

**The
USSR
100
Questions
Answered**

THE U.S.S.R.
— A Hundred
Questions
Answered

Published by “Soviet News” London 1952

**Printed by FARLEIGH PRESS LTD. (T.U. all depts.),
Beechwood Rise, Watford, Herts.**

Scanned / Transcribed by
The Socialist Truth in Cyprus - London Bureaux

<http://www.st-cyprus.co.uk/intro.htm>
<http://www.st-cyprus.co.uk/english/home/index.php>



January-February 2013

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Foreword

THE many delegations from various countries of Europe, America and Asia which have visited the Soviet Union recently, have expressed a desire for the publication of a booklet which will tell readers in their countries about life in the Soviet Union.

It was the delegates' view that such a booklet should explain the structure of the Soviet State, its foreign and home policy, its economy and culture. Indeed, the form (of the publication was suggested: a concise work in the shape of brief answers to questions.

In response to that wish this booklet on the Soviet Union has been prepared in the form of answers to a hundred questions.

THE QUESTIONS

1. — What is the U.S.S.R.?

THE Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) is a federal socialist State of workers and peasants. It was founded by V. I. Lenin and J. V. Stalin.

The U.S.S.R. has been formed on the basis of the voluntary union of sixteen equal Soviet Socialist Republics: the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (R.S.F.S.R. or Russian Federation), the Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Uzbek, Kazakh; Georgian, Azerbaijan, Lithuanian, Moldavian, Latvian, Kirghiz, Tajik, Armenian, Turkmen, Estonian and Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republics.

All these Republics have arisen on the territory of the former Russian Empire as a result of the victory of the socialist Revolution in October 1917. This great Revolution abolished capitalist and landlord rule in Russia and, for the first time in history, transferred power into the hands of the working people.

The U.S.S.R. is a great world power, possessing a mighty industry and a highly developed agriculture. Its territory occupies the eastern part of Europe and the northern and central parts of Asia, making up about a sixth of the inhabited land surface of the earth, or more than 22 million square kilometres (8½ million square miles). The area of the U.S.S.R. is three times the area of the U.S.A. (excluding Alaska) and four times that of the countries of Western Europe put together. Two hundred million people live on the territory of the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet Union is a country of beautiful and varied natural scenery. No other country in the world has such a wealth of minerals, ores of all kinds, coal, peat and oil, with fertile soil and great power resources. The seas, lakes, and the

broad rivers teem with fish. The forests are full of valuable kinds of trees and fur-bearing animals.

Soviet power has put an end to the economic and technical backwardness which was inherited from tsarist Russia. Industrialisation of the country and collectivisation of its agriculture, carried out under the leadership of the Communist Party, have resulted in the Soviet Union becoming an advanced industrial and collective farm Power, an economically independent country.

In its rate of industrial development and its technique of production the U.S.S.R. had surpassed the main capitalist countries even before the Second World War.

The Soviet Union is a land of socialism. In it there is no private ownership of the instruments and means of production. The factories and mills operate without capitalists, and the men and women who cultivate the fields have no landlords.

The basis of Soviet economy, the foundation upon which the entire life of the country is built, is the socialist system of economy, and public, socialist, ownership of the instruments and means of production. The national economy is developing according to a unified State plan. There are no economic crises unemployment or impoverishment of the masses.

In Soviet society there is no exploitation of man by man and no national oppression. Here, for the first time in history, the moral and political unity of all members of society has been realised.

The working people themselves—the workers, peasants and intellectuals—govern their country and administer the entire national economy.

Distribution of what is produced (i.e., the material wealth) in the U.S.S.R. is carried out in accordance with the principle: **From each according to his ability, to each according to his**

work.

This means that every working man and woman receives material wealth according to the quantity and quality of the work performed. This is socialism, or the first (lower) phase of communist society.

Today the Soviet Union is passing through the period of gradual transition from socialism to communism. The Soviet people's goal is the building of communist society.

2.—Who governs the Soviet Union?

ALL power in the U.S.S.R belongs to the working people of town and countryside, as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, which are the political foundation of the country.

The deputies to these Soviets are workers, peasants, or intellectuals, elected on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Every deputy is accountable to his electors. With the exception of those who, after the elections, take office in the executive branch of the Government, the overwhelming majority of the deputies continue to work at their regular jobs. It is through them that the Soviets maintain the closest contact with the electors.

The highest organ of State power in the Soviet Union is the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., which is elected by a country-wide poll for a term of four years. The present (Third) Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., elected in March 1950, consists of 1,316 deputies, of whom 418 are workers and 269 peasants. The rest are intellectuals, leaders of State and public

organisations and members of the armed forces. The deputies include 280 women (*see answer No. 70*).

The Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. consists of two Chambers—the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities.

One deputy to the Soviet of the Union is elected from every 300,000 of the population. The Soviet of the Union represents the common interests of all Soviet citizens, irrespective of nationality.

The Soviet of Nationalities is elected by the citizens of the U.S.S.R., voting by Union Republics, Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and National Areas, on the basis of 25 deputies from each Union Republic, eleven deputies from each Autonomous Republic, five deputies from each Autonomous Region and one deputy from each National Area. In this way the Soviet of Nationalities reflects the specific interests of all the nations, national groups and nationalities inhabiting the Soviet Union.

The Supreme Soviet embodies the supreme power possessed by the Soviet people. It acts as the representative of the entire people, the whole country—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

To the Supreme Soviet belongs the legislative power of the Soviet Union. The laws it enacts have the same force within the territory of every Union Republic, and their carrying out is binding upon all State organs, institutions and citizens of the U.S.S.R. These laws express the interests and will of the working people of the country.

The U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet annually approves the consolidated State Budget of the Soviet Union, the plan of State revenue and expenditure. State plans for the development of the country's national economy are considered at sittings of

the Supreme Soviet. The national economic plan, approved by the Supreme Soviet, becomes the law of the entire economic life of the Soviet Union.

The jurisdiction of the Supreme Soviet includes the representing of the U.S.S.R. in international relations; the conclusion, ratification and denunciation of treaties with other States; questions of war and peace; the admission of new Republics into the U.S.S.R.; the organisation of the defence of the U.S.S.R.; the direction of all the armed forces of the U.S.S.R.; questions of foreign trade and of State security.

At a joint sitting of its two Chambers, the Supreme Soviet elects its Presidium, forms the Government of the U.S.S.R., elects the U.S.S.R. Supreme Court and appoints the Procurator-General of the U.S.S.R. The Supreme Soviet exercises guidance and control over all higher State organs of the U.S.S.R.

Its two Chambers, the Soviet of the Union and Soviet of Nationalities, have equal rights. Each may initiate legislation. A law is considered adopted if passed by both Chambers by a simple majority vote.

As the highest organ of the State power of the U.S.S.R., the Supreme Soviet functions both directly and through other bodies formed by, and accountable to it. One such body is its Presidium.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. is the highest standing organ of State power in the U.S.S.R. While the Supreme Soviet conducts its work at regular sessions; held twice a year, or at special sessions, its Presidium is a standing body.

The Presidium convenes the sessions of, and orders new elections to, the Supreme Soviet. It ratifies international treaties of the U.S.S.R., proclaims a state of war in the event of

military attack on the U.S.S.R., and orders general or partial mobilisation. It appoints the high command of the armed forces and plenipotentiary representatives of the U.S.S.R. to foreign States. It institutes titles of honour and awards orders and medals.

The Presidium issues decrees which have the same force within the Union Republics as laws enacted by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet. But these decrees must be *based on and be within the scope* of federal laws. Therein lies the difference between decrees and laws.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. is elected at a joint sitting of the two Chambers of the Supreme Soviet. It consists of a president, 16 vice-presidents (one for each Union Republic), a secretary and 15 members.

The highest organ of power in a Union Republic is the Supreme Soviet of the Republic (*see answer No. 4*). The Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic elects its Presidium—the standing organ of State power in the territory of that particular Republic.

3. — What are the functions of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R.?

THE Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. is the highest executive and administrative organ of State power in the U.S.S.R.—the Government of the U.S.S.R.

The Council of Ministers is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. at a joint sitting of the two Chambers and consists of a chairman, vice-chairmen, Ministers, and chairmen of committees functioning under the Council, on a

par with Ministries.

The Council of Ministers is responsible and accountable to the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet or, in the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet, to its Presidium.

The Council of Ministers issues decisions and orders on the basis of the laws in operation, and sees that they are carried into effect. It co-ordinates and directs the work of the Ministries of the U.S.S.R., that is, the organs that direct the various branches of State administration and national economy. It adopts the measures necessary to carry out the national economic plan and the State Budget. It, is charged with maintenance of public order, protection of the interests of the State, and safeguarding the rights of citizens. It exercises general guidance in the sphere of relations with foreign States, and directs the general development of the Soviet armed forces.

The Soviet Government acts on the basis of the U.S.S.R. Constitution, which expresses the will of the entire Soviet people.

The Governments of the Union and Autonomous Republics are formed on the same basis as the Federal Government. The composition and powers of the Republican Councils of Ministers are defined by the Constitutions of the respective Republics.

4.—What are the rights of the Union Republics?

EACH Union Republic is a Soviet socialist State of workers and peasants, which has freely joined the Soviet Union and enjoys equal rights with the other Union Republics. All the higher and local State organs and institutions of a Union

Republic conduct their work in the language of the people of that Republic.

On joining the Soviet Union, each Union Republic remains a sovereign State. This means that within its own territory the Republic exercises independent State authority over all questions except those which it has itself voluntarily delegated to the all-Union State organs.

A Union Republic has its own Constitution, which is subject to approval and amendment by the Republic's Supreme Soviet. This Constitution reflects the specific features of the particular country-national, economic and cultural. The Constitution of each Union Republic has been drawn up in conformity with the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.

A Union Republic has its own organs of State power and State administration, which exercise legislative executive and administrative authority on its territory. It has its own laws enacted by the highest State authority of the Republic, i.e., by its Supreme Soviet. Every Union Republic retains the right freely to secede from the U.S.S.R.

The right to its own territory is retained by a Union Republic joining the U.S.S.R. Its territory may not be altered without its consent. Adjustments of frontiers between Union Republics are confirmed by the highest organ of State power of the Soviet Union—the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet.

A Union Republic has the right to enter into direct relations with foreign States and to conclude agreements and exchange diplomatic representatives with them. The Ukrainian S.S.R. and the Byelorussian S.S.R. are members of the United Nations.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. charges the Soviet Union with protecting the sovereign rights, freedom and independence of the Union Republics, and the Soviet Union scrupulously

fulfils this duty. When the country was invaded by fascist Germany, the Federal Government organised a powerful and victorious struggle against the enemy, the whole of the Soviet Union rising against the insolent invaders.

The Union Republics are guaranteed wide participation on an equal basis in the highest organ of power of the Soviet Union—the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet. Each Union Republic elects its deputies to the Soviet of the Union equally in proportion to population; and each Union Republic sends the same number of deputies to the Soviet of Nationalities, irrespective of population or size (*see answer No. 2*).

5.—What are Autonomous Soviet Republics, Autonomous Regions and National Areas?

Some Union Republics, besides being inhabited by the nation that has given the Republic its name, are inhabited also by other peoples. The latter, constituting a minority of the Republic's population and distinguished by specific national features, form Autonomous Soviet Republics if they so desire. The Autonomous Republic is a Soviet socialist State of workers and peasants, forming a constituent part of a particular Union Republic, and through it, of the Soviet Union.

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic includes within its boundaries the Tatar, Bashkir, Daghestan, Buryat-Mongolian, Kabardinian, Komi, Mari, Mordovian, North Ossetian, Udmurt, Chuvash and Yakut Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics.

The Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Abkhazian and Adjar Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics.

The Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic includes the

Nakhichevan Autonomous Soviet 'Socialist Republic.

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Karakalpak Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic.

What State rights does an Autonomous Republic possess?

An Autonomous Republic exercises State power on the basis of autonomy on its territory. This means that the people who form the Republic enjoy the right to self-government with regard to their domestic affairs. All higher and local State organs and institutions of an Autonomous Republic use the language of that Republic's people.

Each Autonomous Republic has its own Constitution, which takes account of its specific national features and is drawn up in conformity with the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. and the Constitution of the Union Republic of which it forms a part.

The Autonomous Republic enacts its own laws, the observance of which is obligatory on its territory. All-Union laws and the laws of the Union Republic of which the Autonomous Republic is a constituent part are also effective on the territory of the Autonomous Republic.

The frontiers of Autonomous Republics are fixed by the highest State power in the Union Republic in question.

Autonomous Republics have their own higher legislative organs (Supreme Soviets) and higher executive and administrative organs (Councils of Ministers). They are ensured equal participation in the highest organs of power of the U.S.S.R. and of the Union Republic of which they form a part. Each of them elects deputies directly to the Soviet of Nationalities of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, and takes part in the election of deputies from the Union Republic to the Soviet of Nationalities.

One of the forms of national State structure of the Soviet

peoples is the Autonomous Region, which differs from ordinary regions by its special national composition.

Included in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic are the Adygei, Gorno-Altai, Jewish, Tuva, Khakass and Cherkess Autonomous Regions.

Azerbaijan includes the Nagorno-Karabakh Autonomous Region; Georgia, the South Ossetian Autonomous Region; and Tajikistan, the Gorno-Badakhshan Autonomous Region.

Autonomous Regions enjoy rights additional to those of the ordinary administrative regions. They decide what language is to be used in conducting the business of the State apparatus and instruction in schools, and they elect deputies directly to the U.S.S.R. Soviet of Nationalities.

The Soviet of Working People's Deputies of an Autonomous Region adopts "Statutes of the Autonomous Region" which take into account the region's specific national features. These statutes are approved by the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic of which the region forms a part.

Nationalities which are small in number are organised in National Areas. There are ten of these in the U.S.S.R., and they are component parts of one or another region or territory of the R.S.F.S.R.—mostly in the far north.

National Areas have their own organs of power—Soviets of Working People's Deputies of the National Areas—and send their deputies directly to the Soviet of Nationalities of the U.S.S.R.

All these various forms of State structure—Union Republic, Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region, National Area—make it possible to look after the needs and requirements of the different peoples inhabiting the vast multinational socialist State which is the U.S.S.R. They play an important part in the economic and cultural advancement of the

Soviet peoples.

6.—What is the power of the local Soviets?

THE local Soviets of Working People's Deputies in villages, districts, cities, regions and territories, are the organs of State power on their respective territories.

They direct local economic and cultural affairs, safeguard public order and see that the laws are observed and the rights of citizens are protected. It is their task to ensure that the requirements of the people are satisfied, and to draw up the local budget.

To carry on its day-to-day work, each Soviet elects an Executive Committee which is accountable to it. The Executive Committee has a number of departments, including Public Education, Public Health, Municipal Services, Local Industry, Trade, Social Maintenance, Agriculture, etc.

Standing commissions are formed from among the deputies to the Soviet and other citizens. These commissions maintain close contact with the voters, finding out their needs and helping the Soviet to solve the problems which the inhabitants place before the authorities.

Local Soviets are elected for a term of two years. These elections usually develop into a comprehensive review of the work of the lower organs of power. The voters appraise the work of each deputy and the Soviet as a whole, point out shortcomings and give their mandate to the newly elected Soviet. The Soviets draw the broad masses of people into the work of administering the State.

7.—How are Soviets elected?

DEPUTIES to all Soviets—from the rural Soviet to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.—are chosen by the voters on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Elections in the U.S.S.R. are universal and equal. All citizens who have reached the age of 18 take part in them, irrespective of sex, social origin, property status, past activities, race or , nationality. Soviet citizens have the right to take part in all elections, whether they are “resident” or “non-resident” in the area covered, whether they profess any religion or none.

Men in the armed services enjoy the same electoral rights as other’ citizens.

Persons who have been. convicted by a court of law and whose sentences include deprivation of electoral rights have no right to elect or be elected during “the period fixed in the court sentence. Apart from this, only the insane have no right to elect or be elected.

Elections of deputies are equal, for each citizen has one vote and all citizens take part in the elections on an equal footing.

Elections are direct. Deputies to all Soviets, including the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., are elected not through delegates but by the voters themselves.

Any citizen who has reached the age of 23 is eligible for election as deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. Any citizen who has reached the age of 21 can be elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of a ‘Union or Autonomous Republic. Any citizen who has reached the age of 18 can be a deputy to a local Soviet.

Elections are conducted by secret ballot. The voter himself fills in the ballot paper in a special booth, in which no one else

may be present, and he drops the ballot paper into the box himself. No one, therefore, can know how the elector has voted. The complete secrecy of voting guarantees the people free expression of their will.

Candidates can be nominated by public organisations or by working people at general meetings of workers at their enterprises and institutions, of peasants in their villages and collective farms, of servicemen in their units.

At the election meetings, communists and non-Party people reach agreement on the nomination of joint candidates and then jointly campaign for them, for they are the candidates of both the communists and the non-Party people.

The electorate takes part in the organisation of elections and the supervision of the way in which they are conducted. For this purpose electoral commissions are formed of representatives of public organisations of the working people.

Soviet elections are truly elections by the people. Thus, in February 1946, out of 101 million electors more than 100,700,000 (99.7 per cent.) cast their vote in the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. In March 1950, out of 111 million electors, 99.98 per cent voted.

In the U.S.S.R. the deputy is a servant of the people. Any deputy who does not justify the confidence placed in him by the electors may be recalled by them at any time.

8.—Do classes exist in the U.S.S.R.?

YES, they do. But they are *new classes*, which have nothing in common with those that existed in old Russia. According to the 1939 census, wage and salaried workers and their families made up 49.7 per cent. of the population of the U.S.S.R. Peasants farming collectively and handicraftsmen united in producers' co-operatives totalled about 47 per cent. Peasants farming individually or operating as handicraftsmen privately without hired help, made up, together with their families, 2.5 per cent. Some 0.8 per cent. did not indicate their social status.

These figures alone are enough to show that in the U.S.S.R. there are no exploiters and idlers—no capitalists landlords merchants, or the village parasites, the kulaks. They show that no classes exist that live by exploiting the labour of others. Exploiting classes were eliminated in the U.S.S.R. long ago.

Soviet society consists of two friendly classes—the workers and peasants.

The working class of the U.S.S.R. is an entirely new working class, one that is free from exploitation. Being the advanced class in society, the working class exercises State leadership of society. This is what is meant by the dictatorship of the proletariat (*see answer No. 99*).

The Soviet peasants are similarly free from exploitation. Previously the peasants worked individually on their smallholdings with backward technical equipment; or they worked for landlords and kulaks, suffering hunger and want.

Today, Soviet peasants work without landlords or kulaks merchants or moneylenders. They have voluntarily united their

farms into agricultural collectives (“artels”) and are developing them on the basis of collective labour and modern technical equipment. Consequently, the Soviet peasantry is an entirely new class, the like of which mankind has never before known.

The intellectuals—men and women engaged in mental labour—faithfully serve the Soviet people. They stem from the workers and peasants, and are bound up with the people by their very roots. The Soviet intelligentsia is devoting its strength and knowledge to the common cause of the working people, the building of communist society.

9.—What are the distinguishing features of the Soviet system of economy? What is the Five-Year Plan?

IN the Soviet Union there is no private ownership of the instruments and means of production. The land, its mineral wealth, waters, forests, mills, factories, mines, rail, water and air transport, banks, communications (post, telegraph, radio), as well as municipal enterprises and most of the city dwelling houses, belong to the whole people, they are the property of the workers’ and peasants’ State.

In the Soviet countryside, the principal means of production belong to peasant agricultural artels (collective farms). In the State farms and machine and tractor stations (M.T.S.) they belong to the State.

In this way socialist ownership in the, U.S.S.R. covers all the national economy, which constitutes a single whole—the socialist system of economy.

