as much as 100 tons of sugar beets per hectare.

In 1936, Pasha Angelina, a collective farm tractor driver, initiated a movement for the best woman tractor driver. Thousands of women tractor drivers and combine operators are now competing for this honour. In 1937, 250 of the best brigades of women tractor drivers ploughed an average of 1,838 acres of land per 15 h.p. tractor, whereas the average amount of land ploughed per 15 h.p. tractor in the Soviet Union was 1,015 acres.

The Soviet people have every right to pride themselves on women like Valentina Grizodubova, the late Paulina Ossipenko and Marina Raskova, fliers who displayed such heroism and such superb mastery of the art of flying in their long-distance non-stop flight from Moscow to the Far East. With this flight these Soviet airwomen established a long-distance non-stop flight world record for women.

Among the People's Commissars in the Soviet Union there are twelve women, including Paulina Zhemchuzhina—People's Commissar of the Fish Industry of the U.S.S.R., Qubra Faradzheva—People's Commissar of Public Health of Azerbaijan, and Bakhty Altibayeva—People's Commissar of Light Industry of Turkmenistan. One of the Vice-Chairmen of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. is a woman—Rosalia Zemlyachka.

There are 12,500 women scientific workers in the U.S.S.R. Recently Dr. Lena Stern, the author of over 300 papers on physiology and biochemistry, was elected to membership of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

The author of these lines has herself traversed the path from unskilled worker to Member of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

I entered a kolkhoz (collective farm) in 1929, but after a short time I left for Moscow to join my husband. This was in 1930. Within a year I began to work on the construction of the new ball-bearing plant in Moscow as a common labourer. I studied hard and diligently, and soon became a skilled worker. In 1932, after the plant was completed, I was made foreman in the ball-

bearing assembly shop. Within two years the workers of our factory had elected me as their deputy to the Moscow Soviet. I still continued to work in the factory. The Soviet Government decorated me with the Order of the Red Banner of Labour for distinguished service at work.

At the beginning of 1937 the voters of my district, that is, the district where our factory is located, elected me chairman of the District Soviet. Shortly after, the people imposed a further trust on me and elected me Member of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. I was nominated simultaneously by four factories. But recently an unskilled working woman, I now take an active part in administering the country.

The work of chairman of a District Soviet is no easy task. One must be a builder, an architect, an executive and a financier. The Budget of our District Soviet amounts to practically 37,000,000 rubles. The care and laying out of parks and greens, garbage disposal and street cleaning, road building, the local industries, public baths and laundries and a host of other public works all come under the immediate jurisdiction of the District Soviet. In addition to my duties as chairman, I supervise the work of the District Planning Department, the Department of Public Education, under which there are forty-six schools, and the District Board of Health.

Nor am I the only woman in the U.S.S.R. to fill such a post. The Soviet Union has many such women today—and will have still more.

The position of women in the U.S.S.R. is the most convincing argument against the fascist theory of the "inaptitude" of women, of their theory that women are fit only to raise children and tend to the house.

The great Russian democrat of the past century, N. Chernyshevsky, who did so much for the cause of education in Russia wrote:

"With what a true, powerful and penetrating mind nature has endowed woman; and this mind remains of no use to society, which spurns it, crushes it, smothers it, although the history of mankind would progress ten times as rapidly if this mind were not spurned and killed, but were exercised."

In the U.S.S.R. the mind and ability of the Soviet woman are exercised in the interests of society and consequently in the interests of the woman herself.

HOW OLD AGE IS PROVIDED FOR

By M. Shaburova

ORDER OF THE RED BANNER OF LABOUR

PEOPLE'S COMMISSAR OF SOCIAL MAINTENANCE OF THE R.S.F.S.R.

IN the Soviet Union all working people have the right to maintenance in old age. Every man who has reached the age of 60 and has worked for not less than 25 years, and every woman who has reached the age of 55 and has worked for not less than 20 years receives a pension irrespective of his or her capacity to work and earnings.

At the same time thousands of incapacitated workers and other employees receive disability pensions before reaching pension age. If disability is the result of injury sustained at work or an occupational disease a pension is granted irrespective of length of working service.

On reaching old age, people engaged in work underground or deleterious occupations are pensioned at 60 per cent of their last earnings; persons employed in heavy industry receive 55 per cent of their earnings, and those employed in light industry receive 50 per cent.

Certain increases are made according to the length of uninterupted service at the same place of work. People employed in underground occupations and deleterious trades receive an extra 10 per cent for 3 to 5 years' service, 20 per cent for 5 to 10 years and 25 per cent for over 10 years.

Persons employed in the metallurgical industries, machine-building, electrical engineering, mining, the oil industry, the basic chemical and rubber industries, railway and water transport and

industrial enterprises auxiliary to the post and telegraph service receive an incease of 10 per cent for 4 to 8 years' uninterrupted service at the same place of work, 15 per cent for 8 to 12 years and 20 per cent for over 12 years.

For all other workers and employees the increase is fixed at 10 per cent for 5 to 10 years' uninterrupted service, 15 per cent for 10 to 15 years, and 20 per cent for over 15 years.

Persons who have grown old in the service of science are pensioned at higher rates.

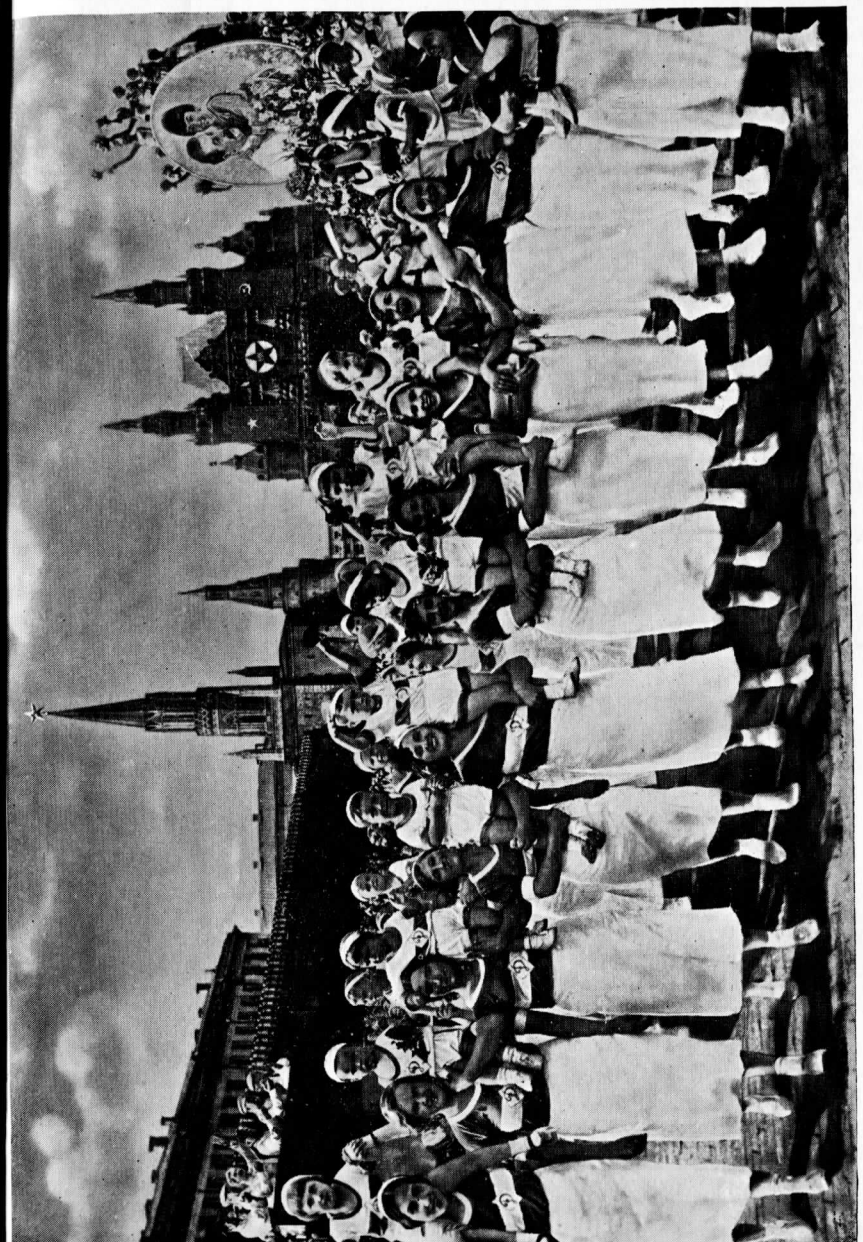
Scientists in the institutes of higher education, who have worked for not less than 25 years, ten of them under Soviet rule, receive a life pension equal to the salary received in their last appointments.

Teachers and other educational workers, likewise agronomists, doctors and veterinary surgeons, who have been practising for not less than 25 years, receive service persons amounting to 50 per cent of their earnings.