This has made it possible for the Soviet State to direct the

country's entire economic activity on the basis of national economic plans covering five-year periods (five-year plans).

These five-year plans are drawn up by the State planning body, the U.S.S.R. State Planning Committee, subject to approval by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet.

The plan fixes the amount and kinds of goods each branch of the economy is to produce at the end of each planned period, for the U.S.S.R. as a whole and for each Union Republic separately. It lays down where and on what scale new construction work is to be undertaken, and the number of new workers to be trained and in what trades and professions. The plan determines the expansion of agricultural production, the increase in the number of livestock, the number and types of machines agriculture is to receive, and the volume of domestic trade. The plan provides for the rise in the material and cultural standards of the Soviet people, the development of scientific and cultural institutions, and the building of schools, hospitals, sanatoria, rest hostels, clubs, etc.

The objectives of the Five-Year Plan serve as the basis for drawing up annual and quarterly national economic plans, which are subject to the approval of the U.S.S.R. Council of Ministers. Each Ministry, trust and enterprise makes up its own yearly and quarterly plans in conformity with the general plans.

The Soviet national economy has been placed at the service of peaceful constructive effort, and the development of science and technology in the U.S.S.R. is completely devoted to the task of expanding social production, lightening the labour of the workers and raising the well-being of the people.

All values created in the country are used so as to expand production still further, and to improve the life of the people (*see answer* No. 23).

A striking illustration of the rising well-being of the people

is the growth of the Soviet population. For several years now the net increase has been greater than the pre-war (1940) increase, and has amounted to over three million a year.

The steady advance of the material and cultural standards of the people forms the basis for the development of the socialist economy. The constantly growing purchasing power and demands of the people lead to the expansion of production in the U.S.S.R. The result of this is that the U.S.S.R.'s planned economy knows neither crisis nor unemployment. It keeps expanding, prospering and developing at an unparalleled rate.

10.—How is the U.S.S.R. State Budget made up?

THE State Budget of the U.S.S.R. is the chief financial plan of the Soviet State and it is made up in accordance with the national economic plan.

Revenue and expenditure items are approved annually by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, which also discusses and approves the Government's report on the fulfilment of the budget for the preceding year.

The 1952 Budget; as passed by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, provides for a revenue of 509,900 million and an expenditure of 476,900 million roubles, that is, an excess of revenue over expenditure of 33,000 million roubles. The Soviet Budget has been yielding a surplus, year after year.

The chief revenue items are the accumulations of State industrial, transport and trading enterprises—in the form of turnover and profits taxes. Taxes paid by the population (individual income tax) play a minor part in the budget. Last year, for instance, they made up only 9.4 per cent. of the

budget revenue—less than a tenth—and this year they will be even lower at 9.3 per cent.

The Soviet Budget is the budget of a peace-loving Power. This is clearly shown by the items on the expenditure side. Out of the total 1952 appropriation of 476,900 million roubles, no less than 180,400 million roubles (37.8 per cent.) are allocated to finance the national economy; and 124,800 million roubles (26.2 per cent.) go for social and cultural services. In other words, two thirds of the year's budget revenue will be spent on development of the national economy or on social and cultural needs.

Of the 124,800 million roubles allotted for social and cultural purposes, over 60,000 million roubles—almost half—are ear-marked for education. Health and physical culture get 22,800 million roubles; and social security and social insurance 37,500 million.

The Soviet State spends part of its funds to maintain the armed forces of the U.S.S.R. which protect the peaceful labour of the Soviet people. Allocations for this purpose in 1952 are 23.9 per cent. of the Budget, compared with 32.5 per cent. in 1940.

The 1952 appropriation for State grants to mothers of large families and mothers without breadwinners is 4,500 million roubles.

In this distribution of State funds we see clearly the endeavour of the Soviet State to satisfy the material and cultural needs of the people and. further to develop the socialist national economy.

11.—Who manages Soviet industrial enterprises?

SOVIET enterprises are the property of the people, and each enterprise is managed by a director appointed by the appropriate Ministry.

The director has charge of the material and financial resources of the enterprise, and bears full responsibility to the State for the public property entrusted to his care and for the enterprise's work. The director is answerable for fulfilment of production plans, for quality of goods and costs, for the profitability of production, and for observance of labour laws.

The director has the final word in the management of the enterprise. His or her orders and instructions, provided they do not run counter to existing laws, are binding on all employees.

The directors of Soviet enterprises are ordinary men and women who come from the people, and who have learned a great deal in the school of life. They possess vast experience and all-round knowledge.

Workers employed at State enterprises, and their Party and trade union organisations, take an active part in the economic activity of their enterprise, helping the management to eliminate shortcomings in the production process and to improve the work of the enterprise. With this in view production conferences are held at all enterprises.

Production conferences, called by the trade union organisation of the plant, take up workers' suggestions to improve the work of the enterprise and bring out the factors hindering fulfilment of output plans or blocking improvement in the quality of products. Discussion of the reports of directors of enterprises and department superintendents takes place in an atmosphere of comradely criticism and self-criticism (*see answer No. 96*).

After decisions of production conferences have been approved by the director of the enterprise, their fulfilment becomes binding on both management and workers.

In the pre-war year of 1940, large-scale industry in the Soviet Union produced nearly twelve times as much as tsarist Russia's industry in 1913. The engineering industry's output increased fifty-fold during that period. In level of industrial development, the U.S.S.R. had reached first place in Europe and second place in the world by the eve of the Second World War.

During the Second World War, the U.S.S.R.'s powerful industry abundantly supplied the Soviet Army with armaments helping the Soviet people to gain victory over Hitler Germany and her allies.

12.—How did the Soviet Union become an advanced industrial Power?

IN output and technical standards, industry in tsarist Russia lagged considerably behind other countries which were industrially developed. Tsarist Russia in 1913 occupied fifth place in the world and fourth place in Europe as regards industrial output.

During the pre-war Five-Year Plan periods (1928-40), that is, in less than 13 years, the Soviet people under the guidance of their leader, J. V. Stalin, carried out a great plan for the economic reconstruction of the country, turning her into an advanced industrial Power. That was accomplished through socialist industrialisation, the programme for which had been

drawn up by J. V. Stalin.

Capitalist countries usually began their industrialisation by developing light industry. Moreover, they got most of the money they required for industrialisation by exploiting the working people at home and in the colonial countries, and also by waging predatory wars and by means of foreign loans.

The U.S.S.R. could not follow such a path. Still less could it have recourse to such methods to obtain the necessary means. The Soviet Union started out by industrialising *heavy* industry, not light industry, for only in that way was it possible quickly to achieve economic independence and strengthen the country's defensive capacity. This industrialisation was accomplished by finding the means needed for it in the country, not by resorting to enslaving foreign loans.

Socialist industrialisation was based on public ownership of the means of production, and on the accumulation and conserving of the wealth created by the labour of the workers and peasants.

By raising the productivity of labour and lowering the cost of production, by enforcing the strictest economy in every sphere, and by successfully floating internal loans on a voluntary basis, the Soviet Union built up the immense resources needed to finance industrialisation.

As a result of socialist industrialisation, the U.S.S.R. had by 1938 already surpassed the principal capitalist countries in respect to production technique and the rate of development of industrial production.

13.—How has the country's industrial geography changed in Soviet times?

IN old Russia, industry was concentrated in the central and western regions of the European part of the country. There were no factories or mills of any importance in the vast expanses of Siberia, or in the eastern border areas inhabited by non-Russian peoples.

The Communist Party and the Soviet Government undertook to distribute industry more evenly throughout the country and to bring it closer to the sources of raw materials and to the consumer areas.

Industry has been expanded with particular vigour in the Union Republics inhabited by non-Russian nationalities.

A great many first-rate industrial establishments have been established in the formerly backward regions of Central Asia and Transcaucasia. All this has completely changed the face of the once outlying provinces of tsarist Russia. With the fraternal assistance of the Russian people, the peoples of all the Soviet Republics have made enormous economic and cultural progress.

Armenia, for example, had by 1940 expanded her industry to 22 times the 1913 total. Georgian industry had increased 26 times over, Kirghizian 160 times, and Tajik 242 times. The industries of these Republics expanded further during the Great Patriotic War, and since that time they have been expanding to a still greater extent.

Their industrial development has given the Union Republics their own engineers, technicians and skilled workers. The former economic and cultural backwardness of the Soviet Union's non-Russian areas has become a thing of the past.

14.—What are collective farms?

COLLECTIVE farms (*kolkhonz*) are farms in which Soviet peasants have come together of their own free will, to carry on farming on socialist principles. Nearly all Soviet peasants are members of collective farms.

A collective farm is formed by the decision of a general meeting of peasants in the particular village. When it is formed its members pool their principal means of production—agricultural machines, draught animals and productive livestock.

All collective means of production, and the entire output of the farm, constitute the common, co-operative property of its members. The land on which the collective farm is situated remains State property, i.e., belongs to the whole people. But it is deeded by the State to the farm for free use in perpetuity.

Collective farms operate under the rules of the agricultural artel. Every such farm draws up its own rules, on the basis of the Model Rules of the Agricultural Artel, worked out and adopted under the direct guidance and with the personal participation of J. V. Stalin by the Second All-Union Congress of Collective-Farm Shock Workers in February 1935.

The rules, which define the entire system of collective farm activity, also fix the size of the collective farmers' own personal, subsidiary husbandry (*see answer* No. 17).

The farm's affairs are directed by the general meeting of the collective farmers, and in the intervals between meetings by a board of management, headed by the chairman.

The general meeting approves the board of management's annual report, the year's production plan and also the standards for each operation and its equivalent in workday units (*see answer* No. 15). It decides how much is to go for further

investment in the farm and the amount, in cash and kind, to be issued per workday unit.

Out of its cash income, the farm pays State taxes and insurance premiums, and repays money loans. It also pays for essential current production needs, meets overheads, allots money for cultural purposes, and sets aside money for the "indivisible fund" from which farm implements and livestock are purchased, and new construction is financed.

The collective farms are large mechanised agricultural co-operative undertakings. The average collective farm cultivates 1,500 to 3,000 hectares (3,750 to 7,500 acres), but some farms in the grain-growing districts have under cultivation from 10,000 to 20,000 hectares (25,000 to 50,000 acres).

All laborious work is mechanised and aver 90 per cent. of the craps are cultivated by machines which, together with their crews, are supplied by the State machine and tractor stations (MTS).

The payment required for these services is very law (*see answer* No. 16).

By 1951 practically all ploughing an the collective farms had been mechanised, three-quarters of the sawing was being done by tractor-drawn seeders, and over 60 per cent. of the cereal crop area was harvested by combines.

The collective farms are equipped with modern implements and apply the latest agronomic methods an a wide scale. They are all-round, highly efficient and diversified farming establishments, operating an a planned basis.

The collective farms have brought about great progress in agricultural production, and radical improvements in the peasants' standard of living.

Already by 1940 the U.S.S.R. produced aver 23,00 million poods (37 million tons) of grain a year more that before the

Revolution, while the country's aver-all agricultural output had nearly doubled.

As their share in the receipts of their farms millions of collective farmers received that year from 500 to 1,500 poods (8 to 25 tans) of grain, and several thousand roubles in cash per family. Poverty and want had disappeared from the countryside forever. The members of the collective farms had achieved prosperity and culture.

Further progress has been made in past-war years. In 1950 the country's grain crop exceeded 1940 by more than 345 million poods (5½ million tons). The common wealth of the collective farms has greatly increased and with it has come improved well-being for their members. Cultural development in the collective farm countryside has assumed wide proportions. Thousands of villages are being completely reconstructed in accordance with plans drawn up by architects.

By taking the collective farm path, the Soviet peasantry has in a short period of time wiped out the age-old backwardness of the countryside, achieving a happy, prosperous and cultured life.

15.—How is work rewarded on a collective farm? What is a workday unit?

COLLECTIVE farm members are not paid wages for their labour like factory workers. They receive share in the proceeds of their collective effort, partly in kind and partly in cash.

The farm income is divided among its members in cash and kind in proportion to the amount and quality of work performed by each during the given agricultural year.

The standard unit for calculating the work performed by

the farm member in the collective husbandry, and the consequent remuneration, is the workday unit.

Each operation, such as ploughing a hectare (2.47 acres) of land, or weeding a hectare of sunflower, obtaining a given quantity of milk, etc., is assessed in these workday units. The more complex and important the work is and the more effort and skill it requires, the more workday units are credited for it. The size of the collective farmer's reward for his labour depends, however, not only on how many workday units he has piled up to his account, but also on what the workday unit is worth. And this in turn depends on the yield of the farm's land and the productivity of its livestock.

Under this system the collective farmer is interested not only in earning more workday units, but also, in increasing, together with his fellow members, the farm's income as much as possible and thereby consolidating and further developing the farm's collective husbandry.

The actual amount in cash and kind to be given for a workday unit is decided at the end of the year. Halfway through the year, at harvest time, the farmers receive advances in cash and kind. A final accounting is held at the end of the agricultural year.

What does a collective farmer receive for his workday units? By way of illustration let us take Alexei Slivin, a member of the Golovaty Collective Farm, Navo-Petravsky District, Saratov Region. He and his family earned 1,475 workday units last year, for which they received 9 tons 16 cwt. of grain, substantial quantities of other produce and 7,817 roubles in cash.

This is about the average for a collective farm family; on many farms the amount is much bigger.

The produce received not only amply covers the collective

farmers' personal needs but leaves sizable surpluses which they sell to the consumers' co-operatives, or on the market.

For obtaining yields above the target on the fields assigned to them, or from the livestock under their care, collective farmers receive a certain percentage over and above their basic rate. In this way the quality and final results of work performed is taken into account, as well as the quantity.

The products and cash received by the collective farmers are a net income, as all outlays are made by the farm. Collective farmers also derive considerable additional income from their private husbandry (*see answer* No. 17).

The collective farm very fully meets the farmers' material and cultural needs.

16.— What is a Machine and Tractor Station?

MACHINE and tractor stations, or M.T.S. as they are called for short, are State establishments instituted, on J. V. Stalin's initiative, to serve the collective farms. There are over 8,000 of them in the U.S.S.R.

M.T.S. cultivate more than nine-tenths of the collective farm fields, performing the heaviest field work. The machine and tractor stations and the collective farms enter into contracts which cover the services to be rendered by the M.T.S., and the payments to be made by the farm.

The entire work of the M.T.S. is planned. These plans are discussed by the station's council, which includes the director, the senior mechanic, the senior agronomist, the chief bookkeeper, and the chairmen of the collective farms the station serves.

The basic production unit of the M.T.S. is the tractor team.

These teams are assigned for the entire season to particular farms. This arrangement increases the tractor drivers' personal responsibility for the quality of the work done.

An M.T.S.'s performance is appraised not only on the amount of land it ploughs, but also on the yields the farms obtain from it. The M.T.S. is paid by the collective farms in kind, at rates specified in the contracts.

The job of the, M.T.S. does not end with the cultivation of the land by machinery. It includes also the promotion of high standards of farming, thus helping the peasants to consolidate and develop their collective farms.

Guided by M.T.S. agronomists, the farmers introduce ley crop rotation, plant shelter belts, build ponds and reservoirs and carry out many other measures. The M.T.S. also trains tractor drivers and operators for other farm machinery from among the collective farmers.

Every M.T.S. is headed by a director, appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture.

Since the war, specialised M.T.S. have been set up. They include shelter belt, hay-mowing and pasture-land improvement stations. These stations help the collective farmers to plant shelter belts, to mechanise their animal husbandry, to improve their meadows and pastures and to increase the amount of fodder available for their livestock.

The role of the M.T.S. in Soviet farming is increasing all the time. By 1951, over two-thirds. of the work done on collective farm fields was being carried out by M.T.S.

The machine and tractor stations have made the peasant's work easier and increased its productivity. Thanks to them, farm work in the U.S.S.R. is more and more becoming a variety of industrial labour.

17.—What is meant by a collective farmer's “subsidiary husbandry”?

ALL the principal means of production on a collective farm are the common property of its members. Collective, socialist property is the foundation of the collective farm system, ensuring that the collective farm flourishes, and the well-being of its members advances.

But alongside this basic collective husbandry, which provides the bulk of the farm's produce, the Agricultural Artel Rules (*see answer* No. 14) allow each collective farm household to have its own private subsidiary husbandry.

The collective farmers' right to such private husbandry is secured by law. The Soviet Constitution declares (Article 7): “Every household in a collective farm, in addition to its basic income from the common collective-farm enterprise, has for its personal use a small plot of household land and, as its personal property, a subsidiary husbandry on the plot, a dwelling house, livestock, poultry and minor agricultural implements—in accordance with the rules of the agricultural artel.”

According to these rules, the size of the subsidiary plot ranges from a quarter to a half of a hectare (three-fifths to 1¼ acres), exclusive of the area on which the house stands. In some districts the size of the subsidiary plot reaches a hectare (nearly 2½ acres).

In the major farming areas a collective farmer may have as his personal property a cow, one or two calves, a number of sheep, goats, pigs and poultry. In the livestock-breeding districts, where field husbandry is of secondary importance, a collective farmer may have for personal use four or five cows and calves, 30 to 40 sheep and goats, several sows and their litters, an unrestricted number of poultry and rabbits, a horse or

a camel.

In the districts where livestock is taken out to graze over long periods in remote mountain or other distant pastures, a collective farmer may keep 8 to 10 cows and 100 to 150 sheep.

Their personal subsidiary husbandry constitutes an additional source of income for the collective farmers, who derive their basic income from their common husbandry. The collective farm happily combines the collective farmer's personal interests and the interests of the farm as a whole.

18.—Are there still peasants in the U.S.S.R. who do not belong to collective farms but farm on their own?

YES, there are, but not many.

Joining a collective farm is entirely a voluntary matter. The overwhelming majority of the Soviet peasants, however, have, from their own experience, found large-scale collective farming to have incomparable advantages. That is why there are very few peasants left who do not belong to collective farms, but still farm on their own. These are called individual farmers.

The individual farmer cultivates his land allotment himself, with the help of his family only. The hiring of farm labourers, i.e., the exploitation of man by man, is prohibited by law in the U.S.S.R.

19.—How is in the drought combated U.S.S.R.?

COMBATING drought is a matter of Government concern in the Soviet Union. The planned transformation of nature was set before the Soviet people by Lenin and Stalin as a great and urgent objective at the very beginning of Soviet power.

Pursuing this objective, thousands of collective farms have protected their fields against dry winds by planting shelter belts. They have built ponds and reservoirs and introduced ley crop rotation.

In the Volga regions, the Northern Caucasus, Siberia, Transcaucasia and Central Asia, irrigation projects have been developed which have brought water to vast expanses of arid steppes and deserts, transforming them into flourishing gardens.

The really formidable onslaught against drought, however, has come since the war ended.

In October 1948, the Soviet Government, on J. V. Stalin's initiative, passed a decision *On the Planting of Shelter Belts, Introduction of Ley Crop Rotation, and the Digging of Ponds and Reservoirs to Ensure Big and Stable Harvests in the Steppe and Forest-Steppe Districts of the European Part of the U.S.S.R.* The Soviet people have called this decision "The Stalin Plan for Transforming Nature".

Underlying this plan is the integrated and profoundly scientific system, developed by the Russian agronomists V. Dokuchayev, P. Kostychev and V. Williams and known as the *travopolye* system of farming. It includes the planting of shelter belts; the proper organisation of the land for the introduction of ley, grain and fodder crop rotation; the proper cultivation of the soil; proper fertilisation; the use of selected seeds adapted to local conditions; and irrigation, using local supplies of water

which normally drain away, by constructing ponds and reservoirs.

A direct sequel to this plan were the decisions of the Soviet Government, published in 1950, introducing a new system of irrigation and providing for the construction of mammoth hydroelectric power plants on the Volga at Kuibyshev and Stalingrad, the Main Turkmenian Canal, the Kakhovka Hydroelectric Station on the Dnieper, and the South Ukrainian, North Crimean and Volga-Don canals.