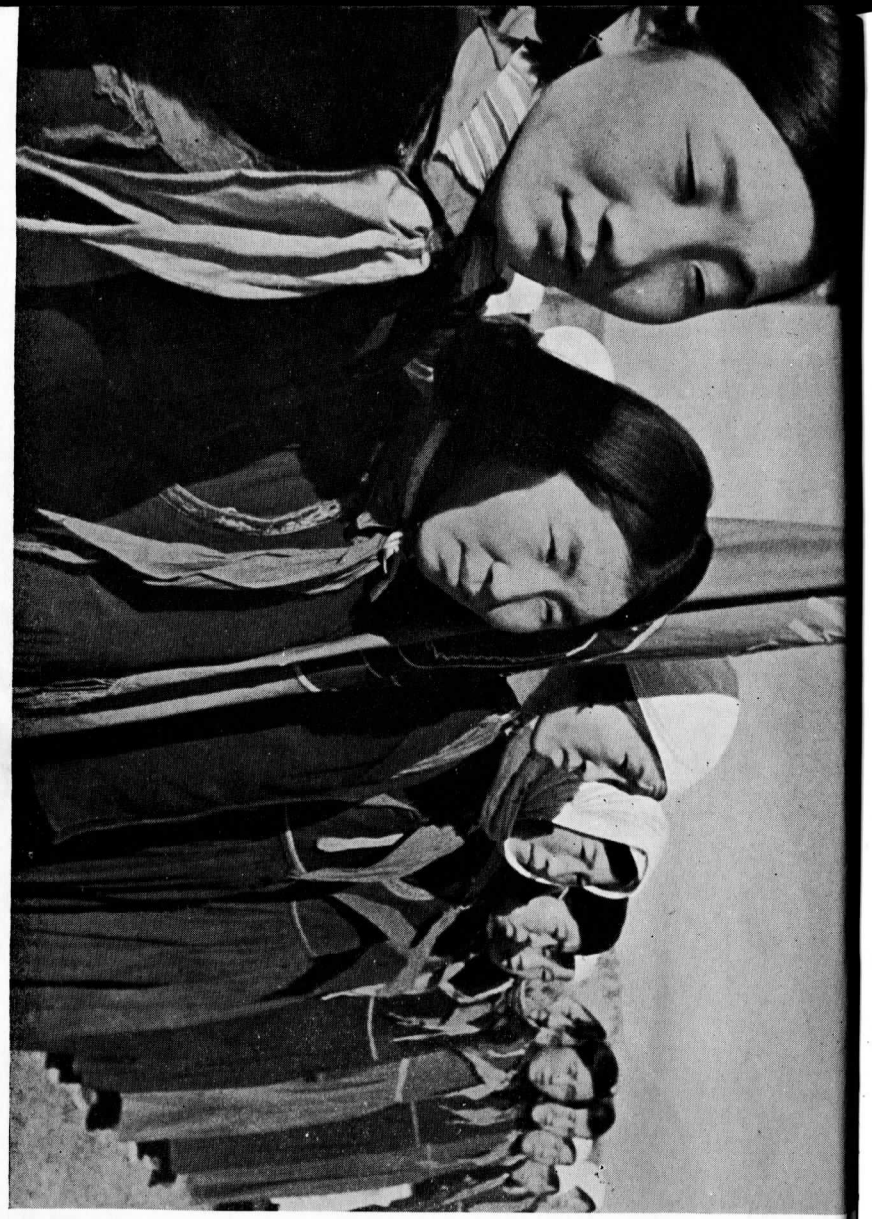
Legislation on old age insurance by the state was introduced at the very inception of the Soviet Government. Great developments in this field were made during the First and Second Five-Year Plan periods. Suffice it to say that in 1938 over 3,000,000,000 rubles of the state budget were assigned for social welfare.

But the state does not confine its provision for the old and incapacitated to pensions. The government also expends huge sums on various services for pensioners. It provides treatment in sanatoria and health resorts, maintains homes for the incapacitated, provides them with artificial teeth and surgical appliances, finds suitable work for them, teaches them new trades and subsidises their benefit societies.

A large number of palatial mansions, which formerly belonged to the royal family and the old nobility, have been put at the disposal of aged pensioners. The great palace built by Prince Kochubei in Tsarskoye Selo near Leningrad is now a nursing



MOTHERS IN THE U.S.S.R.



BURYAT—MONGOLIA
Young Pioneers in the Lenin Collective Farm

home for the old and incapacitated. Similar use has been made of the Shcherbatov estate in the Moscow Region, the Davydov estate in the Western Region, the Sheremetyev estates and the estates of many other counts and princes.

Many homes for the incapacitated have farms attached to them where the inmates engage in bee-keeping, poultry farming, market gardening and similar work on a voluntary basis.

In all these homes ample provision is made for entertainment and education. The inmates are well supplied with newspapers and periodicals, and are entertained with theatrical performances, moving pictures and concerts.

A large number of hospitals have been organized for incapacitated persons and the aged. There are special sanatoria, notably at Sochi, the "Soviet Riviera' on the Black Sea coast, at Kislovodsk, a world famous resort, at Yalta and other first-class resorts.

The Soviet Government has established a special system of co-operative enterprise under which aged or partially disabled persons can engage themselves in useful occupations in easy conditions. At the present time about 200,000 people are co-operating in this form of enterprise and in 1938 their gross turnover exceeded 3,000,000,000 rubles. The average wage in these co-operatives is 300 rubles per month, while tens of thousands of incapacitated persons earn from 400 to 500 rubles a month.

In addition the old folks and invalids congenially occupied in these co-operatives have their own insurance societies which supplement the benefits they receive from the state.

In 1938 these societies spent about 58,000,000 rubles on services to their members. The sum of 15,700,000 rubles was spent on sanatoria and health resort treatment and rest homes alone and about 10,000,000 rubles on the welfare of the members' children.

In the U.S.S.R. the peasantry too are guaranteed security in old age as well as the urban population.

The average peasant lived a hard life before the Revolution.

But old age was even worse. An old peasant was a burden to the family, an extra mouth to feed. When he died, it was a good riddance.

"Old age is a plague," says an old Russian proverb which is never heard nowadays.

Collectivisation has completely transformed the life of the peasantry. The homeless peasant, the aged paupers and cripples begging from village to village are things of the past.

Collective farmers who are unable to work because of old age or physical disability are provided for by the benefit societies.

Under the Collective Farm Rules the collective farms contribute 2 per cent of the gross income to their mutual aid funds, thus creating large public funds for the maintenance of the aged and disabled. The functions of these societies are numerous and various. They organize and maintain rest homes and homes for aged collective farmers. In 1937 and 1938 alone about 150,000,000 rubles were spent for these purposes.

Take the old folks' home for peasants in the Petrovsky District, Orjonikidze Territory. This home, which accommodates 24 old peasants, has a substantial farm with a market garden, an orchard, cows, calves, horses, hogs, sheep, geese, and other livestock. These old folks lack nothing.

Every citizen in the U.S.S.R. irrespective of age has the right to employment.

The shortness of the working day, the great expenditure on safety devices and on labour protection, the employment of modern machinery in industry and agriculture, the system of yearly vacations with pay and the fact that everyone feels that he is working for himself, has made work easier and congenial. That is why in many cases people well on in years and receiving pensions from the state sufficient for a serene old age, gladly continue to work at their jobs. They receive their pension in full as well as their wages.

"I am now 62 years old," says Fyodor Kostromin, a miner employed in the Donetz coal fields, "but I don't feel myself an old man yet, although the Soviet Government has put me on an old-age pension—327 rubles a month. I am still working in the pit and draw 850-900 rubles. Some months I earn more than 1,000 rubles. The municipal bank has advanced me a ten-year loan of 3,000 rubles returnable by instalments to build a house. Now I have a large, light, well-built house of my own."

Collective farmers, too, insist on working to a ripe old age when they could be resting at their ease. These old men and women are always ready to do some light work. They are held in great esteem. The old men are generally elected to the position of farm inspectors or other responsible offices.

Citizens who have grown old in the service of industry and science are admired and esteemed by all in our country.

In the words of the song:

"Youth has opportunity,
And age is honoured everywhere."

Maintenance in old age is ensured by law embodied in the Constitution.

Article 120 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.declares:

"Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or loss of capacity to work. This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of workers and employees at state expense, free medical service for the working people and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people."

PUBLIC HEALTH PROTECTION

By Prof. N. Propper-Grashchenkov

ASSISTANT PEOPLE'S COMMISSAR OF PUBLIC HEALTH OF THE U.S.S.R.

CORRESPONDING MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE U.S.S.R.

EVERYTHING connected with public health in the U.S.S.R. is in the hands of the state and is provided for by the state budget. This inclues prophylactic and epidemiological establishments (institutes, laboratories, sanitation centres, and the like), medical establishments (hospitals, dispensaries, clinics, sanatoria, health resorts, maternity homes, and the like), children's establishments (nurseries, child health centres, children's hospitals and sanatoria), medical science (scientific research institutes, laboratories), medical schools and the medical supplies industry.

The entire medical staff of the country, physicians, nurses, pharmacists, scientists, and professors—is in the employ of the state. The state provides the physician and the scientist with working conditions most suitable to their activities, placing at their disposal all the latest achievements of medical science and technique. The state assists the physician to increase his knowledge and skill by sending him at given intervals to special medical institutes and scientific research establishments so that he can keep in touch with the latest developments in medical science.

There has been a great increase in the number of physicians since the establishment of Soviet power—132,000 in 1937 as against 19,785 in tsarist Russia in 1913. Today there are approximately two and a half times as many physicians in rural districts as there were before the Revolution. The increase in the number of

physicians has been even more striking in the republics of the non-Russian nationalities. In Azerbaijan, for example, there were 291 physicians before the Revolution, whereas there are 2,480 today; in all of Tajikistan there were only 13 physicians, now there are 372.

In 1937, 10,300,000,000 rubles of the state budget were assigned for public health work. This sum is almost seventy-five times as large as the 1913 public health budget of tsarist Russia. The per capita expenditure for medical purposes in 1913 was only 90 kopeks; today this sum has increased to 60 rubles.

Like every other phase of economic and cultural life in the Soviet Union, public health work proceeds according to a definite plan. The establishments, staffs, scientific and everyday work of medical institutions and organizations are all planned. At the beginning of every fiscal year, the People's Commissariat of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. together with the people's Commissariats of Public Health of the various republics and the local Boards of Health determine where hospitals, polyclinics, maternity homes, nurseries, sanatoria, scientific institutes, medical schools, and the like are needed and how many should be built. At the same time, the most important tasks for the coming year are also determined.

The fact that all public health work is centrally directed makes possible the proper utilization of all the facilities of the country, the wide-spread application of the latest achievements in medical science, and unified methods of work. The medical establishments and organizations of the Soviet Union are not isolated, insular institutions, but are closely interconnected and work according to a common plan of preventative and curative measures.

The entire public health system of the Soviet Union is based on preventative medicine. Efforts and means are directed primarily towards preventing illnesses and safeguarding the population against sickness.

The public health system includes numerous and widespread specialized sanitation organization which engage in work in the field of industrial hygiene and labour protection, housing and municipal sanitation and food hygiene, and which combat epidemics. There is an extensive network of scientific research institutes of hygienics, sanitation centres and laboratories which serve as bases for the hygienists in their prophylactic work. However, it is not these sanitation organizations alone that concern themselves with prophylactic measures. The entire Soviet public health system concerns itself with the work. Even the establishments for treating ill people, and therapeutists base their activities on preventative medicine. For this reason hygiene is a science that is particularly widely taught in all medical schools.

Public organizations of the working people do much to assist the public health institutions. Every City and District Soviet has its Board of Health. Hospitals and prophylactic institutes have the co-operation of public commissions. Sanitation commissions are organized in apartment houses: collective farms have their sanitary inspectors. The members of these commissions and the inspectors are elected by the local population and go through special training courses in the Hygiene Educational Centres.

These commissions and collective farm inspectors keep a check on the work of medical establishments, and assist the latter to carry out prophylactic measures by interesting the public in questions of health protection and making them conscious of the necessity of observing the rules of hygiene at home and at work. Hygiene Educational Centres were first introduced by the Soviet Government. They supervise all educational work in the field of hygiene in their district. They publish posters and pamphlets, show moving pictures, arrange exhibitions, distribute literature, organize lectures on hygiene, etc.

Soviet public health work has been so efficacious because of the very nature of the social and state system existing in the U.S.S.R.

in which unemployment, destitution and poverty have been permanently done away with on the basis of the abolition of the exploitation of man by man. In a remarkbly short period of time the Socialist state has succeeded in raising the material and cultural level of the entire poulation enormously, thereby laying a firm foundation for sucessful work in the field of public health.

The reconstruction of industry and agriculture on the basis of modern machine technique has been effected in full accordance with the scientific requirements of industrial hygiene and sanitation. The construction of new cities and the reconstruction of the old ones are also being carried on in conformity with these requirements. Thus, for example, before the Revolution there were 222 cities that had water mains and 33 that had sewer systems, whereas by 1938 there were 384 and 112 respectively. Incidentally, it should be borne in mind that even in those cities of tsarist Russia where there were water mains and sewer systems, these facilities existed only in the central districts of the city, where the wealthy people lived. The water mains, sewer and electric lighting systems did not extend to the city outskirts and slums, where the working class population lived.

Slums have long since been wiped out in the cities of the Soviet Union, and the suburbs have been transformed into well-appointed neighbourhoods which in many cases surpass the central districts both as to municipal improvements and architectural layout.

Public utilities are being widely introduced in collective farms (*kolkhozes*). Thus the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic has installed 34 water mains in the rural districts, having a gross length of 99.5 miles and serving 53 villages with a population of 108,640. The Daghestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic has constructed 138 water mains in rural districts and an additional 23 are now in the process of construction. The Tatar Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic has built 38 water mains in the country-

side and is building 9 more. Prior to the Revolution, these Republics did not have a single water main.

During the years of Soviet rule, approximately 646,000,000 sq. ft. of housing space have been built in just the cities and towns.

Another outstanding achievement is the great increase in the quality and quantity of foodstuffs placed on the market. In 1938 the Soviet food industry produced 14,800,000,000 rubles worth of food products, which is about six times the output of the food industry of tsarist Russia. As a result of the measures taken by the state, a great variety of nutritious food products is available to the entire population.

The change in the nutrition value of the food consumed by the Soviet public today can be seen from the following table:

Per Capita Food Consumption by Workers and Other Employees in 1937.
(1932 = 100)

Food Group	*Percentage*
Black bread	71.0
Wheat bread	176.7
All high-grade breads	125.8
Fruits and berries	316.2
Ham, bacon and other cured meats	490.0
Lard	187.3
Butter	301.6
Eggs	208.4

There has been a corresponding increase in the dietary standard of the rural population. According to data covering the budgets of collective farmers from 1933 to 1937, the per capita consumption of meat, fish, fats, sugar and confectionery more than doubled in these four years.

The per capita consumption of albumins in the U.S.S.R. today is over 100 grams a day, as compared with 35-40 grams in Germany, for instance.

Approximately 20,000,000 people avail themselves of the services of public catering in the U.S.S.R. Public dining rooms and restaurants have special dietetic tables as well.

At the same time, the wages of the working people are constantly rising. The national payroll has increased from 34,953,000,000 rubles in 1933 to 96,425,000,000 rubles in 1938. The average annual wage of a worker in industry was 1,533 rubles in 1933 and 3,447 rubles in 1938.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. guarantees the working people of the U.S.S.R. the right to free medical services, security in old age, maintenance in the event of loss of working capacity or illness, and the right to state protection of the interests of mother and child.

All medical service—from first aid to the most intricate surgical operation—is rendered free of charge to the working people of the Soviet Union.

All forms of medical aid—the most up-to-date methods of diagnosis and treatment, laboratory analyses, X-rays, physiotherapeutic treatment, hospital treatment and sanatorium cures, radiotherapy, maternity home services where methods of painless deliveries have been developed, dental treatment, the provision of orthopædic appliances, etc.—are available to the Soviet working people and their families without cost.

The Soviet citizen is given the care of the public health establishments from the very day of birth. As soon as a child is born he is registered in his district child welfare centre. This means that he will be under the constant supervision of a doctor. The mother will be instructed in the care of the child, its routine, diet and proper up bringing. The child will be vaccinated and inoculated against contagious diseases, and in case of illness provided with medical aid at home or in a children's hospital.

The child welfare centres do not wait until they are applied to for assistance. The doctors and nurses of the centres visit the child at home, acquaint themselves with his living conditions and advise the parents on the care of the child.

In all tsarist Russia there were only 9 child and maternity welfare centres. Today, there are 4,384 child and maternity welfare centres in the U.S.S.R.

Dairy kitchens are attached to these child welfare centres. Babies receive the necessary dairy products here according to the doctors' prescriptions; sick children receive special formulae.

Infants from the age of twenty-eight days are accepted in nurseries. The mother may leave her child in the nursery when she goes to work. Here the child is under the supervision of doctors and trained nurses. Besides the regular nurseries, seasonal nurseries are established in the rural districts during the farming season.

In 1937, Soviet nurseries (including the seasonal nurseries) accommodated about 4,000,000 children. The nurseries accept children until the age of three and a half. Children up to this age are most susceptible to all sorts of illnesses and contagious diseases. For this reason the nurseries are under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat of Public Health. Children over three and a half years of age are accepted in the kindergartens, which are under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat of Education.