An idea of the gigantic scale of this work to rejuvenate the soil and combat drought may be gained from the following figures.

The plan for transforming natural conditions over the steppe and forest-steppe districts of the European part of the U.S.S.R. covers a vast territory of 120 million hectares (about half a million square miles). The irrigation projects in the Volga region, in the Caspian plains, in Turkmenia, the South Ukraine and North Crimea will irrigate and bring water to upwards of 25 million hectares (100,000 square miles).

The State forest belts are some 60 to 100 metres wide (200 to 330 feet). Some of them will be over a thousand kilometres (600 miles) long. All this will be carried out in an unprecedentedly short time. A forestation in the European part of the U.S.S.R. will be complete in some ten to fifteen years, and the construction of the hydro-electric plants and irrigation systems in five to six years.

To put these plans into effect, a vast material and technical basis is being provided, and huge funds are being allocated by the State.

The Soviet people are working with immense enthusiasm to make certain that these great plans for the transformation of nature succeed.

20.—What is a State farm?

A STATE FARM, or *sovkhos* (abbreviated from the Russian Sovetskoye Khozaistvo—Soviet Farm) is a large-scale socialist agricultural establishment, owned and operated by the State.

There are over 4,500 State farms in the U.S.S.R.; among them grain, livestock-breeding, fruit-growing, tea-growing, citrus-growing and other farms.

All laborious field work in these farms is carried out by tractor-drawn machines, and most of their crops are harvested by combines. Their field and animal husbandry are run on advanced scientific lines.

A distinguishing feature of the State farms is that they are not narrowly specialised but integrated and many-sided in their husbandries. Thus, a State grain-growing farm also has considerable numbers of livestock, while livestock farms do a good deal of arable farming.

Extensive mechanisation and scientific farming have led to an unprecedented growth in the State farms' gross—and marketable—output, as well as in the productivity of their labour.

The Gigant State Grain Farm in the Rostov Region, for example, averages more than 2 tons of grain per hectare (over 16 cwt. per acre), and the Karavayevo State Livestock Farm in the Kostroma Region averages over 5,000 litres (more than 1,100 gallons) of milk per cow a year, with some cows yielding upwards of 7,000 litres (1,500 gallons).

The State farms, with their extremely high rate of production account for quite a large share of the country's output of grain, industrial crops and animal products.

The State farms, with their up-to-date technical equipment

and scientific farming methods, have contributed greatly to the socialist reconstruction of agriculture. They were graphic examples, which showed the peasants the advantages of large-scale socialist farming as compared with small-scale individual farming. They also helped the peasants to form collective farms and to cultivate their collective fields with tractors.

In line with government plans, the State farms supply collective farms with selected seed and graded stock at low cost.

The State farms are an important source of supply of agricultural produce in the Soviet Union.

21.—How was the post-war Five-Year Plan carried out?

SHORTLY, after the Second World War, in March 1946, the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet approved the “Five-year Plan for the Rehabilitation and Development of the National Economy of the U.S.S.R.” for the period 1946-1950.

The plan’s chief objective was to rehabilitate the country’s war-ravaged areas; to restore industry and agriculture to the pre-war level; and then substantially to exceed that level.

Headed by the Communist Party, the Soviet people spared no effort to achieve this objective. The Five-Year Plan was successfully fulfilled, and its major targets were considerably surpassed.

Under the Five-Year Plan, in 1950, the last year of the plan period, Soviet gross industrial output was to exceed the pre-war year 1940 level by 48 per cent. Actually, however, industrial output in 1950 was 73 per cent. more than in 1940. The plan for industry was fulfilled ahead of schedule, in four and a quarter years; and the capital construction plan was exceeded

substantially.

Between 1946 and 1950 over 6,000 industrial enterprises were rehabilitated or built anew and put into operation, not counting minor State, co-operative and collective farm enterprises. As a result of the restoration or reconstruction of old plants, and the building of new ones—all equipped with the latest Soviet-made machinery—the basic assets of Soviet industry were 58 per cent. more in 1950 than in 1940.

Socialist agriculture also successfully fulfilled the plan. The area under cereal crops increased by over a fifth, and the 1950 gross cereal harvest exceeded the 1940 harvest by 345 million pods (over 5,500,000 tons).

The Five-Year Plan target for increasing the head of commonly-owned livestock on the collective farms was also overfulfilled.

In the five-year period, agriculture received from Soviet industry 536,000 tractors (in terms of 15 h. p. units), 93,000 grain-harvesting combines, 341,000 tractor-drawn ploughs, 254,000 tractor-drawn seeders and hundreds of thousands of other cultivators and sowing and harvesting machines.

The successful advance of the national economy resulted in a considerable increase in the national income (*see answer* No. 23), and greater well-being of the country's working people. The following figures bear witness to the improved conditions of Soviet people since the war. Retail sales at State and co-operative shops in 1950 exceeded sales in 1940 as follows: meat and meat products 38 per cent.; fish products 51 per cent.; butter 59 per cent.; other fats 67 per cent.; sugar 33 per cent.; footwear 39 per cent.; and various textiles 47 per cent.

Dwelling houses restored or newly built in towns and industrial areas provided a total of more than 100 million square metres (well over 1,000 million square feet) of living

space.* In the countryside, 2,700,000 dwelling houses were restored or built anew during the period.

These were some of the fruits of the peaceful labour of Soviet people during the first five years after the war. In 1951 the fruits multiplied.

The 1951 national economic plan was overfulfilled. Industrial output was up 16 per cent. over 1950, and double 1940. Steel production reached approximately the total output of Britain, France, Belgium, and Sweden put together.

1951 marked a further advance of socialist agriculture. In recent years the gross annual cereal harvest has exceeded 7 000 million poods (113 million tons). Despite last year's unfavourable weather conditions, the cereal harvest reached 7,400 million poods (119,300,000 tons). As for cotton, the U.S.S.R. produces more than the well-known cotton-growing countries of India, Pakistan and Egypt put together.

22.—What are the Great Construction Projects of Communism?

SOVIET people call the great hydro-electric stations, irrigation and ship canals being constructed in the U.S.S.R., on the initiative of J. V. Stalin, the great construction projects of communism. Nothing anywhere else in the world can be compared with any of these projects.

The Kuibyshev Hydro-Electric Station on the Volga, for

* Soviet figures for domestic floor space exclude space devoted to kitchens, bathrooms, lavatories, halls and passageways.

instance, will have a capacity of about 2 million kilowatts and will produce on the average some 10,000 million kilowatt-hours of electric energy a year. The Stalingrad Hydro-Electric Station, also on the Volga, will have a capacity only slightly smaller. The hydro-electric stations going up on the Amu Darya, the Dnieper and the Don will also be very large.

The canals now under construction are undertakings no less great.

The Main Turkmenian Canal, which is being dug in the desert of Central Asia, will be 1,100 kilo metres (over 680 miles) long or six and a half times the length of the Suez Canal and more than thirteen times that of the Panama Canal. It will extend from the lower reaches of the Amu Darya to Krasnovodsk on the Caspian Sea.

Immense irrigation canals will branch out from the Dnieper: the South Ukrainian and North Crimean Canals and the connecting canal, extending over 600 kilometres (370 miles) in all.

The deep-water ship canal, 101 kilometres (63 miles) long, joining the Volga and the Don rivers, has already opened. In the Don area more than 750 kilometres (over 450 miles) of main irrigation canals are also being completed.

These new canals, when finished, will make it possible to irrigate or supply water to a territory covering an area of more than 28 million hectares (well over 100,000 square miles).

These huge construction jobs were started in 1950 and 1951.

Construction is now in full swing and all the tasks will be completed between 1952 and 1957. The plan of work set by the Government for 1951 was successfully carried out at all the development sites.

With the completion of these great hydro-technical

construction works important national economic problems will be solved.

The new power stations will provide 22,500 million k.w.h. of cheap electric power a year, or almost as much as Italy's total output. Extension of the irrigated areas and of areas with adequate supplies of water will make it possible to produce each year 3 million more tons of cotton (i.e., more than one-third the average annual production of cotton in the United States); 500 million poods (over 8 million tons) of wheat, some half a million tons more rice and 6 million tons more sugar beet.

The head of cattle will increase in these irrigated areas by 2 million and sheep by 9 million.

The construction of the great canals and dams will immensely improve navigation on the country's inland waterways. With the opening of the Volga-Don Canal recently, the Baltic, White, Caspian, Azov and Black Seas became a unified waterway, and Moscow a port of five seas.

Completion of the great hydro-electric power stations, the canals and the irrigation systems, will extend considerably the material and technical foundations of socialism. It will speed the building of communism in the U.S.S.R.

23.—How is the national income distributed?

IN the Soviet Union the national income belong to the working people. It is distributed in the following manner:

One part (about a quarter) goes for the further expansion of production and for setting up material reserve. The remainder (approximately three-quarters) is used for the personal needs of the working people, for increasing their well-being.

In 1950 the national income was distributed as follows: 74 per cent. to satisfy the personal material and cultural needs of the people; 26 per cent. remained at the disposal of the socialist State for the further extension of production. The proportion was similar in 1951.

What made up the three-quarters of the national income which in 1950 went to satisfy the personal needs of the people?

This figure includes wages and salaries received by factory workers and other employees and the incomes (from workday units) of collective farmers. It includes the money spent by the Government on social maintenance, social insurance, on universal free education and medical services and on other cultural services and amenities.

Thus, in 1950, cash payments and various benefits received by the population from the State amounted to more than 120,000 million roubles, or three times the 1940 figure. In 1951 they amounted to 125,000 million roubles.

There is no contradiction in the U.S.S.R. between that part of the national income which goes to extend production, and the part allocated for individual needs.

The expansion of socialist production (building new enterprises, equipping enterprises with new machinery, etc.) is in the interests of the working people themselves, since increasing output means a higher material and cultural standard for them all.

The national income in the U.S.S.R. grows from year to year. The advantages of the socialist system of economy (planning, absence of economic crises and of unemployment and the ending of poverty among the masses) make for an unprecedented rate of growth in the national income.

By 1940 the annual national income of the U.S.S.R. was more than six times Russia's 1913 level.

Over the five years from 1946 to 1950 the national income increased still more rapidly. The post-war Five-Year Plan had anticipated that the 1950 national income would be 38 per cent. above 1940. Actually the increase, in comparable prices, was 64 per cent.

The income of the population also increased considerably, being 62 per cent. above the 1940 level in 1950.

In 1951 the national income of the U.S.S.R. went up 12 per cent. over the previous year.

24.—What are the principles of Soviet foreign policy?

THE leader of the Soviet people, J. V. Stalin, has formulated the essence of the Soviet foreign policy and its objectives in this way:

“Our foreign policy is clear. It is a policy of preserving peace and strengthening commercial relations with all countries. The U.S.S.R. does not think of threatening anybody—let alone of attacking anybody. We stand for peace and champion the cause of peace. . . .

“The task is to continue this policy persistently and consistently.”

The foreign policy of the U.S.S.R. is a policy of peace and friendship among all peoples, large and small. This policy has been followed unswervingly by the Soviet Government. Through all its years of existence, the Soviet State has never attacked any country. Ever since it came into being, the Soviet Government has been working for the peace, freedom and independence of peoples, large and small.

On November 8, 1917, the day following its formation, the

Soviet Government adopted and broadcast a Decree on Peace, penned by Lenin.

When Hitler Germany, after enslaving the peoples of Europe, treacherously attacked the peace-loving Soviet Union, J. V. Stalin, the head of the Soviet Government, proclaimed to the whole world:

“We have not, and cannot have, any such war aims as the seizure of foreign territories and the subjugation of foreign peoples. . . Our aim is to help these nations in the struggle for liberation they are waging against Hitler’s tyranny, and then to leave them quite freely to arrange their lands as they think fit. There must be no interference whatever in the internal affairs of other nations.”

After freeing the peoples of Europe from the Hitler yoke and bringing them peace, the Soviet Army evacuated the territories of the liberated countries, giving them the opportunity of settling their own internal affairs for themselves.

Non-interference in the internal affairs of other peoples; respect for the sovereignty of nations, large and small; struggle for peace and peaceful co-operation among nations—this is the line of foreign policy from which the Soviet Government never deviates.

After playing the major part in defeating the fascist aggressors who had unleashed the Second World War, the Soviet Union has waged an energetic and consistent struggle against each and every instigator of another world war, and in support of lasting, democratic peace among all nations.

To this end the Soviet Government introduced in the United Nations a number of constructive proposals for the consolidation of peace. They included proposals for a general, or at least a partial, reduction in arms and armed forces; the prohibition of the use of atomic energy for military purposes

and the establishment of an international agency to see that the prohibition was put into effect; the conclusion of a Peace Pact by the five great Powers (the U.S.S.R., the United States, Britain, China and France); and a number of other measures.

All these Soviet proposals, designed to safeguard peace, have been voted down by the American-British majority in the United Nations; but nevertheless, the Soviet Government is fully determined to continue fighting for world peace and against any aggressors.

“As for the Soviet Union, it will continue also in the future unswervingly to pursue a policy of preventing war and preserving peace,” said J. V. Stalin in the interview he gave to a *Pravda* correspondent in February 1951.

What is it that prompts the Soviet Union and its Government to follow undeviating its peaceful foreign policy? The answer springs from the very nature of the Soviet social and State system.

In the U.S.S.R. there are no exploiting classes or social groups interested in war; and, therefore, no one in the U.S.S.R. thinks of seizing foreign territories. The whole Soviet people is engaged in peaceful constructive labour.

All the allegations that the U.S.S.R. pursues an aggressive foreign policy are vicious slander against a great and peace loving people.

25.—Is the peaceful co-existence of the socialist and capitalist systems possible?

UNDOUBTEDLY. Various public figures and journalists in capitalist countries have time and again addressed this question to leaders of the Soviet Government and each time they have received the same answer: peaceful co-existence of

the two systems is possible and expedient.

In February 1920, a correspondent of the *New York Evening* journal asked Lenin what Soviet Russia's plans in Asia were. Lenin replied:

“The same as in Europe: peaceful co-existence with the peoples. . .”

Peaceful co-existence with the peoples—such was the foreign policy the Soviet Government pursued thirty years ago, when it was headed by V. I. Lenin. Peaceful co-existence with the peoples is the policy pursued by the Soviet Government today, when it is headed by J. V. Stalin, the great continuator of Lenin's cause.

Like V. I. Lenin, J. V. Stalin has always firmly followed, and is following, a policy aimed at the peaceful co-existence of the two systems.

In December 1946, Mr. Elliott Roosevelt, then visiting the U.S.S.R., asked J. V. Stalin if he thought peaceful co-operation between the two systems was possible. The reply was that, though different, the two systems could well continue their co-operation. J. V. Stalin gave the same answer to a similar question put to him by Mr. Harold Stassen in 1947.

And again, on May 17, 1948, J. V. Stalin stated that co-operation between the U.S.S.R. and the capitalist countries, and particularly, with the U.S.A. was possible and necessary, in the interests of universal peace.

“The Government of the U.S.S.R. believes”, he wrote, “that in spite of the differences in economic systems and ideologies the co-existence of these systems and the peaceful settlement of differences between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S.A. are not only possible but absolutely necessary in the interests of universal peace.”

26.—Why are the Soviet people taking an active part in the world peace movement?

THE Soviet people are taking an active part in the peace movement because they do not need war. The wars forced on them by their enemies in the past only hindered their effort in the great cause of building communist society.

The Soviet people struggle for peace, not only because they do not need war but also because they regard aggressive war as a grave crime against humanity, and the greatest calamity that can befall the common people anywhere in the world.

That is why when, in recent years, the world peace movement was launched, the Soviet people joined this noble movement and have taken an active part in it.

Three times representatives of all the peoples inhabiting the Soviet Union have come together in all U.S.S.R. peace conferences: in August 1949, October 1950 and November 1951. Each of these conferences marked a new stage in the development of the campaign for the preservation of peace and for greater vigilance by the peoples against the criminal intrigues of the warmongers.

In 1950 the Stockholm Appeal was signed by 115 million persons in the U.S.S.R. This Appeal, issued by the Stockholm session of the Permanent Committee of the World Peace Congress, demanded that atomic weapons be banned and that the Government first employing them be branded as a war criminal.

In 1951, over 117 million Soviet citizens signed the World Peace Council's Appeal for a Peace Pact among the five great Powers.

This means that all the citizens of the Soviet Union have

declared that they want to live in peace and friendship with the peoples of the United States, Britain, France and all other countries.

This means that the Soviet people are responding to the call of the great standard-bearer of peace, J. V. Stalin: "Peace will be preserved and strengthened if the peoples take into their own hands the cause of the preservation of peace and defend it to the end."

This means, further, that the Soviet Union is a reliable bulwark of peace.

This is what the Third U.S.S.R. Conference for Peace, held in Moscow in November 1951, declared in its address to members of the world peace movement. It stated:

"The Soviet people ardently approve and unanimously support the peaceful foreign policy of the Soviet Government, which has time and again declared that it believes in the possibility of States with different economic systems and ideologies living side by side in peace.

"We do not fear peaceful competition with capitalism, but neither are we afraid of the intrigues of imperialist aggressors. There is no force on earth capable of compelling our people to turn back from the building of communist society.

"We Soviet people are keeping vigilant watch on the intrigues of the enemies of peace, and are prepared, with supreme courage and heroism, to defend our motherland and protect our peaceful labours against any who venture to raise their hand against our liberty and independence."

27.—What is the significance of the Soviet Peace Defence Law?

THE Second World Peace Congress, held in Warsaw in November 1950, appealed to the United Nations and Governments of all countries to prohibit all war propaganda as criminal, whatever form it might take.

The Soviet people, educated in the spirit of high respect for other peoples and peace and friendship among the nations, ardently supported this appeal. The chairman of the Soviet Peace Committee, the poet N. S. Tikhonov, reported on this historic document to the regular session of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet, in Moscow in March 1951.

Expressing the will of all the peoples of the Soviet Union, who are striving for peace, the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet unanimously supported the appeal of the World Peace Congress, and passed unanimously the Peace Defence Law, which reads as follows:

“The Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, guided by the lofty principles of the Soviet policy of peace, which aims at consolidating peace and friendly relations among nations.

“Recognises that the conscience and the sense of justice of the peoples, who in the lifetime of a single generation have gone through the calamities of two world wars, cannot tolerate the impunity with which war propaganda is being conducted by aggressive circles of certain States, and associates itself with the appeal of the Second World Peace Congress which expressed the will of the whole of progressive mankind to prohibit and condemn criminal war propaganda.

“The Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics resolves:

“1. That war propaganda, in whatever form conducted, undermines the cause of peace, creates the danger of a new war and is, therefore, a grave crime against humanity.

“2. That persons guilty of war propaganda shall be committed for trial as major criminals.”

The adoption of the Peace Defence Law by the supreme organ of State power in the U.S.S.R. is fresh proof that the peoples of the Soviet Union want peace and are willing to fight for it with all their strength and in every way possible.

28.—What are the International Stalin Peace Prizes?

IN honour of J. V. Stalin's seventieth birthday, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., by a decree published on December 20, 1949, instituted International Stalin Prizes “For the Consolidation of Peace Among Nations”.

From five to ten of these prizes are now awarded each year to citizens of any country, irrespective of their political affiliation, faith or race, for distinguished service in the struggle for the preservation and promotion of peace.

A recipient of an International Stalin Prize receives a diploma conferring the title of International Stalin Prize winner, a gold medal embossed with a head of J. V. Stalin, and a cash prize of 100,000 roubles.

A special International Stalin Prize Committee, composed of representatives of the democratic forces of various countries, was set up by the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet to make the awards.