The number of establishments for the health protection of mother and child is increasing with every year. Within three years alone their budget increased more than three times over and in 1937 reached a sum total of 1,371,000,000 rubles.

Maternity welfare centres, of which there are 4,384 in the country, afford medical supervision to expectant mothers, who register in these centres during their very first months of pregnancy. Here they are given medical advice at government expense.

Working women and all other women employees receive thirty-five days' maternity leave before confinement and twenty-eight days after, during which time they receive full pay. The maternity

centres direct the expectant mother to a maternity home for her confinement.

In 1937 there were over 120,000 beds in lying-in hospitals in the U.S.S.R., whereas there were only 6,824 in tsarist Russia. A large number of scientific and practical institutions have been established in the Soviet Union for work in the field of obstetrics.

By decree of the Soviet Government in 1936, abortions are forbidden in the Soviet Union, with the exception of cases in which pregnancy endangers the life or health of the woman, or where there is a danger to the child of inheriting some serious disease from its parents.

Only under Socialism, the system where there is no exploitation, where woman is an equal member of society and where every child is secure and able to look forward to an assured future, since under Socialism the constant improvement of the material welfare of all the working people is a law of social development, is it possible to wage a serious struggle against an irresponsible attitude towards the family and family obligations and to combat abortions, by prohibitive legislation as well as by other means. This is why the Soviet Government, bearing in mind the well-known detrimental effects of abortions, met the numerous requests of Soviet working women and enacted such a decree.

At the same time, the Soviet Government established a system of state benefits to mothers of large families. From June 27, 1936 (the day the decree went into effect), to January 1, 1939, 2,100,000,000 rubles were paid out to mothers of large families by the state.

Children receive medical aid in children's polyclinics, dispensaries and hospitals.

Recently the First Children's Polyclinic in Moscow observed its twentieth anniversary. This Polyclinic was established on the first anniversary of Soviet rule. It has a staff of 70 physicians and specialists. From 500 to 600 children are received here daily. It

has Roentgen and physiotherapeutic departments, its own laboratory and a sanatorium with 70 beds, where children receive treatment during the day, returning to their homes for the night.

In the old days there were no such establishments whatever. It is only under Soviet rule that such establishments were set up in the country. Now every part of the Soviet Union has its children's hospitals and clinics.

All children and adolescents undergo an annual medical examination in the spring. At this time children who need to be sent to rest homes and sanatoria are selected.

In 1938 over 400,000 children and adolescents took cures in children's sanatoria, and about 2,000,000 school children and hundreds of thousands of children of pre-school age spent their summer vacations in health camps.

The care accorded children and adolescents in the Soviet Union is convincingly reflected in the labour legislation of the country; the labour of children below the age of 14 is strictly prohibited; minors from 14-16 years of age are allowed to work only four hours a day at light work, and adolescents from the ages of 16-18 have a six-hour working day. Adolescents are obliged to undergo a thorough physical examination before starting work, in order to establish what kind of work can be performed by them in accordance with the state of their health.

The enormous expenditures on kindergartens, nurseries, maternity homes, dairy kitchens, sanatoria, summer camps and rest homes for mother and child have had splendid results.

During the years of Soviet rule, child mortality has declined by over fifty per cent. The chest expansion of Soviet children as compared with the children of tsarist Russia shows an average increase of one inch, and their height has increased by an average of one and a quarter inches. Thus, for example, adolescents employed in the Kolomna Works were from one and three-quarters to two and a half inches taller and weighed eleven and a half pounds

more in 1937 than in 1925.

Of great state importance in the U.S.S.R. is the persistent work done to prevent industrial accidents, since this work is directed towards safeguarding the life and health of the working man himself, the most valuable asset in the Soviet Union.

A number of institutes which deal specially with industrial accidents and orthopædics have been established in the Soviet Union. These institutes constitute methodological centres both for the study of industrial accidents and the means of combating them, and for training personnel to carry out the latter work.

As a result of the constantly increasing introduction of automatic machinery in industry and the compulsory use of safety measures and appliances, there has been an enormous decrease in industrial accidents in the U.S.S.R.

In this connection it is interesting to note that among the most progressive and advanced workers, who participate in the Stakhanov movement and who display high labour productivity, industrial accidents are for the most part far less frequent than among the other workers.

The widespread establishment of first aid stations both in factories and in collective farms, as well as the fact that people who sustain injuries at work have free access to further treatment, has led to a sharp decline in the harmful consequences resulting from industrial accidents.

Health stations in factories and other places of work, first set up under Soviet rule, are extremely important factors in creating healthful labour conditions and combating industrial accidents. There are 7,631 such stations in the U.S.S.R. today. They render medical aid and carry on health protection work—check up on the sanitary conditions of the given enterprise, introduce measures for decreasing illness and accidents, treat workers who take ill, select people to be sent to health resorts, rest homes and sanatoria, and those in need of special diets in dietetic restaurants.

Workers requiring more skilled or special treatment are sent by these stations to the district polyclinic or dispensary. The polyclinics are staffed with specialists in all the principal branches of medicine; they have all sorts of medical appliances, provide physiotherapeutic and X-ray treatments and have their own laboratories.

There are seven and a half times as many polyclinics in the country since Soviet rule, and they accommodate ten times as many patients.

Some urban polyclinics handle between 1,000 and 4,000 patients a day. The Central Railroad Workers' Polyclinic in Moscow has a medical staff of about 1, 000, of whom 400 are physicians.

A certain zone in the district where the polyclinic is located is assigned to every therapeutist in the polyclinic. The physician serves the population of this territory. He receives the people living in the zone assigned him in the polyclinic and visits them at home. But this family physician is in an incomparably better position than the former private practitioner of tsarist Russia. He has all the latest achievements of medical science at his disposal, X-ray apparatus and laboratories. He can send his patient to any specialist in the polyclinic or call out a specialist to the home of the patient for consultation purposes; he can send the patient for a course of physiotherapeutic treatment and he can avail himself of the services of a well-trained staff of medical workers.

In capitalist Russia tuberculosis and venereal diseases were extremely widespread among the workers and peasants as a result of the severe exploitation of the working people, unemployment, poverty, the downtrodden and oppressed position of women and the insanitary condition of the workers' quarters. The medical profession was powerless to combat these illnesses.

The Socialist system has done away with the social conditions that give rise to these evils. The public health institutions of the Soviet Union with their 5,000 physicians for venereal diseases working in 2,225 medical institutions have succeeded in greatly

curtailing venereal infections. Thus, there are only one-tenth as many syphilitic cases in the U.S.S.R. as there were in pre-revolutionary Russia, and new cases of syphilis are extremely rare. The principal source for the spread of syphilitic infection in tsarist Russia was prostitution (54.7 per cent of all cases). There is no prostitution in the U.S.S.R. since Socialism, having wiped out unemployment, poverty and destitution, thereby eliminated the economic causes giving rise to prostitution. Thus, in 1935 there was not a single case of syphilis among the young men called up to serve in the Red Army from the large cities, towns and collective farms of the principal industrial and agricultural regions of the U.S.S.R.

Just as great progress has been made by the Soviet public health institutions in the fight against tuberculosis, which has decreased by 83 per cent since Soviet rule was established. In the large cities of the U.S.S.R., mortality due to tuberculosis has been reduced to less than half of what it was in pre-revolutionary Russia. Particular attention is devoted to combating tuberculosis among children. For this purpose not only have children's tuberculosis sanatoria been established, but special tuberculosis preventative schools, children's camps and health grounds have been built all over the Soviet Union. There are over one thousand dispensaries for carrying on preventative work among people prone to have tuberculosis and treating tubercular cases, whereas not a single institution of this kind existed in tsarist Russia.

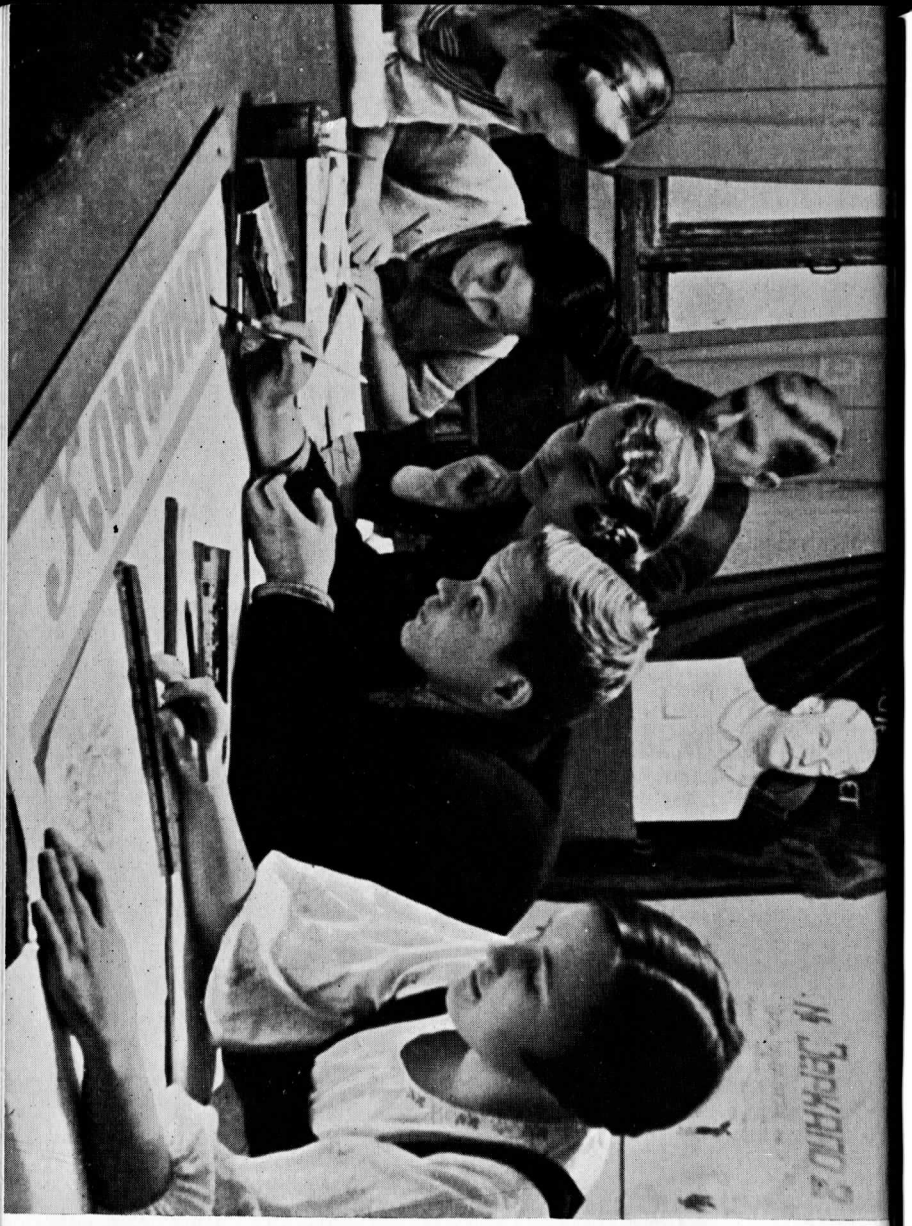
Urban hospitals have four times as many beds as they had before the Revolution. In 1937 there were 396,000 urban hospital beds as compared with 89,200 in 1913.

The republics inhabited by the non-Russian nationalities present a particularly striking picture, for here, under tsarism, due to the absence of adequate medical assistance among the population, all sorts of charlatans and witch doctors flourished.

Today there are over 3,000 hospital beds in the Turkmen Soviet

SANATORIA AT SOCHI

(above) belonging to the Red Army and Navy (below) for Workers in Heavy Industry



THE WALL NEWSPAPER
In a Moscow School

Socialist Republic, whereas formerly there were only 200; in the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic the number of hospital beds has increased from 600 to 9,200, and so on.

Besides this quantitative increase, it is necessary to note the qualitative aspect of Soviet hospitals, which differ so greatly from the hospitals of the past. This qualitative difference consists in the specialization in Soviet hospitals, the existence of departments in all the principal branches of medicine (therapeutic, surgical, neurological, tuberculosis, children's contagious diseases, gynecological, obstetrical and sometimes ophthalmological departments), the technical facilities (X-ray and light treatment, hydroelectric baths, and in many large hospitals mud-bath treatment); and special hospital dietary as worked out by the Soviet scientist Professor Pevsner.

The hospitals have highly skilled staffs, besides which they can avail themselves of the consultative services of professors in any branch of medicine, even to the extent of summoning them from the large cities.

The Dzerzhinsky Textile Mill (*Trekhgornaya Manufactura*) is one of the largest factories in Moscow. Before the Revolution this enterprise was the property of a certain manufacturer named Prokhorov. Even prior to Soviet rule this factory had something in the nature of a clinic attached to it—a few hospital beds, in the charge of one doctor. Very few people could avail themselves of the services of this clinic, and even these could not depend on receiving skilled medical aid.

Now the annual budget of the hospital attached to this mill amounts to about one million rubles. There are one hundred skilled physicians and professors at the service of the factory workers and the members of their families. Any patient is entitled to receive free medical advice from professors, including specialists of world fame. This hospital has a maternity ward, X-ray departments, a physiological-psychology department and a

chemical and bacteriological laboratory. The dental department is located in the health centre in the factory itself.

Another example. In tsarist times there were only two small hospitals with three physicians in the large industrial centre Orekhovo-Zuevo. Today there are one thousand hospital beds there and fifty physicians.

A physician was a rare sight in the villages of tsarist Russia. Witch doctors and ignorant village midwives held full sway. The rural population could depend only on them for "medical" assistance.

Today district medical centres have been established throughout the countryside. These medical centres have hospitals, clinics, first aid stations, obstetrical departments, collective farm maternity homes, child and maternity welfare centres, nurseries, departments for the treatment and prevention of tuberculosis, venereal diseases and malaria, and so on. Many of these centres have Roentgen and physiotherapeutic apparatus and laboratories.

Large hospitals, dispensaries and polyclinics have been built in the central towns of the rural districts.

In 1937 there were 175,955 hospital beds in the countryside, whereas in 1913 there were only 49,423. Lying-in hospitals can now accommodate 54,317 women, as against 4,611 in the old days. There are 1,626 rural child and maternity welfare centres, whereas there was not a single one before the Revolution.

In 1937 there were 370,000 children in the regular nurseries of the countryside, and 3,500,000 in the seasonal nurseries.

Urban medical establishments are ever ready to come to the assistance of distant rural settlements in emergency cases by dispatching physicians in airplanes.

The Soviet Government takes every measure to strengthen the rural staffs of medical workers; rural physicians receive higher pay, all sorts of material advantages are afforded them, every three years they are sent for a three to four months' course of specialized

study in some medical institute, during which time they continue to receive their full pay and an additional allowance.

Increasing numbers of people avail themselves of health resort treatments. There are hundreds of sanatoria in Soviet health resorts. In 1937 more than half a million people took sanatorium cures, exclusive of 200,000 clinic patients and the many thousands of people who visited the health resorts on their own and not through some medical establishment.

Over two million people annually spend their vacations in rest homes.

In tsarist Russia health resorts could accommodate only about 3,000 visitors. Today sanatoria accomodate 80,000. In the old days, health resorts were only for the privileged rich, the big landowners, merchants, nobles, army officers, government officials and the higher ranks of the clergy. The working men had no access to such places. Today all health resorts are at the service of the working people and their families, Many of the country homes and palaces which formerly belonged to the royal family and the aristocracy have been turned into sanatoria. A large number of new sanatoria which are virtual palaces have been constructed.

Besides the establishment of excellent new health resorts, vast improvements have been made in the old health resorts. The Sochi-Matsesta health resort can serve as a good example of how completely the old resorts have been transformed. New first-class sanatoria have been opened here, a splendid new bath for balneological treatment has been built, and new sulphur springs have been discovered.

In addition to the famous health resorts of Crimea and the Caucasus which are known all over the world, numerous new health resorts have been established in other parts of the Soviet Union. Every Union and Autonomous Republic has its local balneological and climatotherapeutic health resorts.

The constantly expanding and rapidly increasing scope of public health work in the U.S.S.R. demands ever larger numbers of workers in this field. The medical schools where new physicians are trained, are state institutions. The Soviet Union now has 72 independent medical colleges with a student body of over 100,000. Tuition is free and most of the students receive state allowances. Every graduate of any institution of higher education in the Soviet Union knows beforehand where he will work. The People's Commissars of Public Health of the U.S.S.R. and the various Union Republics, or their assistants, arrange to talk things over with each young physician in order to be able to determine what work he is best suited for and where it would be best to assign him. Of course the personal interests of each individual are taken into account as well as the requirements of the state.

Of the physicians working in the Soviet Union today, over 80 per cent are new, having graduated from medical schools during the years of Soviet rule.

The physicians, scientific workers and professors are held in high esteem in the Soviet Union. A splendid expression of the respect accorded them is the fact that many medical men and scientists have been elected members of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics. Many medical workers have been decorated by the Soviet Government for distinguished service in the field of science and medical work.

In the U.S.S.R. medical science is closely bound up with practice. There are 9,600 scientific workers in the 297 Soviet scientific research institutes in the various branches of medicine. On the basis of a wealth of clinical data and extensive research work these workers are able to solve problems of the utmost importance in the field of medicine.

The work of the late Academician Pavlov and his numerous followers, among whom are Academician Orbeli, Professor Razenkov and Academician Speransky, is known throughout the world.