In 1950, International Stalin Peace Prizes were awarded to the following representatives of the democratic forces in a

number of countries: Frederic Joliot-Curie (France); Soong Ching-ling [Mme. Sun Yat-sen] (China); Hewlett Johnson, Dean of Canterbury (Britain); Eugenie Cotton (France); Bishop Arthur Moulton (U.S.A.); Pak Den Ai (Korea), and, Heriberto Jara (Mexico). For 1951 they were awarded to Kuo Mo-jo (China); Pietro Nenni (Italy); Ikuo Oyama (Japan); Monica Felton (Britain); Anna Seghers (Germany), and Jorge Amado (Brazil).

The establishment of International Stalin Peace Prizes is a vivid testimony to the peaceful foreign policy unflinchingly pursued by the Soviet Union—a policy the Soviet people justly call the Stalin foreign policy.

29.—What does the equality of all Soviet citizens, proclaimed in the Constitution, mean?

SOVIET society does not recognise any difference in rights as between men and women, “propertyed” and “propertyless”, “residents” and “non-residents”, educated and uneducated, religious and those without religion.

A Soviet citizen of any nationality, man or woman, is eligible for election to any organ of State power, or for appointment to any government post. All citizens receive equal pay for equal work. They are free to engage in any scientific, literary, educational, political or other public activity.

Women in the U.S.S.R. are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, political and other public activity.

Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of citizens on account of race or nationality is strictly prohibited. The advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness, or of hatred or contempt for any nationality, is a crime against the State.

Soviet law also prohibits the establishment of any privileges for citizens of any nationality or race. (Article 123 of the Constitution.)

In Soviet society all citizens enjoy equal rights. Position in society is determined not by property status, national origin, sex, or office, but by work and abilities.

Every Soviet citizen is guaranteed the right to work, rest and leisure, education, material security in old age and in sickness or disablement.

30.—How is the Soviet citizen's right to work ensured? Why is there no unemployment in the U.S.S.R.?

ARTICLE 118 of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. reads:

“Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to work, that is, the right to guaranteed employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality.

“The right to work is ensured by the socialist organisation 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.”

The socialist organisation of the Soviet national economy ensures the right to work because it is based on public ownership of the instruments and means of production (mills, factories, mines, land, etc.). And the public ownership of the instruments and means of production has made it possible to organise the development of the Soviet national economy according to an integrated State plan.

The plan has as its aim the uninterrupted growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the constant expansion of

production and the steady advancement of the standard of living of the people.

There is no gap in the U.S.S.R. between production and consumption and there is no limit to their development.

The national income (*see answer* No. 23) is distributed in the interests of the working people. The people's well-being is constantly rising and purchasing power is going up all the time. This in turn, makes for steadily increasing production.

All of this cuts out the possibility of economic crises and unemployment in the Soviet Union, and ensures full-time employment for everyone. Not only is there no unemployment in the U.S.S.R., nor can there be, but the State spends large amounts to train qualified workers to meet the needs of the national economy which keep growing from year to year.

The number of wage and salaried workers is increasing all the time. At the end of 1950, there were 7,700,000 more wage and salaried workers than at the end of 1940, and the number increased by another 1,600,000 in 1951.

31.—How is the right to own and inherit personal property protected?

ARTICLE 10 of the Constitution declares:

“The personal property right of citizens in their incomes and savings from work, in their dwelling houses and subsidiary home enterprises, in articles of domestic economy and use and articles of personal use and convenience, as well as the right of citizens to inherit personal property, is protected by law.”

Every Soviet citizen is free to dispose of his savings as it seems best to him. He or she may use them to build a home or a cottage in the country, to buy a car, or anything else desired.

It all depends on one's earnings and savings, which are not restricted.

A worker who wishes to build his own house is given a plot of land by the State, free of charge. On application, endorsed by both the trade union and the management of his place of work, the State grants a loan of 5,000 to 10,000 roubles, repayable over five to ten years, in easy instalments. Interest is charged at the low rate of 2 per cent. per annum. In addition, the State provides building materials and free technical advice.

It is, however, against Soviet law to derive unearned income from one's savings or other personal property. Speculation, usury, etc., are criminal offences punishable by law.

A citizen of the U.S.S.R. has the right to bequeath his personal property, i.e. savings, house, personal effects, copyrights and patents.

32.—What are the Soviet laws regarding marriage and the family?

THERE is complete equality between husband and wife in the Soviet family, which is built on a foundation of mutual respect, friendship and affection.

The Soviet State safeguards and protects the stability of the home. Both parties are guaranteed full equality in their rights and duties under the law, which allows no impairment of the woman's rights, and holds both parties equally responsible for the upbringing of their children.

Property accumulated after marriage belongs to both parties in equal measure. Each of the parties is responsible for

the maintenance of the other in case of disability.

Soviet laws provide penalties for undermining the home by irresponsible conduct, for compelling a woman to undergo abortion, and for failure to support one's children.

A marriage in the Soviet Union is contracted by registration at the Civil Registry Bureau of the local Soviet of Working People's Deputies. The fact of marriage is recorded in the passports of both parties.

With the aim of strengthening family life, and protecting the interests of mother and child, Soviet law allows termination of the married state only through court proceedings and only on serious grounds. Divorce proceedings are held in private at the request of either party.

If the court finds it proper to grant a divorce, it specifies in the judgment which parent is to keep the children, divides the property between the husband and wife, and permits the parties to resume their original surnames if they so desire.

Re-marriage without the dissolution of a previous marriage, bigamy and polygamy are prohibited by law.

33.—What concern does the Soviet State show for mothers?

IN the Soviet Union mothers are surrounded with universal honour and respect.

Special laws regulate conditions of work for pregnant women. They receive maternity leave with full pay for a *minimum* of 35 days before and 42 days after confinement. This leave is extended if their health requires it.

An extensive network of free maternity homes, children's consultation centres, creches and kindergartens has been set up

in both the towns and villages throughout the country.

Some 6,000 maternity homes and a large number of maternity wards in hospitals are maintained by the State. Ninety-five per cent. of all confinements in the Soviet Union take place. in maternity homes and hospitals, where the women receive expert medical and other care free of charge.

Childbirth in the maternity homes and hospitals has largely been made painless. Death in childbirth is disappearing in both urban and rural communities in the Soviet Union.

Expectant mothers are registered at special State consultation centres, which keep them, and, subsequently, their infants also, under constant medical observation.

The State system of mother and child care provides many privileges and advantages for mothers.

Mothers with large families receive State allowances. Upon the birth of her third child a Woman receives a lump sum of 200 roubles and on the birth of her fourth child 650 roubles and a monthly allowance of 40 roubles. On the birth of her fifth child, 850 and 60 roubles respectively; her sixth child, 1,000 and 70 roubles; the seventh and eighth child, 1,250 and 100 roubles; the ninth and tenth child, 1,750 and 125 roubles. Mothers of ten children receive on the birth of each additional child a sum of 2,500 roubles and 150 roubles monthly. In the first five post-war years, a total of 14,300 million roubles was paid out by the State in such allowances.

State allowances are paid also to mothers without bread winners.

Appropriations made for allowances to mothers of large families and mothers without breadwinners, this year total 4,500 million roubles.

Mothers who have given birth to and raised ten or more children receive the title of Mother Heroine. They are awarded

the Order of Mother Heroine, and a certificate from the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. Women who have given birth to and raised five or six children. are awarded the Motherhood Medal, second and first class respectively. Upon those who have given birth to and raised seven, eight and nine children there is conferred the Order of Motherhood Glory, third, second and first class respectively.

By the beginning of 1952, these Orders and Medals had been awarded to more than three million women in the Soviet Union. Soviet science is constantly seeking new and better ways of caring for mothers and children. More than twenty special scientific research institutes are working in this field.

34.—What are the working conditions at Soviet enterprises?

THE socialist organisation of production creates a healthy, cheerful and happy atmosphere for work at Soviet enterprises. Soviet men and women daily feel the Government's concern for their health and welfare.

Socialist industry turns out first-class machines, which lighten the labour of the workers. Soviet men and women are not, nor can they ever be, haunted by the spectre of unemployment. The well-being of every working man and woman is rising all the time.

Social insurance guarantees the material needs of all Soviet wage and salaried workers, and maintenance at State expense in old age or in the event of sickness or disability. The State provides every worker with an annual holiday with pay for the whole holiday period (*see answers* Nos. 45, 46 and 47).

A special Code of Labour Laws regulates all major

questions relating to work.

The maximum working day is eight hours. For work underground or heavy jobs, it is 6 or 7 hours. For dangerous occupations the working day is 4 hours.

Overtime is permitted only in exceptional cases, and on each occasion special permission must be obtained from the central committee of the appropriate trade union. Overtime pay is time and-a-half or double the regular rate.

Child labour is prohibited by law. Minors under 16 are not allowed to work in industry. For apprentices whose training lasts from the age of 14 to 16, the working day is limited to 6 hours, whether they are being trained individually or in groups. They receive a full day's pay.

The law prohibits the employment of women and juveniles in heavy or dangerous occupations. Pregnant women and nursing mothers may not be employed on overtime.

Where this is necessary, managements must transfer pregnant women to lighter jobs with no reduction in pay. A nursing mother is allowed time off to feed her baby. She is paid for this time at the rate of her average earnings.

Workers in unhealthy trades (in chemical plants, nonferrous metal works, print shops, etc.) receive special foods (milk, butter, cream, etc.) at their place of work, free of charge, the cost being met from Government funds.

In the Soviet Union, the workers themselves play a very active part in drafting labour legislation. No Soviet law which concerns labour can be passed without the trade unions having had their say. In many cases labour legislation is initiated by the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (A.U.C.C.T.U.).

Soviet industrial establishments are designed and built to meet all labour protection requirements. Accident prevention

measures are widely applied. Factory buildings are notable for their abundance of light and air. They are equipped with the latest ventilation installations and have plenty of washrooms and facilities safeguarding the workers' health.

During the five-year period from 1946 to 1950, the Soviet Government spent more than 4,500 million roubles on industrial safety measures.

Labour inspectors appointed by the trade unions, and working under their instructions, watch to see that labour legislation and industrial safety rules are strictly observed.

35.—What are collective agreements?

THE collective agreement is the contract between the management and personnel of a given enterprise—factory, mill, mine, State farm, etc.—by which both sides undertake certain commitments.

The agreement stipulates working conditions for the particular enterprise for the period of one year. It is signed by the management and local trade union committee. Before it is signed, the draft agreement is discussed at meetings of the personnel.

Under the agreement, the management undertakes to introduce new and more efficient machines and methods, to improve industrial safety, to train new workers, to help workers who build their own homes, to extend crèche and kindergarten facilities for the workers' children, to put up residential buildings, etc.

The local trade union committee, for its part, undertakes on behalf of the workers to increase labour productivity. Collective agreements stipulate the manner in which wages and salaries are to be paid and lay down scientifically established

work standards and rates.

36. —What systems of payment exist at Soviet enterprises?

THE following systems of payment for work operate in the U.S.S.R. Time work, time work plus bonus, piece rate, and progressive piece rate.

The principal system in operation in Soviet industry is the piece-rate system, which best conforms to the Soviet principle of payment for work in accordance with its quantity and quality. This system covers the overwhelming majority of the workers.

Piece rates are based on the established technical standards of expenditure of labour in the production process (time per unit of product). The standards are fixed on a strictly scientific basis, and they are drawn up at industrial establishments with the participation of the workers, engineers and technicians and representatives of the trade union.

There are rates and wage scales for each branch of industry, drawn up with the participation of the trade unions and approved by the Government. The rates and scales vary for the different categories, according to the skill and effort required to perform a given operation, and the complexity and character of the work.

Skilled or difficult work is rated higher than unskilled or less difficult work.

The piece rate per unit of product is fixed on the basis of these scales and standards. The worker is paid for every piece produced by him that passes inspection. The piece worker's earnings are not limited.

Soviet industry sometimes makes use also of the progressive piece-rate system, which is a combination of the piece-rate and bonus systems. Under this system, workers exceeding standards are paid at progressively rising rates for the portion turned out over and above the standard quota. The progressive piece-rate system is usually applied to particularly important production sectors of industry and also where it is especially necessary to stimulate initiative and invention.

The piece-rate system meets the interests of the workers and is wholeheartedly favoured by them. It gives the worker a material interest in the results of his work, prompts him to improve his skill and stimulates higher productivity of labour.

Under the time-work system, workers are paid according to the wage and salary scale established for each industry and for each trade. The time-work system is used only where piece work is impossible or impracticable. In many cases, the time-work plus bonus system is used as an incentive to over fulfilling production plans, improving quality of output, and economising materials.

The systems of remuneration apply to all workers alike. Women and young workers receive equal pay with men, for equal work.

The central committees of trade unions and the factory trade union committees have the right to check all wage calculations and payments.

37.—Who receive service bonuses?

THE Soviet State provides every possible incentive for long and conscientious service. One such incentive is the service bonus, paid annually or monthly.

In the coal-mining industry, for example, such bonuses are

paid to all staff, including those working underground and those at enterprises serving the mines.

Miners who have worked in a mine for over a year get a bonus of 10 per cent. of their annual wage. From the third to the fifth year they get a 15 per cent. bonus. For five to ten years, the bonus is 20 per cent., and over fifteen years, 30 per cent. This bonus is paid in December each year. Upon reaching the age of fifty, miners who have worked in the industry for twenty years receive a monthly pension equal to half their previous monthly wages, irrespective of whether they retire or not.

Service bonuses are also paid to iron and steel and oil workers, geologists, airmen, scientific workers, higher educational instructors, teachers, postal and telegraph employees, and many other categories of workers.

The amount of the bonus varies in the different fields.

38.—What, apart from his wages, does the Soviet worker get from the State?

A SOVIET worker's income is not confined to the wages he gets. He receives from the State a number of additional cash allowances and other benefits, which swell every family's real income by more than a third. These additions include:

Allowances and benefits from State social insurance funds; Pensions under social security legislation;

Pay for holidays, which all workers receive;

Free or reduced-rate accommodation at health and holiday centres;

Free or reduced-rate nurseries and kindergartens;

Free or reduced-rate accommodation and maintenance of children during their summer holiday at holiday centres,

children's sanatoria and other health resorts;

Money grants to mothers of large families and mothers without breadwinners;

Schoolings of all children at State expense and free training courses for workers;

Allowances paid to students at specialised secondary schools and higher educational establishments;

Free medical service;

Premiums and bonuses of many kinds, etc., etc.

All of these, paid for by the State, are forms of extra income for the working people.

In 1951 money received by the people from the State, and benefits paid for by the State, came to 125,000 million roubles, not to mention the huge amounts spent by the State each year on housing construction.

What these payments and benefits mean to a worker's pocket may be seen by taking one family as an illustration.

The family of Vyrkov, a fitter in the forge shop of the Stalin Motor Works in Moscow, is typical.

Last year Vyrkov and his wife, who also works at the factory, spent their holiday at its rest hostel, paying 488 roubles for their accommodation. Actually the cost of caring for two adults in a rest hostel for a month amounts to about 1,800 roubles, a great deal more than was paid by the Vyrkovs. The difference was met from the State social insurance funds.

The Vyrkovs, of course, were paid full rates for their holidays, for by law workers are entitled to holidays with pay. The Vyrkovs received their holiday money in advance, the amounts paid them being equal to their average monthly earnings.

Since the reduced cost of their accommodation and the return fare to the rest hostel took up only a tiny part of their

holiday money, the Vyrkovs bought extra clothing and household articles.

Every year over 3,500 factory and office workers employed at this works receive reduced-rate accommodation at health and holiday resorts.

The Vyrkovs have three daughters. The youngest, aged five, goes to a kindergarten. It costs the State some 4,000 roubles a year to maintain her during the time she spends at the kindergarten, including the two-and-a-half months' stay at the kindergarten's summer estate in the country.

The second daughter, who is ten, attends a secondary school, and her education costs the State about 700 roubles a year. The eldest daughter's education at a technical secondary school costs the State 2,000 roubles a year, apart from her allowance of 2,000 roubles a year.

Thus, to cover the difference in the cost of reduced-rate rest hostel accommodation for the adults, and to provide education and wholesome rest and recreation for the children of one worker's family, the Soviet Government spent about 10,000 roubles in one year, or more than 800 roubles a month, equal to roughly a third of the Vyrkovs' earnings.

This amount does not include the cost of medical services provided by the State free of charge (without the payment of contributions by the employees), and a number of other benefits in cash and kind which the Vyrkovs receive from the State. To this should also be added the gains which accrue to the family from the systematic reduction by the State of retail prices of consumer goods.

The Vyrkovs, a typical Soviet family, provide an excellent illustration of what all families in the Soviet Union obtain from the State in addition to the direct earnings of their working members.

39.—What is “Socialist Emulation”?

SOCIALIST emulation in the U.S.S.R. is the mass movement of the working people for high productivity of labour, for fulfilment and overfulfilment of production plans throughout the national economy.

As defined by J. V. Stalin, socialist emulation is the communist method of building socialism, on the basis of maximum activity by the millions of working people. More than nine in ten working people of the U.S.S.R. took part in socialist emulation in 1951.

Emulation takes place on the following lines:

Workers, collective farmers, engineers, the technicians and office workers of industrial enterprises and transport, distributive workers and other working people assume, on their own initiative, the socialist obligation of fulfilling production plans ahead of schedule and turning out high quality products.

Those taking part in emulation, whether individuals, collectives, or whole factories, conclude pacts listing the obligations they have voluntarily assumed. The trade unions, Ministries and heads of enterprises, together with those engaged in emulation, review the results for the period stipulated in the pact (month, quarter or year) to determine the winners.

The best work-teams, shops, and factories, as well as individual participants in emulation, are awarded money prizes and certificates, and those that come out on top—individuals and whole collectives—are awarded Orders or Medals by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

A basic principle of socialist emulation is the comradely assistance given by the foremost workers to those who are

lagging, so as to bring about a general advancement. Here is what J. V. Stalin wrote about this basic principle which differs radically from the principle of capitalist competition:

“Competition says: *finish off the backward* so that you may consolidate your supremacy.

“Socialist emulation says: some work poorly, others well, still others better, *so catch up with the best* and bring about a general rise. This, properly speaking, is what explains the unparalleled production enthusiasm which has seized the millions of working masses as a result of socialist emulation.”

Socialist emulation by the masses is one of the main forces that ensured the successful, fulfilment of the pre-war Stalin Five-year Plans and the post-war plans for the development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R.

Socialist emulation is one more illustration of the fundamental principle that in the Soviet Union there can be no contradiction between personal interests and the interests of the State.

“The principle applied in the U.S.S.R. is that of socialism: ‘From each according to his ability, to each according to his work’,” says Article 12 of the Constitution.

As a consequence of socialist emulation, every worker, collective farmer and person specialising in any profession who tries to increase his labour productivity and output, thereby at the same time increases his own earnings. For, in the U.S.S.R., earnings depend on the quantity and quality of the work done.

40.—Who are the Stakhanovites?

THE name of Stakhanovites is applied to people taking part in socialist emulation who have fully mastered the new, Soviet technique and greatly exceed established standards of

labour productivity.

Most Stakhanovites are young or middle-aged working men and women who are regularly continuing their technical education. They are people of culture and technical knowledge, who daily furnish examples of precision and accuracy in work. They squeeze out of technique and machinery the maximum that can be achieved.

In their practical work the Stakhanovites explode antiquated ideas of what technique and machinery can give, leaving far behind the existing designed capabilities and technical standards. They blaze new trails for technique and science.

The Stakhanovites do not break production records by chance. They make up a movement in which millions of Soviet workers are taking part. They have been named after the initiator of the movement, Alexei Stakhanov, who, as a coal hewer in the Tsentralnoye Irmino mine (Donets Coal Basin) on August 31, 1935, working with his pneumatic pick, cut 102 tons of coal during his regular shift — fourteen times the then existing standard.