Academician Burdenko's work in the field of neuro-surgery has also gained world renown.

Splendid results have been achieved by various theoretical institutes, including the Brain Institute, which is headed by Professor Ossipov in Leningrad and Professor Sarkissov in Moscow. Outstanding among the numerous scientific experimental and theoretical institutes is the huge All-Union Gorky Institute of Experimental Medicine (known by its Russian initials VIEM). The tasks of this Institute are to engage in a thorough study of the human organism on the basis of contemporary theories and practice of medical science, to discover new methods of diagnosis, treatment and preventative medicine, based on the latest achievements in the fields of biology, chemistry and physics, and the designing of new equipment for laboratories and clinics. The research work of the Institute covers all the theoretical branches of medicine and the branches of other sciences that are of most importance to medicine. It also maintains its own clinics. At present a new building for the VIEM, which will cost about 89,000,000 rubles, is in the process of construction.

The Soviet state assigns enormous funds to the development of science. The Soviet public health system, basing its work on the great advances made by science, has achieved splendid results in improving the health of the people. It has been able to achieve this on the basis of the general economic and cultural progress made by the country and with the assistance of the masses of the working people. In 1937 the death rate in the U.S.S.R. was 40 per cent below the death rate in tsarist Russia in 1913, and in Moscow mortality decreased even more—to 50 per cent of the 1913 figure. Child mortality in the U.S.S.R. was cut by half. The birth rate in the Soviet Union is constantly rising—in 1937, for instance, it was 18 per cent higher than in 1936. The natural increase in the population in Moscow more than doubled—from 9.1 per every

1,000 inhabitants in 1913, to 20 per 1,000 in 1937; in Leningrad the natural increase in the population more than trebled—from 5.3 per 1,000 in 1913, to 18.6 per 1,000 in 1937.

PUBLIC EDUCATION

By O. Leonova

MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R. TEACHER OF MERIT.

IN their novels and other writings the foremost Russian authors, such as Tolstoy, Chekhov and Gorky, have drawn memorable pictures of Russian village school teachers—modest, hard-working fighters for educating the people. They have made their lives, that were all too familiar with privation and persecution, an open book to the world.

Receiving a miserable pittance for his work, the village school teacher in tsarist Russia was constantly being hounded by the local police officer, the local member of the Black Hundreds, the kulak and the saloon-keeper. Regular school buildings were practically unknown in the countryside. The school was usually housed in an old shack on the outskirts of the village, and served children living within a radius of five or six miles. In the autumn the poorly clad, half-starved youngsters had to trudge to school over muddy roads, in the pouring rain, and in the winter they were exposed to the blizzards and frosts. But even these "lucky ones," who at least had an opportunity of getting some schooling, were very few.

Seventy-three per cent of the population of tsarist Russia (exclusive of children under nine years of age) was illiterate.

Of every thousand inhabitants, less than fifty attended school. Children of school age constituted 22 per cent of the population, but only 4.7 per cent actually attended school.

In 1913 the budget of the tsarist ministry of public education was fixed at 136,700,000 rubles. This meant an average expendi-

ture of 80 kopeks per capitum, while England and Belgium were spending 3 and 3.50 rubles per capitum, and the U.S.A. somewhat over 9 rubles.

It was only the rare individual who, at the price of tremendous privations, was able to acquire an education, people like Mikhail Lomonosov, the scientist; Taras Shevchenko, the Ukrainian poet, and the writer Maxim Gorky, who rose from the very depths of the people, and whose brilliant works enriched not only Russian but world culture as well.

During the World War matters with regard to public education became still worse. The economic collapse of the country and the mass impoverishment led to a great decline in the number of those attending schools. Schools were closed down in places and, of course, no new schools whatever were built.

In the first years of its existence, Soviet Russia was engaged in a hard-fought and bitter struggle against intervention and internal counter-revolution. However, even in those difficult times, the Soviet Government devoted a great deal of attention to the development of public education. A decree was issued assigning the best premises for the use of schools, kindergartens and nurseries. Children were transferred from the old, crowded schools to roomy, well-lit buildings. There was a great increase in the number attending schools.

Putting an end to national oppression, the October Revolution swept away all restrictions with regard to the rights of any nationality to education. Among others, such barriers as the percentage quota set by the tsarist government for Jewish children allowed to enter high schools and universities, and the prohibition of national schools in the Ukraine, in Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Byelorussia and Central Asia were also destroyed. All children in the Land of the Soviets were given the opportunity of studying in their native tongue.

The tremendous work of wiping out illiteracy among the adult

population was started on a nation-wide scale. In 1918 I worked as a teacher among both children and adults. I shall never forget how persistently people strove to acquire knowledge, and how great was their joy when, at the age of thirty or forty, they first learned to read and write.

At present, illiteracy has in the main been wiped out in the U.S.S.R. In twenty years of Soviet rule, 40,000,000 adults were taught to read and write.

After the Civil War, the Soviet Government began to devote even greater attention to public education. The multi-national composition of the Soviet state presented a number of difficulties. Some of the nationalities of the U.S.S.R. had no written alphabet of their own, no schools and no teachers. It was necessary to start from the very beginning in the field of education.

Under tsarism there could be no thought of universal elementary education. The tsarist ministers considered that universal, compulsory elementary education could be introduced "no earlier than before the end of the twentieth century." The rapid economic development of our country, the cultural growth and increased material well-being of the population, the tremendous amount of work done by the Soviet Government in the field of culture made it possible to introduce universal compulsory elementary education throughout the country in 1931.

One can judge of the progress of public education in the U.S.S.R. both by the number of school children and students, and by the expenditures on public education and school construction.

In 1914 there were only 8,137,000 school children and students in tsarist Russia.

In 1938-39, the number of school children and students in the U.S.S.R. (including those engaged in all forms of education) reached 47,442,100.

In 1914 there were 995,000 children attending secondary schools.

By 1938-39 the secondary schools (both general and special) already had an attendance of 12,076,000.

In 1914 there were 112,000 students in universities and colleges, whereas by 1938-39 this number had increased to 601,000.

More schools were built in the U.S.S.R. in twenty years than the tsarist autocracy built in two hundred years. Thus, from 1933 to 1938, 20,607 schools were built.

Tuition in the Soviet Union is free. The state further manifests its solicitude for the student body by providing the overwhelming majority of university students with stipends and living quarters.

Expenditures on public education are also increasing. In 1937 alone, 6,179,000,000 rubles were allotted for school requirements.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1938-1942) provides for the introduction of universal, compulsory secondary education in the cities, and for universal, compulsory education up to and including the seventh class in the countryside and in all the national republics, accompanied by a steady increase in the number of children going through ten grades of schooling.

The Plan provides for an increase in the number of students in universities and colleges from 601,000 in 1938-39 to 650,000 by the end of 1942.

By 1942 the number of children attending elementary and secondary schools in the cities and workers' settlements is planned to increase from 8,600,000 to 12,400,000, and in the countryside from 20,800,000 to 27,700,000. In all over 40,000,000 children will be attending elementary and secondary schools by the end of the Third Five-Year plan period.

It is also planned to train 550,000 to 600,000 additional teachers for the schools of the Soviet Union, during the period from 1938 to 1942. Hundreds and thousands of new schools will be added to the thousands of modern school buildings that have already been built.

The tsarist government regarded the numerous national minorities of Russia as mere prey for colonial plunder. It had no interest whatever in their cultural development. On the contrary, tsarist officials planted and fostered ignorance and barbarism among the population in the national borderlands, inciting the various nationalities against one another.

The fact that only 25 kopeks a year were spent per capitum for public education in Uzbekistan, for example, and 50 kopeks in Turkmenistan is evidence of the absolutely insignificant expenditures of tsarist Russia on public education in Central Asia.

Today over 30 and 40 rubles per capitum are being expended annually on public education in the Uzbek and Turkmen Republics. Over 80 per cent of the population of these Republics are literate. In compliance with the law on compulsory education, all children in the national republics, as throughout the U.S.S.R., are attending elementary schools free of charge. At present there are over 20 times as many pupils attending secondary school in the national republics as there were in 1914. In some national republics the increase in the number of secondary school pupils has been even greater. In Azerbaijan there are 35 times as many children attending school now as before the Revolution, in Turkmenistan—37 times as many, in Uzbekistan—53 times as many, in Uzbekistan—53 times as many, in Armenia—68 times as many, and in Kirghizia, where before the Revolution there were only 500 school children in all, 172 times as many. Tajikistan had no secondary schools at all before the Revolution; now there are 22,000 children attending the schools, established in this Republic by the Soviet Government.

The tsarist government put every difficulty in the way of the children of the urban and rural poor to keep them out of its institutions of higher learning. In the U.S.S.R. the doors of universities and colleges are wide open to all young men and women. Byelorussia, which did not have a single university before the

Revolution, now has 22, Azerbaijan has 13, Armenia—8, Uzbekistan—30, Turkmenistan—5, Kazakhstan—19, and Kirghizia—4. In Georgia, a land whose culture dates back for centuries, there was only one university before the Revolution, with 300 students attending; now it has 18 universities, in which 21,800 students are studying. In the Ukraine there were 15 universities before the Revolution; now there are 139.

The national republics and regions have developed their own press and their own literature. In all of tsarist Russia, there were only 859 newspapers, with a circulation of 2,700,000. In the U.S.S.R. there are 8,550 newspapers, with a circulation that reached 37,500,000 copies in 1938. The number of public libraries had increased from 40,300 in 1933-34 to 70,000 in 1938-39, and the number of library books has increased from 86,000,000 to 126,000,000. In the U.S.S.R. books are published in the languages of 111 nationalities. Many nationalities now have a written alphabet for the first time in their history and can already avail themselves of literature in their own language.

The Soviet school teacher is a very important factor in the country's cultural development. There were comparatively very few teachers in tsarist Russia. In 1911, for example, there were only 92,400 teachers. At present there are approximately 1,000,000 teachers in the U.S.S.R.

The fact that the people have elected 19 teachers Members of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. shows how highly the work of a pedagogue is valued in the U.S.S.R. Scores of teachers have also been elected to the Supreme Soviet of Union and Autonomous Republics.

Together with his country, the Soviet school teacher has traversed a difficult but glorious path of labour and struggle. He fought in the front lines during the Civil War, and later took part in the struggle against economic collapse. Held in high esteem by the Soviet power, accorded every care and attention by the Soviet

Government, the Communist Party and Comrade Stalin personally, the Soviet teacher has now risen to a position in which he takes an active part in administering the affairs of state in the land of Socialism.

The care manifested for children in the U.S.S.R. is not confined to their school years. From their very youngest days the children are the objects of an attention which ensures them the opportunity of growing up into worthy citizens of Socialist society. The working mother may work in the factory or office, and the collective farm mother in the field, with their minds at rest, knowing that their children are safe in nurseries under the supervision of experienced doctors and nurses.

In the kindergarten and the school the growing child is provided with everything necessary for his physical and mental development.

In the sparsely inhabited regions of the Far North, the steppe lands and the forest regions, boarding schools and dormitories have been built, so that the children are not obliged to walk for miles to get to school.

In the U.S.S.R., the state and society as a whole holds the mother in great respect and accords her every attention and care. The birth of a child is welcomed in every family as a joyous event. The state shows its solicitude for the child even before its birth. Every part of the Soviet Union has its rest homes for expectant mothers, maternity and child health centres, dairy kitchens, nurseries and kindergartens.

Thanks to the solicitous care of the Soviet Government, the creative talent in children is being brought out with great success in our schools, children's homes and kindergartens. Soviet pedagogical methods not only help to reveal child talent, but assist in its development. Particular attention is devoted to gifted children. Special schools for young musicians, artists and dancers have been established in many cities.

As a result of all these measures taken by the Soviet Government, the country's cultural level has risen immeasurably. By January 1937 the forces of the Soviet intelligentsia increased to 9,591,000 persons. If we bear in mind that many of the skilled workers in the factories of the U.S.S.R. have had a secondary education, this figure will prove much higher. Including members of families the intelligentsia now comprises about 13 or 14 per cent of the population of the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet Government aims during the Third Five-Year Plan period (1938-42) to raise the cultural and technical level of the working class to the level of engineers and technicians. It is successfully carrying out the great Stalinist task of making all workers and all peasants cultured and educated members of society.

CRIME RECEDES

By A. Vyshinsky

ORDER OF LENIN. PROCURATOR OF THE U.S.S.R. DIRECTOR OF THE INSTITUTE OF LAW OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE U.S.S.R. MEMBER OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE fight against crime represents a highly important and far-reaching problem which has engaged the minds of philosophers, jurists, statesmen and others active in political life.

Criminologists in their study of crime carefully analyze such statistical material as helps to ascertain the state of crime in general and of its various categories in particular. From these data they construct certain theories and endeavour to formulate special laws of the genesis and development of crime, as if its origin and dissemination could really be subject to special laws which differ from the general laws of development of human society.

The study of crime, including transgressions such as prostitution, procuring, keeping disorderly houses and suicide, as well as the phenomenon of drunkenness, has become the subject matter of a special science perversely called "moral" statistics, though these statistics deal with matters most immoral.

The "father" of moral statistics is A. Quetelet, a Belgian, who, in his "Man and the Development of His Faculties," wrote:

> "Society bears in its womb the embryo of every crime that will be perpetrated, because it is the vessel that contains the conditions which facilitate the development of crime; it paves the way for the crime, so to speak, while the criminal is merely the tool. Consequently, every state of society presupposes a certain number and kind of criminals as a necessary consequence of its organization. This observation, which at first

blush might seem to be fraught with gloom, is, however, on closer examination, full of bright promise. For it points out the possibility of improving mankind by changing its institutions, habits, education and everything else that influences its mode of existence."

Quetelet, like numerous other savants engaged in solving the problem of crime (Ferri, Adolph Prince) was unable to get to the bottom of the whole subject, i.e., to ascertain the real causes which engender crime; nor did he find effective means of eradicating these causes.

They pointed to no remedy that would result in such an improvement of "institutions, habits, education," etc., as would preclude the very inception of crime.

Philanthropists and penologists have vainly grappled with this problem which only the entire nation is competent to solve.

In petty, narrowly-conceived reforms confined to police and administrative measures they see the clue to the solution of this problem of paramount importance, yet no solution is possible without a radical change in social relations.

Unable and frequently also unwilling to discern the real causes of crime, criminologists and legislators focussed their attention on the punishment to be meted out.

Punishment was the panacea, the patent medicine universally to be applied to prevent and root out crime.

But, alas, no prison system, however numerous and varied the scorpions used to chastise its victims, can possibly make any headway in the battle against crime unless it has been preceded by a radical change in the system of social relations, unless a social system is established which by virtue of its entire organization, of the very principles underlying this organization, is capable of removing the causes that give rise to crime.

A comparative analysis of crime in tsarist Russia and in the U.S.S.R. will be highly instructive.

Comparative statistics, which characterise the state of crime, and, what is more important, the trend of development of crime in any particular historical epoch, show clearly the decisive role played in this field by the country's social and political system, by its economic and cultural conditions and by the general and special interests, ideas and principles prevailing in its society.

Despite the defects and even vices of the method they applied, the works of Mayer, Tarde, Berg, Tarnovsky and others who have investigated the subject confirm the premise that there is a very intimate connection between crime, on the one hand, and, on the other, the economic and political condition of a country; such factors as crops, famine, the price of bread, or war.

Mass poverty, the huge army of unemployed, the corruption of the privileged circles of society, and the speculative frenzy of shoe-string merchants and fly-by-night stockbrokers with the thousands upon thousands of criminal manipulations, forgeries and frauds to which they lead—these are the hotbeds that breed crime, responsibility for which must be laid at the door of the very system of social relations under which private property reigns supreme and innumerable vices and abuses are practised with impunity.

This is confirmed by the voluminous scientifically established data applying to pre-revolutionary Russia.

A study of these data discloses a general upward trend in various crimes and crime in general.

Thus, according to the official statistics of the tsarist Ministry of Justice, crime increased with every year in the thirty-three provinces of Russia proper, this growth being even in excess of the increase in population.

During the two decades of 1874 to 1894, there was a 55 per cent increase in the number of persons convicted of crimes against the person.

There was a particularly great increase in seduction and rape

—150 per cent, while homicides increased almost 50 per cent.

Nor was there any change for the better thereafter. Between 1899 and 1908 grave offences within the jurisdiction of general courts almost doubled in number, the increase in arson, aggravated robbery, robbery and homicide being particularly great.

The last five years before the war (1909 to 1913) offer the same picture—a rise in the curve of criminal offences.

Crimes against property take a prominent place. Theft, fraud, embezzlement and forgery are constantly among the most numerous offences. Homicides show an enormous increase. The same is true of recidivism, which is also not accidental. In 1908, 18 per cent of all persons convicted by general courts were previous offenders. In 1909 they constituted 19.3 per cent; in 1910, 21.4 per cent; in 1911, 21.9 per cent; in 1912, 23 per cent.

Thus, general criminal statistics of Russia under the tsars show convincingly the tendency of crime to rise, a tendency which neither life sentences, exile nor capital punishment could bring to a halt. Saddest of all was the circumstance that juvenile delinquency was a major component of the grand total of crimes committed in tsarist Russia. In 1910 almost twice as many crimes were committed by minors between the ages of ten and seventeen as in 1901, the exact figures being 7,483 and 3,543, respectively.

Juvenile delinquency was fiercely but vainly combated with every available means of intimidation. Here tsarist Russia differed in no wise from other countries, such as France and Germany.