Stakhanov was immediately followed by others in the Donets Basin who promptly beat his record. The example he set was quickly taken up by workers in the other branches of industry.

Thus, in the mid-thirties, a mighty movement was born— a movement which became the higher stage of socialist emulation among the working people of the U.S.S.R.

The rise and development of the Stakhanov movement stems from four sources. The first is the radical improvement and constant growth of the material welfare of the working people. The second is the fact that Soviet people do not work for exploiters but for themselves; and hence the feeling that

they are the masters in the land and shapers of their own destiny is becoming stronger all the time. The third is that the Soviet national economy is reaping the fruits of socialist industrialisation and is being equipped with the latest Soviet-made machinery on an ever larger scale.

And the fourth is that in the Soviet Union new forces of workers have been developed who are now in charge of technique and are advancing it.

Since work in the U.S.S.R. is paid for according to quantity and quality, the Stakhanov movement is also stimulated by the personal interest of the working people.

The Stakhanov movement grows broader year by year. In its achievements the peaceful, constructive and patriotic aspirations of the Soviet people are strikingly reflected. The U.S.S.R. now has a great many work-teams, shops and even whole factories all of whose workers not merely over fulfil their plan in quantity, but also turn out only products of the highest quality. Such teams, shops and factories are also called Stakhanovite.

Socialist emulation and the Stakhanov movement spring from the Soviet system, a system of free socialist labour.

41.—How is invention encouraged? What are the rights of inventors?

MANY great inventions which are today used in all countries of the world had their origin in Russia (the steam engine, the crawler tractor, the aeroplane, wireless, the first practical television apparatus and others).

Inventive thought; however, assumed really sweeping proportions after the Great October Socialist Revolution.

It is given every encouragement. An inventor is respected in the U.S.S.R., and his rights are fully protected by Soviet law. Inventions bring their inventor substantial rewards from the State. The amount of the reward is in proportion to the value of the invention, or the saving it means for the national economy. Thus, if an invention yields a yearly saving of 10,000 roubles, the inventor's reward will be 1,450 roubles; if the saving is 50,000 roubles the reward is 5,500 roubles; if it is 100,000 roubles, the inventor will get 8,700 roubles, and so on.

An inventor has the choice of taking out either a certificate of authorship, or a patent.

Usually, only foreign citizens take out patents. The overwhelming majority of Soviet inventors assign their invention to the State, since in the U.S.S.R. the interests of the State and of the inventor are identical, for State power belongs to the working people themselves.

Anyone appropriating another's invention, or divulging the essence of the invention before formal registration of its authorship, is liable to criminal prosecution and the payment of damages.

In the same way, anyone guilty of "red-tape" or other bureaucratic practices which result in the holding up of the examination, development or application of inventions, is called strictly to account. Such persons may be removed from their posts and prosecuted.

The work of inventors receives the attention of public organisations. Trade union committees at industrial establishments have special commissions to help inventors and rationalisers. Ministries, trusts, factories, mines, etc., have special bureaus dealing with inventions and efficiency proposals. The managements of industrial establishments spend substantial sums to assist inventors and reward engineers,

technicians and workers helping to introduce inventions in their factories, and for actively cooperating with inventors.

Authors of particularly outstanding inventions are awarded Stalin Prizes (*see answer* No. 90). Many inventors have been decorated with Orders and Medals (*see answer* No. 89).

42.—How is the training of workers for industry organised?

WITH industry steadily expanding, and no unemployment, a planned system has been set up for training workers for the Soviet national economy.

In 1940, State Labour Reserves' Schools were established. These schools train workers for the iron and steel, engineering, mining and oil industries, for railway, maritime and river transport, the building industry and other branches of the national economy.

Workers in trades requiring more extensive knowledge and skill are trained in schools providing a two-year course, while those preparing for simpler trades attend a six months' course. The State Labour Reserves' Schools admit youths and girls possessing a general education. All trainees in these schools are fully maintained by the State. They are provided with comfortable accommodation, and receive their board, clothing and textbooks free.

These schools provide the Soviet working class with reinforcements of young, efficient and qualified workers. Since their establishment they have supplied the national economy with more than five million young workers.

Industrial enterprises also help to meet industry's need for trained workers. Factories and mills maintain apprenticeship

courses in which young workers are taught, singly or in groups. They also run various advanced training courses and classes.

Another type of institution for training workers in the Soviet Union is the so-called Stakhanovite School. These are found everywhere throughout the country. Instruction is given by leading Stakhanovites, innovators of production. The course of training in these schools varies in accordance with the particular requirements.

During 1951, seven million workers took technical training courses at their industrial enterprises.

43.—Do disputes between workers and managements occur in the U.S.S.R.? How are they settled?

UNDER the Soviet system, a worker and manager do not belong to opposing classes; They are both workers of the socialist economy.

The manner of settling labour disputes is defined by law. They are settled either by the grievance committees, or by the People's Courts.

The grievance committees are special conciliation bodies established at all industrial enterprises, offices and institutions and working under the trade union committees. They are composed of an equal number of representatives of the management and the trade union committee.

A worker, engineer or technician with a grievance, whether it concerns the wage rate paid him or dismissal from his job or transfer to another job, or any similar matter, sends his complaint to the grievance committee. The complaint must be examined and a decision handed down within three days.

In the examination of a grievance by the committee, the trade union and management representatives enjoy equal rights. No decision is valid unless it is agreed to by both sides.

A grievance committee's decision may be reversed only by a Procurator (*see answers* Nos. 64 to 67) or a higher trade union body, but only if the decision arrived at is in violation of the law or is clearly at variance with the facts of the case.

If a worker considers the decision unjust, he has the right to bring the matter before a People's Court. In all such cases, the complainants are exempt from the payment of court fees.

44.—How do the Soviet trade unions function?

THE Soviet trade unions are the biggest mass organisation of the working class of the U.S.S.R. They unite in their ranks practically all workers, engineers, technicians, clerical workers and people engaged in scientific and cultural pursuits.

The unions actively help the Soviet Government and the Communist Party to improve the working people's material conditions and the general amenities of life. They also help to improve production and to further the political education of the working class.

V. I. Lenin called the Soviet trade Unions a school of communism, because Unions draw the broad masses of the working class into the work of socialist construction, develop their political consciousness and public activity, and inculcate in them a communist attitude towards labour. They organise socialist emulation and the Stakhanov movement (*see answers* Nos. 39 and 40) and see that the labour laws are strictly observed.

The trade unions take an active part in drafting legislation

pertaining to industry, labour, living standards and culture. They supervise the observance of labour protection laws, administer the State social insurance funds, and see to the strict observance of industrial safety rules.

The unions take part in planning and regulating wages and salaries, enforcing strict adherence to the principle that payment shall be in accordance with the quantity and quality of work performed. They check production standards to ensure that they are reasonable.

Union committees at factories organise socialist emulation, help the workers to train for higher qualifications, arrange courses, Stakhanovite schools and study circles, pass on the experience of the foremost workers, and popularise new and better production methods and technical innovations.

The trade union committee, acting on behalf of the workers, concludes collective agreements with the management.

The Unions also cater for the workers' material needs and cultural interests. They maintain many health and holiday resorts, palaces of culture and clubs, libraries and stadiums. They take part in deciding the allocation of flats in the buildings which belong to the industrial establishments employing the workers they represent. They see to it that housing and cultural development programmes are carried out as scheduled.

The Soviet trade unions are organised along industrial lines. All workers in an enterprise or institute, from the unskilled labourers and charwomen to the manager, belong to the same union (membership is, of course, voluntary). This gives every Soviet enterprise a single, closely-knit trade union organisation which has the backing of the entire staff and represents the interests of them all.

Similarly, the workers of an industry are united in one trade union. There are 66 industrial trade Unions in the U.S.S.R.

Every citizen has the right to join a trade union the day he begins work.

The union statutes provide that every member is entitled to vote in elections and is eligible for election to any union body. He has the right to criticise activities of local or higher union bodies at meetings and in the Press, and to address requests to, or lodge complaints with any leading body, which must give them prompt attention.

Underlying all the activity of the Soviet trade unions are the broad democratic rights and initiative of the masses. All leading union bodies, from shop and factory branch committee to the central committees of the unions, are elected by secret ballot. Every leading body is obliged periodically (at intervals specified by the Union statute) to give an account of its work to the membership.

The central trade union body for the entire country is the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (A.U.C.C.T.U.), which is elected at the All-Union Congress of Trade Unions. The central body for each trade union is the central committee, which is elected at the congress of the particular union.

45.—How do Soviet citizens exercise their right to rest and leisure?

THE right to rest and leisure is guaranteed by the State to all citizens of the U.S.S.R.

This right is ensured first of all by the fact that there is a 48-hour maximum working week in the Soviet Union.

Apart from having, at least one clear day off a week, Soviet workers are entitled by law to annual holidays with pay. The minimum holiday period is two weeks, but many workers receive three weeks' or a month's holiday. Those getting a month's holiday include miners, iron and steel workers, textile workers, railwaymen and workers in a number of other industries. Teachers and scientific workers get a two-month holiday.

Each year several million workers spend their holidays in health and holiday resorts.

46.—How is social insurance organised?

THE social insurance of factory and office workers is financed completely by the State. The State social insurance fund is made up of money paid regularly by all enterprises and institutions for this purpose—the equivalent of about seven per cent. of the wage bill. **The workers make no payment into this fund.**

The State social insurance budget increases in proportion to the growth of the socialist economy.

In the first Five-Year Plan period (1928-1929 to 1932-1933), the social insurance funds amounted to 10,400 million roubles. In the second Five-Year Plan period (1933-1937) they reached 32,500 million roubles. In the post-war Five-Year Plan period (1946-1950) they amounted to 80,100 million roubles. The 1951 social insurance budget exceeded 21,000 million roubles.

Benefits paid out of the social insurance fund are many and varied. They include temporary disability benefits, allowances on the birth of a child, lump sum payments to workers with

large families; accommodation at health and holiday resorts; maintenance of tourist and mountaineering camps; the cost of sending workers' children to summer camps and children's sanatoria.

During illness, a worker receives sick benefit from the first day of his disability until his doctor permits him to go back to work. Working women receive maternity leave allowances. A worker is also paid out of this fund if he or she has to stay at home to take care of a sick member of the family.

The benefits paid range from half to the whole of the worker's earnings, depending on the length of service at the enterprise.

Maternity leave benefits are paid to women who have worked at a given enterprise or institution not less than three months.

On the birth of a child a lump sum is paid as a special allowance for feeding the baby and for the purchase of a layette.

Disability pensions range from a third to the full amount of a worker's wages, depending on the degree of incapacity. Accommodation at health and holiday resorts paid for from State social insurance funds, is provided for working people either free or at a discount of 50 to 70 per cent.

In 1950 some 1,200 health and holiday resorts were maintained by trade unions in the Crimea and the Caucasus and other health resorts and beauty spots of the U.S.S.R.

Many additional health and holiday resorts are maintained by the Ministry of Public Health and by economic organisations.

The fund also meets the cost of special diets, served in special dietic dining rooms, and of accommodation at "overnight sanatoria" and special one-day rest hostels

(establishments maintained by factories and mills at which workers who feel run down can receive treatment, rest and special food while still carrying on at their jobs).

The trade Unions have complete charge of these State social insurance funds.

47.—What practical provisions are made for material security in old age?

SOVIET citizens are maintained in their old age, by the State. Under Soviet law, upon reaching the age of 60, male workers who have a 25-year record of service receive a life pension. Women receive this pension on reaching the age of 55 after 20 years of service. Some categories of workers, notably miners and iron and steel workers, receive these pensions on reaching the age of 50.

Old age pensions are paid even if the pensioner is in perfect health and able to work. Persons receiving such pensions may continue to work if they so desire, being paid their full pension just the same.

Old age pensions range from 50 to 60 per cent. of the pensioner's average monthly earnings. Miners, iron and steel workers, geologists and persons engaged in a number of other trades and professions receive higher pensions.

Collective farms provide special funds to aid aged collective farmers.

48.—How is freedom of conscience exercised?

THE Constitution of the U.S.S.R. proclaims freedom of conscience for all citizens.

A citizen has the right to profess any religion or none. This is entirely a personal matter.

In the Soviet Union the Church is separated from the State. The Church has no right to interfere in the political activities of the State. Neither does the State interfere in the affairs of the Church.

No church in the U.S.S.R. receives State subsidies. All churches are equal before the State; and no church or cult enjoys any privileges.

The Soviet State makes no distinction between citizens because of religion. The citizen's religion is not indicated in official documents, such as passports, marriage licences and birth certificates.

Education has been completely taken out of the hands of the Church, and the school is separated from the Church. No religious instruction is given in Soviet schools.

The separation of Church from State does *not* mean that the clergy and believers are deprived of any civil rights. The clergy of all churches and religious denominations enjoy electoral and other rights equally with all other citizens.

The Soviet Constitution grants all citizens professing any faith the right to unite in religious congregations and associations, which may establish their central governing bodies.

Such central bodies hold congresses of their clergy and conferences of believers. They publish books and magazines, and establish religious schools. Church institutions are maintained by voluntary contributions from church members.

Soviet law protects the rights of believers to assemble freely for public worship, to baptise children and adults, to hold church services and requiems, and to perform other rites.

The Soviet State grants religious congregations the free use

of houses of worship (churches, synagogues, mosques, etc.) and church plate. Religious congregations may build their own houses of worship. Central or local authorities assign premises for religious schools, and provide paper and printing facilities for the publication of religious books and church magazines.

At the present time there are the following religious associations in the U.S.S.R.:

The Russian Orthodox Church, headed by Alexius, 74-year-old Patriarch of Moscow and All Russia. Patriarch Alexius took his monastic vows in 1902. He has an advisory body—the Holy Synod. This church has the largest number of adherents.

The Moslem Faith, governed by four territorial ecclesiastical centres. The overwhelming majority of Soviet Moslems are Sunnites, members of the principal sect of Islam. A small number, mainly in Transcaucasia, are Shi-ites.

The Roman Catholic Church is to be found mainly in the Western part of the U.S.S.R.

The Starobriatsi (Old Believers) are divided into three main sects having no communion with one another: the so-called Belokrinitzky Hierarchy; the Bespopovtsi, the sect which rejects the office of priest; and the Beglopopovtsi, the sect which maintains as priests those who were formerly connected with the Russian Orthodox Church.

The Orthodox Church of Georgia, headed by the Patriarch-Catholicos.

The Armenian (Gregorian) Church, headed by the Supreme Patriarch-Catholicos of the Armenians.

The Evangelical Christian Baptist Church unites the formerly independent bodies of Evangelical Christians, Baptists and adherents of the Pentecostal Church.

The Lutheran Church (Augsburg Confession) functions

mainly in Latvia and Estonia.

The Buddhists, mainly in the eastern part of the U.S.S.R.
The Jewish Religion, which has no single religious centre.
 In addition there are a number of other smaller religious denominations and churches, including the **Seventh-Day Adventists, Reformati, Molokani, Methodists** and others.
 They enjoy equal rights with all other churches.

The U.S.S.R. Council of Ministers has appointed a Council for Affairs of the Russian Orthodox Church and a Council for Affairs of the Religious Cults. These were set up to assist religious bodies in matters requiring intercourse with State authorities and institutions, to supervise the proper application of the laws guaranteeing the freedom of conscience and freedom of religious worship, and to draft Bills and regulations on questions raised by religious bodies.

Fanatical sects, which make mutilation the basis of their creed (such as the Skoptsy, who castrate their followers), are not recognised in the U.S.S.R.

To safeguard freedom of conscience, the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. also recognises for all citizens the freedom of anti-religious propaganda. However, the feelings of believers must not be offended while conducting such propaganda.

49.—Do all children attend school?

ALL Soviet children attend school. This is compulsory. Free, universal seven-year education (the school-age beginning at seven) is established by law.

After finishing seven forms, most Soviet boys and girls continue in the upper forms of secondary school (the secondary school has ten forms), or in specialised secondary schools. In the latter, while receiving instruction in a special subject, the

pupils complete a general ten-year education.

In 1950, there were 37 million pupils in the general educational and specialised secondary schools of the U.S.S.R., and 1951 showed an increase of 2,500,000 in the seven- and ten-year schools.

To ensure universal seven-year education, the Soviet State maintains more than 220,000 schools. Instruction in all schools is given in the native language of the pupils. There are schools in the most remote localities, in the Far North, in the Pamir and Altai Mountains, in the oases of the Central Asian deserts — the non-Russian nationalities in all these places had not even a written language before the Revolution.

The State publishes all textbooks and produces all school appliances.

The number of school teachers is constantly growing. In 1950 the number of primary and secondary school teachers reached 1,600,000, an increase of 80,000 over 1949.

50.—What is the social and material position of the teacher in the Soviet Union?

THE teacher's calling is an honourable one, indeed an exalted one, in the Soviet Union, and teachers' salaries are on a par with those paid to other professional workers of high standing. In addition they receive regular increases in salary in accordance with their length of teaching service.

In rural communities, houses are built for teachers at State expense, and with the house goes a plot of land.

During school holidays, teachers receive two months' holiday with pay. They also receive accommodation at health and holiday resorts at a 70 per cent. discount.

For long and irreproachable service, teachers receive Orders or Medals. After ten years' such service, a teacher is awarded the "For Distinguished Labour" Medal. Other decorations follow after every additional five years of service.

After 30 years of irreproachable service, a teacher is decorated with the U.S.S.R.'s highest Order, the Order of Lenin.

Exceptional distinction brings school teachers the title of Honoured Teacher. This title is conferred by decision of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the teacher's Union Republic.

Tens of thousands of teachers in town and countryside have been elected deputies to Soviets.

51.—What are the opportunities of getting a higher education?

THE number of higher educational institutions in the U.S.S.R. in 1951 was 887, of which 112 had been opened since the war. No other country in the world has so many.

All citizens between 17 and 35 years of age who have completed a secondary education and passed entrance examinations are eligible for admission to schools of higher learning. A thorough knowledge of what they have studied is the only requirement. Soviet students are the children of all sections of the people.

Students who come from a distance are accommodated in hostels. All students who do satisfactorily in their studies receive a monthly allowance throughout their course of study which ensures them a decent living. During the summer holidays, students receive free accommodation at health and holiday resorts.

There are higher educational institutions in all Union and Autonomous Republics, regions and territories. Among Soviet students are to be found representatives of all nationalities inhabiting the U.S.S.R., including those which had no written language before the Revolution.

Youths and girls of 54 nationalities attend the country's biggest institute of higher learning—the Moscow Lomonosov State University, named after the great Russian scientist M. V. Lomonosov.

During the years of Soviet power over 30,000 young men and women have graduated from this university. It now has eleven faculties with 9,000 students and a staff of 1,300 professors and instructors.

There are 3,500 specialised secondary schools in the Soviet Union which prepare junior professional workers.

In 1951, Soviet higher educational establishments and specialised secondary schools had a total of 2,740,000 students. In the five years 1946 to 1950 these two categories provided 652,000 men and women with a higher education and 1,278,000 with a specialised secondary education.

In 1951, 463,000 young people successfully completed their studies at higher educational establishments or specialised secondary schools.

Altogether last year, over five million persons who had completed a higher or specialised secondary education were working in the U.S.S.R., and there were also as many qualified specialists who' had begun as ordinary workers and developed an the job, a development assisted by their taking up courses during their spare time.

To train young scientists, higher educational establishments and scientific research institutes give post-graduate courses All past-graduate students receive State

allowances. In 1951 the number of post-graduate students preparing for scientific work was aver 24,000.

52.—What political rights do citizens enjoy?

A CITIZEN of the Soviet Union has the right to elect and be elected to any organ of State power.

The Constitution has secured to all Soviet citizens freedom of speech and of the Press, freedom of assembly and the right to hold mass meetings, and the right to hold street processions and demonstrations.

The working people of the U.S.S.R. have all the material and political requisites for the exercise of these rights.

Freedom of the Press is ensured in the U.S.S.R. by placing at the disposal of the working people and their organisations printing presses and stocks of paper for the publication of books, magazines and newspapers, and by the opportunity every citizen has to write to newspapers, and to criticise any government official.

Freedom of speech, assembly and meetings, street processions and demonstrations is ensured in the U.S.S.R. by the fact that all public buildings, means of communication, etc., belong to the people and are at the disposal of the working people.

Soviet citizens have the right to unite in public organisations such as trade unions, co-operative societies, youth organisations, cultural, sports, technical and scientific societies.

The most active and politically conscious citizens of the U.S.S.R. unite in the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (see *answer* No. 94).

53.—What are the duties of Soviet citizens?

THE Constitution of the U.S.S.R. (Articles 130, 131, 132, 133) imposes upon citizens of the U.S.S.R. the following duties:

“It is the duty of every citizen of the U.S.S.R. to abide by the Constitution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, to observe the laws, to maintain labour discipline, honestly to perform public duties, and to respect the rules of socialist intercourse.” (Article 130.)

“It is the duty of every citizen of the U.S.S.R. to safeguard and fortify public, socialist property as the sacred and inviolable foundation of the Soviet system, as the source of the wealth and might of the country, as the source of the prosperity and culture of all the working people.

“Persons committing offences against public, socialist prosperity are enemies of the people.” (Article 131.)

“Universal military service is law.

“Military service in the Armed Forces of the U.S.S.R. is an honourable duty of the citizens of the U.S.S.R.” (Article 132.)

“To defend the country is the sacred duty of every citizen of the U.S.S.R. Treason to the motherland—violation of the oath of allegiance, desertion to the enemy, impairing the military power of the state, espionage—is punishable with all the severity of the law as the most heinous of crimes.” (Article 133.)

54.—What taxes do people pay?

WORKERS, factory or clerical, writers, art workers, artisans and other citizens who have independent sources of

income pay income tax.

Workers whose earnings are below a stated amount students receiving allowances, and pensioners are exempt from income tax.

Workers pay income tax monthly out of their earnings for the preceding month. The rate is as follows:

Monthly Earnings	Tax
400 roubles	18 roubles
500 roubles	26 roubles
600 roubles	36 roubles
750 roubles	52 roubles
1,000 roubles	82 roubles
1,500 roubles	147 roubles
etc.	etc.

Workers with four or more dependents pay greatly reduced taxes.

In 1941 a tax was instituted on childless citizens and citizens with less than two children. Men between 20 and 50 and women between 20 and 45 pay 6 per cent. of their income if they have no children, 1 per cent. if they have one child and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. if they have two children. Citizens who have three or more children do not pay this tax.

Servicemen and their wives, students up to 25 years of age, disabled persons, and citizens whose sons or daughters were killed in action or missing in the Great Patriotic War, are exempt.

55.—What rent is paid?

THE bulk of residential buildings in Soviet towns are owned by the State.

The law provides that rent may not exceed 1 rouble 32 kopecks a month per square metre* of living floor space. Kitchens, sculleries, lavatories, bathrooms, halls and passageways are not taken into account. Thus, rent for a flat of 30-40 square metres (about 325-430 square feet) of living floor space must not amount to more than 40-53 roubles a month.

As a rule rent does not exceed one-twentieth of the earnings of workers and other employees. The rents are fixed by the State, and no one has the right to raise them. Any arbitrary increase in rent is punishable by law.

56.—How does the medical service work?

THE Soviet State has assumed full responsibility for health protection. All medical service is free of charge.

Any citizen living in city or village may obtain medical consultation and treatment at his district dispensary or clinic. The district clinic has all facilities for diagnosing and treating diseases, an X-ray service, laboratories, equipment for electric sunray treatment and hydro-therapy.

Where a particular type of specialist is required, the

* Approximately 10% square feet.

dispensary will provide one. The clinics have emergency service departments and a telephone call brings a doctor to the patient's home immediately.

Every district has its own epidemic prevention experts, who are in charge of the hygiene and preventive services. They carry out vaccinations and inoculations, and spread knowledge of hygiene among the population.

Big factories and institutions maintain their own clinics, which serve their employees and families. Cost of maintenance comes out of social insurance funds.

There are plenty of hospitals and specialised clinics for patients requiring hospital treatment.

Soviet medical institutions, employ a great many medical workers. By 1950, the number of doctors in the country had increased by 75 per cent. over 1940.

The Soviet Government allocates huge sums to the public health services. In 1947, State budgetary appropriations for this purpose were 18,900 million roubles; in 1948, 20,500 million; 1949, 21,600 million; 1950, 22,000 million; 1951, 21,900 million. This year the figure is 22,800 million roubles.

In consequence of the greater well-being of the people and the achievements of the health service the death rate in the U.S.S.R. is down to half of what it was in the last pre-war year, 1940. Infant mortality has declined even more.

57.—What banks are there? Where do people keep their savings?

ALL banks in the U.S.S.R. belong to the State. There are no private banks.

In the hands of the Soviet State, finance and credit

represent an important instrument for advancing the national economy and culture. Through the banks, the State also exercises financial control over the work of individual enterprises, institutions and the economy as a whole.

The chief Soviet bank is the State Bank of the U.S.S.R. All State institutions, co-operatives, public organisations, factories and offices keep current accounts in the State Bank, through which their mutual accounts are settled. The State Bank also handles the State budget revenues—profit tax and income tax. The State Bank grants short-term credits to enterprises and institutions, and finances organisations. Funds for this are provided by the State Budget. The bank has branches in all Republics, territories, regions, cities and district centres.

Foreign trade transactions are financed by a special bank, the Foreign Trade Bank of the U.S.S.R.

The U.S.S.R. also has four special long-term credit banks: the Industrial Bank, the Trade Bank, the Central Agricultural Bank, and the Central Bank for Municipal Economy and Housing Construction.

These banks finance capital construction and handle clearing operations in their respective branches of national economy.

The people keep the money they save from their earnings in State savings banks.

Savings banks are to be found in all towns, large villages and industrial settlements, and there are branches at post offices.

The number of depositors increases by several million every year, a fact which bears witness to the growing well-being of the people.

In 1951 savings bank deposits rose by 4,000 million roubles compared with 1950, and the number of depositors

increased by over three million.

58.—What part do domestic loans play in the U.S.S.R.?

DOMESTIC State loans in the U.S.S.R. mobilise the people's cash resources to promote socialist construction.

Loans floated during the pre-war Five-Year Plan periods brought in about 50,000 million roubles, which were invested in the construction of educational establishments, hospitals, theatres, clubs, kindergartens and creches.

During the Great Patriotic War, the Soviet people loaned the State more than 76,000 million roubles out of their earnings. This was a material contribution to the strengthening of the military and economic power of the Soviet State.

Subscriptions to post-war loans have exceeded 130,000 million roubles.

These domestic loans, subscription to which is voluntary, are immensely popular among the Soviet people. They are truly people's loans.

Soviet loans provide extra income to subscribers in the form of winnings on their loan bonds. During the first post-war Five-year Plan period (1946-50) the State paid out 17,000 million roubles in winnings and interest on loans. This year it will pay out 8,900 million roubles.

59.—What co-operatives exist in the Soviet Union? How do they function?

THERE are three systems of co-operatives in the U.S.S.R.

Consumers', industrial (producers') and disabled persons'.

The consumers' co-operative societies are trading organisations. They are mass public organisations with more than 32 million members, and are directed by elected boards of management. The consumers' co-operative societies are organised in federations for each Republic, territory' and region.

The highest organ of this movement is its delegate congress which elects the Council of Centrosoyuz (Central Union of Cooperative Societies of the U.S.S.R.), the board of directors of Centrosoyuz and the auditing commission. All these serve for a term of four years.

The State supplies the co-operatives with manufactured goods for retail sale on a planned basis. In addition, the co-operatives buy various products for themselves. They also operate small enterprises processing agricultural raw materials and manufacturing certain consumer goods.

The consumers' co-operative societies possess an extensive trading network in the countryside. There are more than 24,000 village societies. Altogether this network includes more than 240,000 retail stores, stalls, canteens and tea-rooms, snack-bars and restaurants.

Centrosoyuz is affiliated to the International Co-operative Alliance, of which it is the largest single constituent organisation.

The industrial co-operatives unite handicraft workers producing various household articles. They have a large network of small plants and workshops, as well as their own stores.

The disabled persons' co-operatives unite incapacitated persons and disabled war veterans who, because of their disabilities are unable to pursue their former occupations.

These co-operatives maintain special schools and workshops in which disabled persons are taught new trades, receiving an allowance while undergoing training.

On completing their course, members may either take employment in the co-operative workshops, or become members of an *artel* and take work to do at home. For their work in the *artel* they receive wages and a share of the profits. State civil or war pensions paid to them are not affected by these earnings.

The Soviet co-operative organisations are given every support by the State.

60.—How is Soviet domestic trade organised?

TRADE in the U.S.S.R. is conducted without merchants or speculators. It is carried on by State and co-operative organisations, which maintain a vast network of shops, stalls, restaurants, and public catering services.

These organisations receive from the State — on a planned basis at standard wholesale prices — food and manufactures for retail sale. Retail prices are also fixed by the State, so there can be no price manipulation in Soviet trade.

One consequence of the growing well-being of the Soviet people is the volume of sales in the shops, which is increasing from year to year. During the pre-war Five-Year Plan periods (1928-40), retail sales by State and co-operative shops increased 11 times over. By 1950 sales of food and manufactures were considerably higher than in 1940 (see *answer* No. 21); and in 1951 retail sales increased by 15 per cent. as compared with the previous year.

Besides being available at State and co-operative shops,

every kind of bread, meat, vegetables and other agricultural products may also be purchased at the collective farm markets in the cities. Collective farms, collective farmers and individual peasants bring their surplus products to these markets. Collective farm trade is an additional source of supply for the people.

61.—How is Soviet foreign trade organised and conducted?

SOVIET foreign trade is organised and conducted as a State monopoly, and is directed by the Ministry of Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet organs representing the interests and rights of the U.S.S.R. in the sphere of foreign trade abroad are the Trade Delegations of the U.S.S.R., which carry on and manage foreign trade, and help develop trade and other economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and other countries.

Actual foreign trade operations are transacted by special export and import organisations (Vsesoyuzniye Obyedinenia Exportles, Exportkhleb, Mashinoimport, and others), each of which handles the export and import of specific commodities.

These organisations conduct their operations by concluding contracts with foreign firms or associations. Soviet export and import organisations are vested with the authority to make transactions independently and they have been given independent responsibility for their undertakings.

Vsesoyuzniye Obyedinenia's statute contains specific provisions that the State is not responsible for debts contracted by the export and import organisations; nor are these organisations responsible for the State debts, or for debts or

commitments of any other economic organisations, including other foreign trade organisations.

Foreign trade between the U.S.S.R. and the countries with which it does business is governed by trade treaties and agreements, covering the volume of trade and payments. These agreements list the items with which the two parties have agreed to supply one another, specifying quantity and price.

No direct payments are made by either side for the commodities supplied by the other, but at the end of stipulated periods, all accounts are settled by clearing operations. With most countries imports and exports of equivalent value are provided for.

The greatly increased industrial and agricultural output in the U.S.S.R. has made it possible to extend the scope of Soviet trade with foreign countries. The Soviet Union now exports industrial equipment, motor cars and lorries, tractors, agricultural machinery, chemicals, various kinds of fertilisers, coke, cotton, seeds, etc., as well as timber, wheat and furs.

From South-Eastern and Eastern Europe the Soviet Union imports petroleum products, coal, rolling stock, barges, tugs, textiles and other commodities.

Soviet foreign trade, aiming as it does to extend economic co-operation between the U.S.S.R. and all countries, helps to promote peace. Soviet trade with other countries is in line with the Soviet Government's foreign policy, which is based on the principles of mutual advantage, equality of the parties and respect for sovereignty. These principles are invariably adhered to by the Soviet Union in its trade relations with other countries, large and small.

At the present time the Soviet Union has incomparably greater potentialities than ever before for doing business with Western as well as Eastern countries.

Soviet foreign trade organisations could purchase in the countries of Western Europe, the Americas, South-East Asia, the Middle East, Africa and Australia the commodities which they customarily export, and sell them Soviet commodities in which they are interested, in quantities which could raise the Soviet Union's trade with those countries in the next two or three years to 30,000 or 40,000 million roubles, or to 10,000-15,000 million roubles a year. This compares with a maximum post-war trade volume of approximately 5,000 million roubles (1948).

If the U.S.S.R.'s proposals for developing its trade with foreign countries were put into effect, it would mean several years' work for 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 persons in those countries.

62.—Who fixes prices in the U.S.S.R.?

PRICES are fixed by the State planning authorities, subject to approval by the Government.

For the more important articles other than food, State prices are uniform in all parts of the country. For the more important food products, prices vary according to zone. For these purposes the country has been divided into three to five zones, and in setting the special prices for the various zones, account is taken of carriage and other overheads.

Since most manufactures and agricultural produce are concentrated in the hands of the State, and their distribution is handled by the State and co-operative trading systems, there is nothing to hinder the establishment of uniform prices. Soviet economy is free from fluctuating or rocketing prices' due to speculation.

The prices of goods produced by the co-operative societies

are fixed at the same level as State prices.

Retail prices in collective farm markets are influenced by supply and demand. But, with State and co-operative shops nearby selling products at uniform State prices, the collective farmers have to sell at the same or lower prices. In this way the Soviet State uses economic means to control the prices in the collective farm markets.

63.—What makes the systematic price cuts in the U.S.S.R. possible? What do these reductions mean for the people?

THE Soviet Government pursues a consistent policy of reducing the retail prices of consumer goods. Since the end of the war there have been five big price cuts.

The policy of regularly reducing prices reflects the Soviet Government's ever-present concern for a steady rise in the wellbeing of the people.

J. V. Stalin, the leader of the Soviet people, teaches that the maximum satisfaction of the constantly growing material and cultural needs of the whole of society is an essential feature of the basic economic law of socialism.

The mighty development of the peaceful Soviet economy since the war (*see answer* No. 21), the steady rise in industrial and agricultural output, the higher productivity of labour and lower production costs have made it possible for the Soviet Government to reduce State retail prices systematically.

What have the people gained from these price reductions in terms of money?

The first price reduction, put through at the end of 1947, meant a gain of 86,000 million roubles in one year. It more

than doubled real wages.

The people's gain in the year following the second cut in prices (in the spring of 1949), came to about 71,000 million roubles.

The third reduction of prices of food and manufactures in March, 1950, netted a gain for the people of at least 80,000 million roubles on their purchases at State stores alone.

But since price cuts on goods sold by the State trading system are inevitably followed by price reductions at co-operative stores and at collective farm markets in towns, the total gain to the people over a year was at least 110,000 million roubles.

The Soviet Government put through the fourth price reduction on March 1, 1951, and the year's saving amounted to 27,500 million roubles, or 35,000 million roubles if the lower prices at the collective farm markets are taken into account.

On April 1, 1952, the Soviet Government put into effect the fifth reduction in retail prices. Prices of essential foodstuffs were again cut by between 10 to 30 per cent., including prices of bread, flour, cereals, sugar, meat, fats, cheese and other milk products, confectionery and groceries, and fruits and vegetables. The net gain over a year to the population from their purchases at State shops will be more than 23,000 million roubles, and not less than 28,000 million roubles if their purchases at co-operative stores and collective farm markets are added.

64.—How is justice administered?

THE function of Soviet courts of justice is to safeguard the labour and property rights and interests of Soviet citizens and to protect the rights and lawful interests of State institutions,

enterprises, co-operative and other public organisations.

All Courts, from the People's Court, which is the lowest, to the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R., which is the highest, are elective.

The jurisdiction of each court is strictly defined. The bulk of criminal and civil cases are tried by the People's Courts (each composed of a Judge and two People's Assessors). The territorial, regional and area courts hear cases involving crimes against the State and disputes between State and public organisations, and consider appeals from, and protests against, sentences and decisions of the People's Courts.

Supervision of the judicial activities of all courts in a particular Republic is exercised by the Supreme Court of the Union Republic, and the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R. is charged with supervision of the judicial activities of all Soviet judicial bodies.

In all courts, cases are tried with the participation of People's Assessors.

The powers of these People's Assessors, who are elected on the same basis as People's Judges, are the same as those of the Judges, and this equal authority constitutes the most important principle of the entire Soviet judicial system.

The Soviet Constitution provides for the complete independence of Judges. No government body or official may dictate to a court what its decision should be in any particular case, or influence in any way the outcome of a trial. The court's judgement or decision must be in strict conformity with the law and based on the evidence in the case.

All citizens are equal before the law. There are no special courts in the U.S.S.R. for any category of the population. The People's Court is the same for all citizens.

Judicial proceedings are conducted in the language of the

Union or Autonomous Republic, persons unfamiliar with that language being provided with an interpreter. All citizens 'have the right to use their own language in court.

One of the most important principles of the Soviet court is that cases are heard in public. The only exceptions are cases involving State, military or diplomatic secrets. Divorce proceedings can, if the parties wish, also be held in private (*see answer* No. 32).

The Soviet court performs a great educational function. While punishing criminals, it at the same time makes provisions for their correction and re-education. The laws of the U.S.S.R. reject punishment as an aim in itself or as a requital, as a method of humiliating the human dignity of the convict. The Soviet State creates conditions of life and work for convicts which enable them to atone for their guilt by honest labour and conduct, and regain their status as decent Soviet citizens.

65.—Who may become a Judge?

THE Soviet court is an elective body.

Any Soviet citizen of either sex may become a judge in the U.S.S.R., provided he or she has reached the age of 23 and wins the confidence of the voters.

People's Judges and People's Assessors are elected by the citizens of the particular district in which the court sits on the basis of universal, direct and equal suffrage, by secret ballot for a term of three years.

One Judge and from 50 to 75 Assessors are elected in each election district.

In the last elections for People's Judges in Moscow, held at the end of 1951, 99.99 per cent. of the voters went to the polls.

Over 45 per cent. of the People's Judges and Assessors are women.

Judges and Assessors of the higher courts—the territorial and regional courts—as well as members of the Supreme Courts of the Republics and members of the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R., are elected by the respective Soviets of Working People's Deputies and Supreme Soviets for a term of five years.

66.—What are the powers of the Procurator-General of the U.S.S.R.?

THE Procurator-General of the U.S.S.R. has supervisory power to ensure the proper application and strict observance of the law by all government institutions, officials and citizens of the U.S.S.R. He is vested with the right to protest against any action, order or instruction of any official, Ministers of the U.S.S.R. included, if it is committed in violation of the law. The Procurator-General is appointed by the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet and he, in turn, appoints the Procurators of the Union and Autonomous Republics, territories and regions; they are responsible only to the Procurator-General of the U.S.S.R. and function independently of any local organs.

The Procurator-General of the U.S.S.R., the Procurators of the Republics, territories and regions, and the city and district Procurators prosecute for the State in court proceedings.

Any citizen of the U.S.S.R. may file a complaint with the Procurator-General against any institution or official he or she believes to be violating the law, or a petition seeking protection for his legal rights and interests. Every such complaint or petition receives proper attention.

In the performance of its duties, the Soviet procurator ate receives great help from the community. Like the Soviet court, the procurator ate has close ties with the working people who regard it as the defender of their interests, and of the Soviet social and State system.

67.—Is there a legal profession in the Soviet Union?

YES, there is. There are associations (collegiums) of lawyers in all big cities and in many rural areas.