Neither the schools of criminal anthropology nor the schools of sociology gave a satisfactory reply to the question of what were the causes or what conditioned juvenile delinquency. They went no further than to offer such primitive explanations as the influence of heredity or elementary economic factors which themselves require explanation.

In the struggle against crime the prison with its terrible solitary confinement played the chief role under the tsar.

In fascist countries the old-type prisons have been replaced by concentration camps of the Dachau type and by so-called "modernized" prisons which have been made to conform to the fundamental principles of the fascist "penitentiary system." Freisler, a secretary in the German Ministry of Justice, formulated the principle governing this system in the following terse and explicit language: "to make the punishment so drastic and deterrent that no one will ever want to taste prison life again."

Life however has proven his "theory" absolutely untenable. Prisons and concentration camps cannot be built fast enough to hold the swelling ranks of offenders, for the root of the evil lies deeply embedded in the social base of the modern capitalist state.

The Great October Socialist Revolution effected a radical change in social relations in the U.S.S.R. It was but natural that the question of crushing the resistance of the exploiting classes which had been overthrown, and of re-educating the masses of the people in the spirit of Socialism should arise at the very beginning.

Criminal statistics for Soviet Russia after the October Socialist Revolution supply interesting proof of a recession in crime year after year.

Thus, from 1909 to 1913, the average number of criminal cases heard annually by Justices of the Peace was 1,302,525, the increase during this period having been 28 per cent. But statistics show that as early as 1920, the Peoples' Court, whose jurisdiction has always been much larger than that of the former Justice of the Peace, had 1,248, 862 criminal cases to try.

Beginning with 1922 the statistical data become more specific.

If we take the number of criminal cases handled by the Procurators' office in 1922-23, when the first Soviet Criminal Code was published, as 100, we find a considerable drop in the index for the succeeding years. Thus in 1926 the index figure was 63,

in 1929, 60.

1929 and 1930 are known in the history of the U.S.S.R. as the years in which the collectivization of agriculture, one of the most important and difficult tasks of the Socialist Revolution was, in the main, accomplished. The solution of this problem meant that tens of millions of peasants had been definitely won over to Socialism, that the peasantry had once and for all effected the change to the new, Socialist system of society. The achievement of this task had far-reaching consequences, as it signified the end of the age-old struggle between the toiling masses of the countryside and the rich peasantry.

The collectivization of agriculture was a profound revolutionary transformation.

In May, 1930, 40-50 per cent of all peasant farms in the principal grain districts of the country had been collectivized. In that year the collective farms grew more than half of all the grain produced for the market. The collective-farm peasantry became a staunch, solid support of Soviet power. The victory of collective farming meant that no less than twenty million poor peasants were saved from poverty and ruin, from bondage to the rich peasants, the kulaks.

This victory of Socialism in the U.S.S.R. evoked a new frenzied outburst of malice and hatred on the part of the "have-beens," the kulaks and their ilk, who made every endeavour to destroy the collective farms. To this end they resorted to the theft of public, Socialist property, and to wrecking activities aimed at the destruction of the cattle of the peasants, particularly of the collective farmers.

As a result there was an increase during these years in several categories of crime, particularly in the stealing of public property. This occasioned the publication of the now well-known law of August 7, 1932 on safeguarding Socialist property.

The theft of public property is a particularly dangerous offence,

as it tends to subvert the Soviet system which is based upon public property.

The law of August 7 is therefore a keystone in the system of revolutionary legislation, the observance of which is the chief concern of the Soviet Government and the Soviet people.

This law administered a crushing blow to the counter-revolutionary attempts of the kulaks, the rich peasants, to steal Socialist property.

Simultaneously, the strengthening of the collective-farm system and the increasing material welfare of the masses dealt a heavy blow to the kulaks and their henchmen. They lost every vantage point that they had held, and this category of crime began to dwindle rapidly.

In the U.S.S.R., repression is not the decisive factor in combating crime. The mighty growth of Socialist construction, and the abolition of exploitation, unemployment and poverty create conditions that necessarily lead to a constant drop in crime. This becomes apparent if we examine for instance the number of prosecutions under the law of August 7, 1932. In 1936, convictions under that law was only 30 per cent of the 1935 total, while in 1937 the percentage dropped to 10.

The successes achieved in the U.S.S.R. under Socialism, the triumph of the collective-farm system in the country-side, the complete and irrevocable abolition of unemployment and the transformation of public Socialist property into the dominant economic force have had the effect of steadily lowering the crime index of the country.

In 1937, sentences for crimes against the state administration constituted only 48 per cent of the number of like sentences in 1933, for crimes committed in the discharge of official duties the ratio was 37.1 per cent, and 39.7 per cent for crimes against property.

Of great interest are the changes in the total of crime. Here

we find a reduction of 52.1 per cent for the R.S.F.S.R. during the last quinquennial period (1933-37). For the whole U.S.S.R. there was a reduction of 28 per cent during the last triennial period (1935-37).

Statistical changes in juvenile delinquency deserve special note. If we take as 100 the number of convictions, in 1935, of juveniles from twelve to eighteen years of age inclusive, we obtain the following comparisons: 1936 (first half), 102.3; 1936 (second half), 83.6; 1937 (first half), 75.2.

The drop in crime is obvious and quite sharp. This is the verdict of statistics, showing that a cardinal change has taken place in the U.S.S.R. as a result of the historic victory of Socialism.

Another striking example of how things have changed with regard to crime in the U.S.S.R. is the frequency with which offenders appear voluntarily before the prosecuting authorities—the Procurator's Office—and narrate their crimes, admitting their guilt and asking that they be helped to lead a life of honest toil. The Procurator's Office is always ready to assist in the placeing of offenders who are determined to break with their criminal past. For instance, during twenty days in April, 1937, six hundred criminals voluntarily appeared in Moscow alone to make a clean breast of their offences. Although many had been previously convicted, jobs were found for 530 of them.

About 1,000 persons voluntarily came to confess their guilt to the Office of the Procurator of the U.S.S.R. Many of these voluntary admissions concerned offences that had not been know to the authorities, or the perpetrators of which had not yet been ascertained.

Again, many criminals write directly to the Procurator of the U.S.S.R., soliciting his aid to secure a new start in life.

Here is one such letter written by a certain Brevnov:

"My name is Brevnov. I am a former criminal with a long record of convictions, but earnestly request you now to grant me an appointment at your office to explain matters personally. I am very, very anxious to speak to you about many things and ask you not to refuse my request . . ."

A job was found for Brevnov. After some lapse of time he again wrote to the Procurator:

"I hasten to inform you that I am ever so grateful to you for the excellent treatment which I, a former thief, have received from you. . . . Now I see and am fully convinced that the Soviet Government knows how to reform people for good if only they want to lead a proper life. I advise all thieves and other law-breakers to walk straight and become honest workers and hope they will follow my advice. The Soviet Government has made it possible for me to become a motor mechanic."

The majority of those that were placed have kept their jobs and are working conscientiously. Many, like Brevnov, sent letters of thanks to the public authorities for the personal care and attention which they received at their hands. Many former criminals who in capitalist countries would be treated as outcasts, as the scum of society, are in the Soviet Union encouraged to take part in the economic development of the country and thus become in time active builders of Socialist society. Thus, the erection of the white sea-Baltic Canal and of the Moscow-Volga Canal was of vast educational value for hundreds of criminals employed on these projects. It changed their whole outlook on life and taught them how to earn their livelihood by honest toil.

The Soviet system of economy makes it possible for all to earn an honest living. Socialism, which establishes a new culture, reeducates people, changes their psychology, induces them to adopt a new attiude to the world that surrounds them, to other people, to society.

The right to work, which in the U.S.S.R. has become a matter of honour, glory, valour and heroism, is inscribed in the Soviet Constitution and is ensured by the whole might of the Soviet

state as a fundamental right of Soviet citizens, as one of the greatest achievements of the Socialist Revolution.

The great Constitution of the U.S.S.R., which bears the name of Stalin, its initiator and author, embodies the victories of Socialism in the form of a legal enactment which guarantees to the millions of the Soviet people a maximum of prosperity and material well-being, the final disappearance of the "birthmarks" of the old world, the final vanquishing of the survivals of the old, of ancient vices and crimes.

The reason for the success of the struggle against crime in the U.S.S.R. is to be found in the very organization of the new, Socialist society, a society which rests upon a new economic basis and is protected from the ulcers and corruptions of the old world by a new Socialist culture, by Socialist democracy and Socialist law.

POSITION OF THE U.S.S.R. IN WORLD PRODUCTION

GRAIN	1st
AGRI. MACHINERY	1st
BEET SUGAR	1st
TRACTORS	1st
GOLD	2nd
IRON ORE	2nd
MACHINES	2nd
FREIGHT CARS	2nd
ELECTRICITY	3rd
S. PHOSPHATE	3rd
STEEL	3rd
COAL	4th