Under Soviet law, defendants in criminal cases and both plaintiffs and defendants in civil suits are entitled to legal assistance.

The presence of defence counsel is mandatory in all cases handled by the Procurator's office, and in cases where the defendants cannot conduct their own defence because of physical handicaps (e.g. the blind, deaf or dumb).

Fees for legal help are low. The defendant may choose his lawyer himself, or may ask the lawyers' collegiums to appoint one. If a defendant cannot afford to pay even the low legal costs, the court provides legal assistance free of charge.

The right to such legal defence entitles the defendant in a criminal case (and the litigants in a civil suit) to ask the court to subpoena any number of witnesses, to order any written or material evidence to be produced in court and to have the necessary documents made exhibits in the case, and also to demand expert testimony or recommittal of the case for further investigation.

68.—What role do kindergartens and creches play?

IN opening kindergartens and creches, the Soviet Government has been prompted by a desire to create good conditions making it possible for women to work in industry, to study and take part in public life.

The crèche cares for children up to the age of four, and the kindergarten from the age of four to seven. The children stay at crèche or kindergarten during the day, while their mothers are at work. They are cared for by specially trained educational workers, and doctors look after their health and their physical development. The food provided is in strict accordance with the children's ages.

Fees in both types of institution are very low, the greater part of the expense being borne by the State.

In 1950 there were about 1,250,000 permanent places in the country's creches. Kindergartens numbered 27,000. Seasonal creches, established in rural areas during the fieldwork season, take care of three to four million youngsters annually.

Parents, of course, are free to decide whether or not to send their children to these centres.

69.—Can a Soviet worker become a highly skilled technician while remaining at his job?

YES, he can.

Many institutes and secondary technical schools provide evening or correspondence courses. There are also special correspondence course institutes. The Polytechnic

Correspondence Course Institute of the U.S.S.R., for instance, has seven faculties and 9,000 students.

Most of the evening courses are attached to big factories. Their students attend lectures and do their laboratory practice after working hours.

Correspondence course students receive lectures by mail, but several times a year they are called upon to attend schools. In this way, evening school and correspondence course students have the opportunity of acquiring a higher education while working.

Soviet labour legislation provides that students taking these courses must be given special leaves for consultations, examinations and preparation of their graduation theses.

On completion of their courses, evening school and correspondence course students take their final examinations, and if they pass, receive diplomas on the same basis as regular students.

Several hundred thousand people took college correspondence courses in 1951.

70.—How many women engineers and technicians, scientists and statesmen are there in the U.S.S.R.?

IN Soviet society women enjoy full equality with men in every sphere of government, economic, cultural and other public activity.

There were, in all, 600 women engineers in Russia before the October Revolution, but by 1951 the U.S.S.R. had more than 380,000 women engineers and technicians.

Last year there were also more than a million women teachers working in the public education system. There were

more than a million women employed in hospitals, clinics and other health institutions. Of these, 207,000 were doctors.

Professional women with a higher education now number more than 830,000. In 1951 over a million women were studying at higher or specialised secondary educational establishments.

Many scientific research institutes, higher educational establishments, large factories, State and collective farms, schools and hospitals are headed by women. Some 60,000 women are employed on scientific research work in universities institutes and research institutions.

The list of the finest representatives of the Soviet countryside, the foremost farming experts who have been awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labour for obtaining high crop yields and high livestock productivity, had by the beginning of this year included the names of 2,170 women.

Over 600 women have won Stalin Prizes for distinguished scientific work, inventions or for outstanding contributions to literature or art.

Soviet women take an active part in governing the country. In the elections of March 1950, 280 women were elected deputies to the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet; and in the February 1951 elections, 2,209 women were elected deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics.

More than half a million women are deputies to local Soviets.

71.—What scientific institutions are there in the U.S.S.R.?

THE comprehensive development of science under Soviet

government is without parallel.

The principal guiding centre of Soviet science is the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, which was founded in 1725. Before the October Revolution it had only five small laboratories, the Pulkovo Observatory, the Main Physical Observatory and a number of museums and archives.

In Soviet years the Academy has developed into a vast association of scientific research institutions. It now includes over a hundred research institutes, which conduct research in physics and mathematics, chemistry, geology and geography, biology, technology, history, philosophy, economics, law, literature and linguistics.

Twelve of the sixteen Union Republics have their own academies of sciences: the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Lithuania, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Estonia, Tajikistan, and Turkmenia.

These academies also have their own scientific research institutes.

The U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences maintains branches or bases in a number of Union Republics and in regions of the R.S.F.S.R., which have become important centres of scientific work, exercising a great influence over the development of science in the national Republics.

The U.S.S.R. has a number of large specialised academies: the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences of the U.S.S.R., the Academy of Medical Sciences, the Academy of Educational Sciences, the Academy of Architecture, the Academy of Municipal Economy, the U.S.S.R. Academy of Arts, and the Academy of Social Sciences.

There are many scientific research institutes, stations and laboratories working under the auspices of the various Ministries. They are instrumental in advancing the use of the

latest technical and scientific achievements in industry, and in furthering general economic and cultural development.

The U.S.S.R. also has a number of all-Union scientific societies, the largest of which are the Geographical Society, founded 1845; the Mendelejev Chemical Society, founded 1868; the Entomological Society, founded 1860; the Society of Physiologists, Biochemists and Pharmacologists, founded 1916; the Astronomical Society, founded 1932; the Society of Soil Scientists, founded 1938, etc.

72.—What newspapers are published?

UNDER Soviet government the Press has grown many times over and has developed into a powerful force.

More than 7,800 newspapers and over 1,400 magazines are published in the U.S.S.R. at present. The newspapers' average daily circulation in 1950 was 36 million, twelve and a half times the 1913 figure. There is not a district in the country that does not have its own newspaper.

The central newspapers published in Moscow are particularly popular: *Pravda*, organ of the Central and Moscow Committees of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union; *Izvestia*, organ of the U.S.S.R. Soviets of Working People's Deputies; *Trud*, newspaper of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions; *Komsomolskaya Pravda (Young Communists' Pravda)*, newspaper of the Central and Moscow Committees of the Young Communist League; *Literaturnaya Gazeta (Literary Gazette)* and several others.

In addition to the central; Republican, regional, area (in the National Areas) and district newspapers, there are a vast number of newspapers published by industrial enterprises,

construction jobs, State farms and higher schools.

There are no privately owned newspapers or magazines in the U.S.S.R.

All newspapers and magazines are published by public organisations (e.g. communist, trade union, youth, Soviet, writers' unions, etc.).

There are many newspapers published jointly by Ministries and the central committees of the corresponding trade unions, for example, *Uchitelskaya Gazeta (Teachers' Gazette)*, issued jointly by the Ministries of Education of the Union Republics and the central committees of the unions of workers of the primary, secondary and higher schools.

The Soviet Press gives a full picture of the life of the Soviet working people, of their heroic labour in building communism and of cultural progress. It devotes much space to world affairs, popularising the ideas of peace and friendship among the peoples of all races and nations.

The newspapers criticise without fear or favour incompetent executives who violate the fundamental laws of socialist society as defined by the Constitution.

The Soviet Press is a people's Press. It is of the people, by the people and for the people.

73.—What theatres are there?

THERE are more than 800 theatres and opera houses in the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet people take particular pride in the world famous Russian theatres whose art has attained an exceptionally high standard in our time. Foremost among these are the Moscow Arts Theatre, the Maly Theatre and the Bolshoi Opera and

Ballet Theatre in Moscow; the Pushkin Theatre and Kirov Opera and Ballet Theatre in Leningrad.

Many theatres founded since the October Revolution have also won immense popularity both in the U.S.S.R. and abroad.

The Vakhtangov Theatre and Central Theatre of the Soviet Army in Moscow, the Gorky Bolshoi Theatre in Leningrad, the Franko Ukrainian Theatre in Kiev, the Rust'haveli Georgian Theatre in Tbilisi are just a few of them.

Remarkable progress has been made under Soviet government by the theatres of the non-Russian nationalities. Performances are given in the U.S.S.R. in forty languages.

Dramatic art is developing also among the peoples to whom it was completely unknown before the October Revolution. For example, there are, at present more than thirty theatres in Kazakhstan, eighteen in Tajikistan and twelve in Kirghizia, none of which had any theatre before the Revolution.

In the Soviet Union the theatre truly belongs to the people. There is no regional centre without at least one permanent theatre. In addition, many district centres have touring companies which perform in out-of-the-way places, mainly before rural audiences.

There are special theatres for children in Moscow, Leningrad, Alma-Ata (Kazakhstan) and many other cities.

74.—What sort of plays, operas and ballets are produced?

THE repertory of Soviet theatres includes hundreds of plays, operas and ballets. It is sufficiently varied and rich to meet the demands and interests of Soviet audiences.

For illustration, let us take a look at the productions featured in Moscow on a typical day.

A prominent place is occupied by plays by Russian and foreign classical writers.

The Bolshoi Academic Theatre of the U.S.S.R. is featuring the opera *Boris Godunov*, a great work by the Russian composer Mussorgsky. The Affiliated Bolshoi Theatre is presenting Verdi's *La Traviata*.

And what of the plays? *Truth Is Good But Happiness is Better*, a comedy by A. N. Ostrovsky, great Russian playwright of the latter half of the 19th century, is on at the Maly. *Wit Works Woe*, the immortal comedy by Griboyedov, is at the Central Young Spectator Theatre. Gorky's *Lower Depths* is presented at the Moscow Arts Theatre, in whose repertory it has been a fixture for over half a century. *Krechinsky's Marriage*, an outstanding 19th Century Russian work by Sukhovo-Kobylin, is playing at the Central Transport Theatre. Shakespeare's *Othello* is at the Mossoviet Theatre, and *Ruy Blas*, based on Hugo's work, is at the Affiliated Maly Theatre.

The Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko Musical Theatre is featuring Offenbach's comic opera *La Belle Helene*.

The Soviet theatre is intimately connected with the daily life of the people. There is no current development of any significance that its productions do not reflect. The theatre helps to educate the Soviet people in the spirit of Soviet patriotism and internationalism, champions the ideas of humanity by showing the triumph of progressive ideas and morality. Many plays deal with the most burning problems of our time, and those problems which have confronted the Soviet people in the recent past.

A number of productions of this kind are being given on the day we have picked. Among them are recent plays by

Soviet authors. *The Unforgettable Year 1919*, by V. Vishnevsky (Central Theatre of the Soviet Army) is one. It deals with an important episode of the Soviet people's struggle and shows J. V. Stalin as military leader and organiser of the masses.

A. Surov's *Dawn Over Moscow* (Affiliated Mossoviet Theatre), shows the relations of people at home and at work against a background of important problems facing industry. Sergei Mikhalkov's *Ilya Golavin* (Affiliated Arts Theatre) is a play about a talented composer who is helped by comradely criticism to overcome shortcomings in his work. *On the Other Side* (presented on the Small Stage of the Central Theatre of the Soviet Army), is a play by the young playwright Baryanov, dealing with Soviet efforts to track down Japanese spies; and *Tanya* (Drama Theatre), by Arbuzov, has as its theme the selfless labour of Soviet people in remote goldfields.

The Lenin Komsomol Theatre is presenting *The Family*, a play about Lenin's youth. The Vakhtangov Drama Theatre is featuring *Kirill Izvekov*, a play based on Konstantin Fedin's famous book *No Ordinary Summer*. It deals with the struggle waged by the people of Russia in 1918 and 1919 against foreign intervention and Russian counter-revolutionaries.

A new Soviet operetta, *Akulina*, based on Pushkin's *Lady Rustic*, is at the Operetta Theatre. This is just an ordinary day in Moscow's theatrical life. The plays mentioned represent only a fraction of the repertory of the Soviet theatres.

75.—What films are most popular?

THE Soviet cinema has become an essential feature in the life of the Soviet people.

Soviet cinematography has produced stirring pictures which reproduce on the screen the greatest men of our times, Lenin and Stalin, and their comrades-in-arms. Such films include *Lenin in October*, *Lenin in 1918*, *The Man With the Gun*, *The Vow*, *The Defence of Tsaritsyn*, *Yakov Sverdlov*, *A Great Citizen*, etc.

Films based on the history of the people of the U.S.S.R. are also immensely popular with Soviet audiences. Among them are *Alexander Nevsky*, *Peter the Great*, *Ivan the Terrible*; *Minin and Pzharsky*, *Bagdan Khmelnitsky*, and *Georgi Saakadze*.

There are many biographical films about famous scientists, writers and others: *Pirogov*, *Academician Ivan Pavlov*, *Michurin*, *Deputy of the Baltic*, *Zhukavsky*, *Alexander Popov*, *Alisher Navoi*, *Rainis*, *Taras Shevchenko*; about celebrated army and navy commanders: *Suvarov*, *Kutuzav*, *Admiral Nakhtmov*; and about heroes of the Civil War of 1918-1920, such as *Chapayev*, *Shchors* and *Alexander Parkhamenka*.

Many outstanding Soviet films, produced in the twenties and thirties, are well-known outside the U.S.S.R. They include *Battleship Potemkin*, about the revolutionary uprising of Black Sea sailors in 1905, *Mother*, based on Gorky's novel; a film trilogy about Maxim, a young worker who became an ardent revolutionary and dedicated his life to the people's cause, and *Counter-Plan* and *Peasants*, picturing the early socialist changes in the U.S.S.R.

During the Great Patriotic War, Soviet cinematography produced remarkable films that were sources of inspiration to the people in the defence of the honour and freedom of their country.

Among such pictures are *The Rainbow*, *The Russian People*, *She Defends Her Country*, *Secretary of the District*

Party Committee, Zoya, The Unbowed, Invasion, Alexander Matrosov and The Third Blow.

The heroism displayed by the Soviet people in the last war is pictured in the two-part films *The Young Guard, The Battle of Stalingrad* and *The Fall of Berlin*, which extol the victory of the forces of democracy and humanity over German Nazism.

Post-war Soviet films portray heroic builders of the new life, the people at work. *A Tale of Siberia, Kuban Cossacks* and *The Great Force* were on the screen for many months.

There is no glorification in Soviet films of eroticism, reactionary ideas, or spiritual corruption. Soviet films do not appeal to the baser instincts of backward people.

Soviet films have won first places in various sections and the largest number of prizes at all the international film festivals held since the war in France, Italy and Czechoslovakia.

Over 100 full-length, documentary and popular science films have been awarded Stalin Prizes.

76.—How is the Soviet Writers' Union organised? What are its functions?

THE Soviet Writers' Union has in its ranks more than 3,000 writers, coming from all the nationalities in the U.S.S.R.

The Union is an influential public organisation. "Engineers of the human soul", J. V. Stalin called Soviet writers, and Soviet citizens willingly listen to their writers, who truthfully portray their life, the life of Soviet society.

Soviet writers depict in their works the high moral qualities of Soviet people, their efforts for the further prosperity and strength of their motherland, for peace and friendship among

the nations and for the happiness of the people throughout the world.

In this way Soviet writers, by their creative art, help to educate the people in the spirit of the most progressive ideas of modern times — the spirit of communism.

Soviet writers take an active part in the country's peace movement, and the poet Nikolai Tikhonov) s President of the Soviet Peace Committee.

The Socialist Revolution has given rise to a number of national literatures. The Adygei, for instance, a small people of no more than 90,000 who had no written language before the Revolution, now have their own writers. The Kyurins (a Lezghian tribe) whose language is spoken by only about 30,000 people, have produced the outstanding poet Suleiman Stalsky, called by Maxim Gorky "The Homer of the 20th Century".

Like all other Soviet public organisations, the Writers' Union is based on the federal principle of organisation. The national Writers' Unions of the Union and Autonomous Republics and National Areas are affiliated to the Soviet Writers' Union. The Union is headed by an executive board, elected by secret ballot at all-Union writers' congresses.

The Union's work is many-sided. It has sections devoted to prose works, poetry, drama, science fiction; feature writing, and commissions for work with writers of the various nationalities and writers of children's books.

The Soviet Writers' Union maintains a large book publishing house. It also publishes a number of literary magazines in Moscow, Leningrad and other cities — *Novy Mir*, *Oktyabr*, *Zvezda*, *Znamya*, *Sibirskiye Ogni*, *Dalni Vostok*, etc. — and several newspapers — *Literaturnaya Gazeta*, *Literatura i Mistetstvo* (the latter in the Ukrainian language) and others.

77.—What publishing houses are there? Do they publish many books?

THERE are over 220 large publishing houses in the U.S.S.R. Most of them confine themselves to the publication of literature covering a definite range of questions: fiction, books on agriculture and geography, medical books, textbooks and books on the various fields of technology, etc.

There are large independent publishing houses run by the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, the Soviet Writers' 'Union, the All Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

The Molodaya Gvardia Publishing House, run by the Young Communist League, puts out books for young people. Books for children of various ages are published by the State Publishing House of Children's Literature.

There are publishing houses in each Republic and in most of the regions, and among them they publish books in the languages of all the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

Apart from the big central and local publishing houses, there are many publishing organisations attached to universities and other higher educational establishments, scientific institutes and societies. Moscow alone has about 540 such publishing offices, whose total output runs into thousands of titles annually.

Literature is published in the U.S.S.R. in 119 languages. Along with books in the languages of all the nations, national groups and nationalities inhabiting the U.S.S.R., Soviet publishing houses put out books in English, French, German, Spanish and other foreign languages.

Books have become available to the mass of the working people in the U.S.S.R. More than 970,000 books with a total print of 12,500 million copies were published in the U.S.S.R.

between 1918 and 1950.

Whereas the number of copies of books published annually in tsarist Russia averaged 7 for every 10 people, the U.S.S.R. had already before the war brought the figure up to 41. Editions now average 20,000 copies, against 3,300 in 1913.

Books published in 1950 had a total printing 84 per cent. over and above the pre-war year 1940.

Much attention is devoted to the publication of political, social and economic literature. The tremendous interest in political literature may be judged from the fact that in 13 years the *History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) —Short Course*, written by J. V. Stalin, has sold 40 million copies in 61 languages.

Recent years have seen the appearance of the fourth edition of V. I. Lenin's Collected Works in 35 volumes, and 13 volumes of J. V. Stalin's Collected Works.

Works of fiction by classical authors as well as the best books of contemporary Soviet and foreign authors are issued in enormous editions.

In Soviet years, sixty million copies of works of the great Russian poet Pushkin have been printed in 80 languages of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. Gogol's works have been printed in over 20 million copies in 38 languages. Of Leo Tolstoy's, 44 million have been printed in 71 languages. Gorky's have been issued in 60 million copies in 71 languages; and Mikhail Sholokhov's in 18 million copies in 53 languages.

78.—What books by foreign authors are published in the U.S.S.R.?

THE Soviet Government spares no effort to make the best

productions of the human mind available to all the people. Works by Democritus, Aristotle, Voltaire, Diderot, Helvetius, Holbach, Spinoza, Descartes, Feuerbach, Darwin, Newton, Einstein and many others are published in the U.S.S.R. in editions running into tens of thousands.

Foreign classical works have a wide circulation in the U.S.S.R. Between 1917 and 1948 books by French authors were published in editions totalling more than 48 million copies. Books by American authors were published in editions totalling 40 million and by British authors in editions totalling 27 million copies.

Many books by foreign authors have been published in the U.S.S.R. in larger editions than in their own countries.

Between 1918 and 1951 the works of Victor Hugo were published in editions totalling more than 6,500,000 copies in 41 languages of the people of the U.S.S.R.

Guy de Maupassant's books went over 4,700,000, and Balzac, Romain Rolland, Barbusse, Zola and Dickens sold more than three million each.

Shakespeare's works have been published in 20 languages, in editions totalling 2,178,000 copies, and Wells' and Kipling's in prints of three million copies each. Editions of Heine's works exceed 1,400,000 copies.

Soviet publishing houses regularly issue the best American literary productions. Jack London's books have been published in 29 languages of the U.S.S.R. in editions totalling more than 12 million copies. Mark Twain's works have been published in 22 languages, with a total of 4,717,000 copies. The works of Fenimore Cooper, Seton-Thompson, O. Henry, Theodore Dreiser, Howard Fast and other American authors have also been published in large editions.

79.—How is broadcasting organised in the U.S.S.R.?

IN 1895 the great Russian scientist, A. S. Popov, invented radio transmission. This invention opened up a new era in the history of science and engineering. Marconi, who entered the field much later than Popov, tried to secure the credit for this discovery. In 1900 Popov was awarded a Gold Medal and diploma at the International Technical Exhibition in Paris for his radio station.

In 1908 an international commission of experts, including Sir Oliver Lodge, confirmed that A. S. Popov was the inventor of wireless.

In 1919, a broadcasting service was inaugurated by the Nizhny Novgorod radio laboratory, founded under a decree signed by V. I. Lenin, making the U.S.S.R. the first country in the world to institute such a service.

The Soviet people have, therefore, every right to consider their country the birthplace of radio.

The Soviet broadcasting service has a large network of powerful stations operating on long, medium and short waves. Broadcasts are given in the languages of all the peoples inhabiting the U.S.S.R.

In addition to radio sets, Soviet citizens have the benefit of the relay service maintained in towns and rural areas. Under this system broadcasts may be heard by plugging in a loudspeaker. Big theatres, concert halls and stadiums have special installations for broadcasting plays, concerts, news, sports contests, etc.

Television has made great headway in recent years. The television stations transmit popular films and performances given in Moscow theatres.

The principal broadcasting stations of the U.S.S.R. conduct about 70 different broadcasts simultaneously. The Republican and regional stations broadcast their own programmes.

The Soviet broadcasting forum is open to representatives of public organisations and to ordinary citizens for talks on any subject.

There is no commercial broadcasting in the U.S.S.R. Radio is the property of the people, serving the noble aim of enlightening the masses and promoting the cause of peace.

80.—How many and what kind of libraries exist?

THERE are 350,000 libraries in the U.S.S.R., with a total of more than 700 million volumes on their shelves. All of them are free.

In 1914 tsarist Russia had 12,500 libraries in all.

The Lenin State Public Library of Moscow with more than 14 million volumes and bound sets of newspapers and magazines, and the Saltykov-Shchedrin State Public Library of Leningrad with 10 million volumes are the biggest of their kind in the world.

These and other big libraries (in Tashkent, Tbilisi, Yerevan, and other cities), in addition to books, have rich collections of manuscripts and other important literary monuments of various times and peoples.

More than forty big libraries by law receive a free copy of every book, magazine and newspaper that comes off the press anywhere in the U.S.S.R. In order to enable people in the provinces to avail themselves of the treasures of culture assembled in the biggest book collections, there is a special inter-library subscription service through which local libraries

may borrow from the central libraries rare books for temporary use.

City and district libraries are maintained and stocked entirely by money provided from the State Budget. They include children's libraries catering for children of pre-school age and schoolchildren of all ages, as well as specialised scientific and technical libraries.

Besides these, there are many libraries maintained by trade unions at clubs, and at factories and offices. And there is a chain of collective farm libraries which is constantly growing. Tremendous progress has been made in Soviet years in extending and enriching the system of libraries. The trade union library at the Molotov Motor Works in Gorky, for instance, has 115,000 volumes and thousands of borrowers, whereas before the Revolution all the libraries of the whole region in which Gorky stands had only 103,000 books altogether.

81.—What museums are there?

THERE are historical, regional studies and natural science museums and picture galleries in every big town and in many district centres of the U.S.S.R. Altogether, there are over a thousand museums in the country.

The Lenin Museum in Moscow has thousands of visitors daily. Its collection of documents and other exhibits mirrors the life and work of the great founder of the Soviet State. The museum has branches in a number of towns.

People from all parts of the country travel to see the little house in Gori (Georgia), where J. V. Stalin was born and spent his boyhood.

In response to popular desire, the Soviet State has converted into museums the homes and estates of celebrated public figures and statesmen, writers, musicians, artists and scientists.

Leo Tolstoy's estate in Yasnaya Polyana; Tchaikovsky's home at Klin, near Moscow; the places associated with Pushkin—"Pushkin places", as they are called—in the village of Mikhailovskoye; the home of K. E. Tsiolkovsky in Kaluga, and many others are all museums now.

The palaces of the tsars, and the famous estates at Ostankino, Arkhangelskoye and Kuskovo, typical of the 17th-19th Centuries are also open to the public.

The pride of the Soviet people is the world's largest collection of paintings, sculptures and monuments of the life and customs of all ages and peoples, preserved in the halls of the Hermitage Museum in Leningrad. There are remarkable collections of Russian paintings and sculptures in the Tretyakov Picture Galleries in Moscow and in the Russian Museum in Leningrad.

There is a wealth of rare exhibits in the historical museums the biggest among them being the Museum of History, the Museum of the Revolution and the Soviet Army Museum in Moscow, and the Naval Museum in Leningrad.

The big natural science museums, devoted to mineralogy, archaeology, ethnography, the history of science and technology, etc., and maintained by the scientific institutions and universities are similarly open to the public.

Admission to museums is usually free. Where a fee is charged, it is nominal. There are competent guides and scientific consultants at the service of visitors to the museums.

82.—What cultural institutions are there in Soviet villages?

THERE are 150,000 clubs, libraries and reading rooms, and more than 4,000 district Houses of Culture in rural localities in the U.S.S.R. All these institutions are conducting extensive cultural and educational activities among the people. They sponsor literary, amateur art and other circles. There are about half a million members in amateur dramatic societies in the villages of the Russian Federation alone, not to mention other amateur art circles.

As compared with 1940, the number of village clubs in the R.S.F.S.R. has increased more than threefold.

Lecture bureaus have been opened since the war in many villages. They arrange popular science lectures and talks on world affairs for collective farmers. Lectures are delivered by local people or by visiting lecturers.

In 1950 there were 10,000 such lecture bureaus in the Ukraine alone, with about 100,000 specialists in various fields as lecturers.

83.—What interest is there in sports?

MILLIONS of people in the U.S.S.R. go in for sports. Among them are to be round workers and collective farmers, schoolchildren and scientists, writers and artists, in fact people of every trade and profession and of every age. Year by year the membership of sports organisations. grows. In 1950 alone it grew by three million.

The Soviet Government spends large sums to assist the physical culture movement, to build stadiums, swimming pools, gymnasiums and to layout sports grounds.

The U.S.S.R. has over 800 large stadiums, and there are tens of thousands of smaller stadiums, and swimming pools, etc. at factories, collective farms and educational establishments. The use of all of them is free.

A great number of contests are held in the Soviet Union yearly in every branch of sport.

Soviet athletes are organised in sports societies, the most popular of which are Dynamo, Spartak and Central House of the Soviet Army.

The trade unions' sports societies—Zenith (engineers), Locomotive (railwaymen), Torpedo (motor workers), Wings of the Soviets (aircraft builders)—and Labour Reserves and many other societies are well-known for their sporting prowess.

Rural sports societies in the Union Republics have a membership of over two million. Among the collective farm sportsmen are many fine skiing, cycling and track and field athletes who have been awarded the coveted title of U.S.S.R. Master of Sports.

At the time of writing Soviet sportsmen hold 70 world records in various sports. In 1951 alone they established 521 U.S.S.R. records, 38 of which improved on world records.

The Soviet Union holds first place in the world in chess (men and women), volleyball (men), speed skating (women). Nine Soviet track and field athletes, the U.S.S.R. women's volleyball team and the men's and women's basketball teams are champions of Europe.

There are 13 institutes and 39 special physical culture secondary schools which prepare physical culture and sports instructors and many educational institutes and schools have special faculties or departments for this purpose.

Physical culture and sports in the U.S.S.R. are an important means for the all-round development of the moral and physical

stamina of the Soviet people.

84.—Are there professional athletes in the U.S.S.R.?

THE Soviet Union has no professional athletes. Soviet sportsmen do not commercialise their abilities or act in an individualistic way. They are people who devote their leisure hours to sports of their own choice.

All Soviet athletes belong to sports societies and clubs and take part in the mass competitions, matches and tournaments as representatives of these societies.

85.—How popular are amateur art, music, drama, dancing etc.?

SUCH amateur activities are immensely popular in the U.S.S.R. There is no club, House of Culture, factory or collective farm without its dramatic group, choir, music group or dancing society.

There are more than 200,000 such amateur circles in the U.S.S.R., with over four million members. In 1950 amateur concerts' and performances numbered half a million, and they were attended by a hundred million persons.

The repertoires of the dramatic clubs include Russian and foreign classical plays (Ostrovsky, Gorky, Chekhov, Shakespeare, Lope de Vega, Moliere and Scribe are popular) and the best plays of modern Soviet dramatists.

At amateur concerts one may frequently hear the symphonies of Tchaikovsky and Beethoven, works by Glinka

and Rimsky-Korsakov, Chopin and Liszt, and many other composers, and national songs of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

Professional actors and musicians give substantial help to the amateurs, theatres and individual actors becoming “patrons” of particular circles.

86.—How do actors, dancers, singers, etc., get their training in the U.S.S.R.?

GIFTED children showing a talent for a particular field of art receive a secondary education in special schools where, alongside the general subjects, they are given initial training in their chosen field—violin, piano, the ballet, etc. There are several hundred schools of this type in the U.S.S.R.

Over a hundred schools train art workers, giving them a specialised secondary education (theatre, music and other schools). Some of these schools operate under the auspices of the biggest theatres, orchestral societies and film studios.

Twenty-two conservatoires train singers, musicians, composers, conductors and music scholars, providing them with a complete higher education in their speciality. The largest and longest established of these are the conservatoires in Moscow and Leningrad.

These two conservatoires help other music schools, and especially those in the non-Russian Republics.

They have special studios training musicians and other artists for the Union and Autonomous Republics.

Actors, theatrical producers and cinema workers are trained in institutes of theatrical art and cinematography. There are special schools and colleges to train painters, graphic artists and sculptors. In Leningrad there is an Academy of Arts.

Many outstanding actors, musicians and others obtained their start in amateur art circles. People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. Nikolai Bogolyubov of the Moscow Arts Theatre, for instance, and People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. Sergei Lemeshev, the well-known operatic tenor.

87.—What are Palaces of Culture and Parks of Culture and Rest?

“PALACE of Culture” is the name given to the huge clubs attached to big factories or serving large industrial districts. They are run by the trade unions.

The Palace of Culture of the Magnitogorsk Iron and Steel Works, for instance, has an auditorium, a library with over 170,000 volumes, an engineering hall and a lecture hall equipped with a cinema installation. Many amateur art circles carry on their activities at the Palace, and rooms are specially equipped for children's activities.

Parks of Culture and Rest are to be found in cities and towns, at State and collective farms. They provide plenty of facilities for wholesome recreation. Most parks have sports and amusement grounds, and stage films, plays and concerts.

Best known of these parks is the Gorky Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow. Situated on the Moskva River, it covers 297 hectares (considerably more than a square mile). In the summer months it is visited daily by tens of thousands of Muscovites.

88.—What changes have taken place in the appearance of Soviet towns?

THE great socialist changes which have been carried out in the U.S.S.R. are strikingly reflected in the appearance of Soviet towns. Since the Revolution 1,280 towns have been reconstructed, and some 400 new towns built.

In the Far East, in the taiga on the Amur River, stands the city of Komsomolsk. Twenty years ago the first builders arrived on the site. Now this city has factories and mills, 36 schools, 16 clubs, 30 libraries, a theatre, a Palace of Culture, 11 hospitals, a stadium and two Parks of Culture and Rest.

It is only 15 years ago that on the waste, uninhabited coast of the White Sea, near an ancient abandoned monastery” the city of Molotovsk was founded. Now it is a modern city, the second largest in Arkhangel Region.

Beyond the Arctic Circle, in the heart of the Khibiny tundra, stands the new town of Kirovsk. Also in the Arctic, and practically as far north, stand the big towns of Vorkuta, Norilsk and Igarka.

In the foothills of Mount Magnitnaya, in the Southern Urals, the city of Magnitogorsk has been built, one of the largest and most modern cities in the U.S.S.R.

Scores of big, new towns have been built in Siberia, among them Stalinsk, Kemerovo, Prokopyevsk and Leninsk-Kuznetsky.

Housing construction in Soviet towns is proceeding on an enormous scale. In 1951 alone, for instance, residential buildings put up in cities and industrial settlements, had a floor

space of 27 million square metres (290 million square feet*).

Moscow, and the capital cities of the Union Republics—Tbilisi, Riga, Kiev, Tashkent, etc.—are becoming the most beautiful cities in the world.

Sixteen years ago, a plan was approved for the reconstruction of Moscow; it had been drawn up on the initiative and under the guidance of J. V. Stalin. Now much of the plan has been put into effect.

From the heart of the city—the Red Square and the Kremlin—new wide streets, with tall, handsome buildings have been laid out. Around the factories new and improved districts have replaced the old, narrow suburban streets. In 1949 and 1950 alone, residential buildings with some one million square metres (about 10,500,000 square feet) of having floor space were put up in Moscow.

In 1951 construction of very high buildings began on a large scale.

Moscow has the best designed underground railway in the world.

In the Soviet Union, the development and improvement of the towns is included in the State national economic plan. The U.S.S.R. Council of Ministers has a special State Committee on Construction.

Many scientific research institutes and the Academy of Municipal Economy are working on problems of city improvement. There are a number of higher educational

* Kitchens, sculleries, lavatories, bathrooms, halls and passageways are excluded in Soviet figures of living floor space (*see answer* No. 55).

institutions preparing architects and engineers specialising in municipal construction.

89.—What Government Decorations are there?

FOR outstanding services in the sphere of socialist construction, or defence of the Soviet State, individual citizens, collective bodies and military units are awarded Orders or Medals of the U.S.S.R. These awards are made by decrees of the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet.

In the first years of the Soviet State, two Orders were instituted, the Order of the Red Banner, for outstanding military feats, and the Order of the Red Banner of Labour for notable labour achievements. Subsequently the Order of Lenin, the Soviet Union's highest Order, was introduced, followed by the Orders of the Red Star and of the Badge of Honour.

During the Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945, the Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Supreme Soviet established a number of new Orders, to be awarded for distinguished service in the struggle for the honour, freedom and independence of the Soviet Union.

Among these are the Order of Victory, awarded to the High Command; the Order of Suvorov, First, Second and Third Class; the Order of Ushakov, First and Second Class; the Order of Kutuzov, First, Second and Third Class; the Order of Nakhimov, First and Second Class; the Order of Bogdan Khmelnitsky, First, Second and Third Class; the Order of Alexander Nevsky; the Order of the Patriotic War, First and Second Class; and the Order of Glory, First, Second and Third Class.

Each Soviet Order has its special statute.

In addition to the Orders, the U.S.S.R. has established 27

different Medals. Among them are the “For Distinguished Labour”, the “For Labour Valour”, the “For Merit in Battle”, and the “For Bravery” Medals. Special Medals were awarded to those who took part in the defence of Moscow and the Hero Cities of Leningrad, Stalingrad, Sevastopol and Odessa.

Awards of Medals of the U.S.S.R. are also made by decrees of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

In 1944 the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. instituted Orders and Medals for mothers of large families. The “Mother Heroine Order” is awarded to mothers who have raised ten children. There are also the “Order of Motherhood Glory”, First, Second and Third Class, and the “Motherhood Medal”, First and Second Class.

For heroic deeds, the title of Hero of the Soviet Union is conferred upon Soviet citizens. Persons on whom this title is conferred receive the Order of Lenin and the “Gold Star” Medal.

For distinguished achievements in their work, citizens of the U.S.S.R. receive the title of Hero of Socialist Labour. Those awarded this high title receive the Order of Lenin and a gold “Hammer and Sickle” Medal, in addition to the title award certificate.

90.—What are Stalin Prizes? Who gets them and how are they awarded?

STALIN PRIZES were instituted in 1939 in honour of the sixtieth birthday of J. V. Stalin, great continuer of the cause of Lenin and organiser of the historic, victories of the Soviet State, the leader and teacher of the Soviet people.

They are awarded for distinguished service in the fields of

science, invention, literature and art. They are in three classes, each including a large cash award.

Winners of these Prizes receive the title of Stalin Prize-winner and are given a gold and silver badge embossed with a portrait head of J. V. Stalin.

In the competition for Stalin Prizes, scientific works, inventions, achievements of inn avatars in industry, new designs, literary works, musical compositions, theatrical productions and films are entered. They are submitted for consideration, by scientific organisations, Ministries, the Unions of Soviet writers, composers and artists, and by public organisations.

All items submitted are thoroughly examined by Stalin Prize Committees on which hundreds of renowned and representative Soviet intellectuals serve.

The works approved by the Stalin Prize Committee are submitted for the consideration of the U.S.S.R. Council of Ministers. Awards are made annually by decisions of the Council of Ministers.

Many prizes are awarded to groups (for joint scientific work or inventions, production of plays, films, etc.).

Over 6,500 persons were awarded Stalin Prizes during the five years 1946 to 1950.

Among the Stalin Prize-winners, side by side with great scientists whose works are widely known abroad, are hundreds of rank-and-file workers and peasants whose constructive contributions have enriched various spheres of industry.

91.— What is the Young Communist League?

THE Lenin Young Communist League of the Soviet Union, or Komsomol, as it is known for short, is the mass

organisation of advanced Soviet youth. It was organised in 1918 at a congress of representatives of young workers' and young peasants' leagues. It now has over twelve million members.

Although a non-Party organisation, the Komsomol maintains close ties with the Communist Party, working under the latter's leadership. It added "Lenin" to its name in 1924 after the death of the great founder of the Soviet State.

The Komsomol admits to membership youths and girls from 14 to 26, who accept its rules and programme, and express a desire to work in one of its organisations.

Komsomol organisations are set up in factories, on State and collective farms, in institutions, schools and higher educational establishments. To form a branch in any particular enterprise, there must be at least three members of the League.

All leading bodies—from the primary organisation committee to the Central Committee—are elected by secret ballot at meetings, conferences or congresses.

The main task set itself by the Komsomol is to educate its members and the broad masses of the youth in the spirit of devotion to the cause of Lenin and Stalin.

The Komsomol takes an active part in the country's political life, thus preparing young reserves for every sphere of State, public and cultural development in the Soviet Union.

Very often Komsomol organisations initiate valuable under-takings that are of importance to the entire country. During the first Five-Year Plan, for instance, the Komsomol was one of the chief initiators of socialist emulation among the working people.

Representing as it does the interests of the youth, the Komsomol deservedly enjoys great prestige. It has been given the right to take up direct with Government or individual

Ministries, questions of work, education, cultural services and problems of everyday life of interest to the young people.

The Komsomol organisations have their own clubs and libraries, publishing houses, newspapers and a great number of juvenile and children's magazines. The combined circulation of all newspapers published by the Komsomol reaches four million.

For distinguished services rendered the country the Komsomol has been awarded high decorations. It has been awarded the Order of Lenin twice, the Order of the Red Banner and the Order of the Red Banner of Labour.

The Komsomol is affiliated to the World Federation of Democratic Youth.

92.—Who are the Young Pioneers?

YOUNG Pioneers is the name given to schoolchildren who belong to the Lenin Young Pioneers, a mass children's organisation uniting nineteen million boys and girls between nine and fourteen years of age.

The main function of the Young Pioneers is to help the school and teachers. By their study and conduct Young Pioneers serve as an example for other schoolchildren to follow.

All kinds of clubs flourish in Young Pioneer organisations: Young Technicians, Radio Amateurs, Aircraft Modellers, Young Naturalists, Book Friends and Amateur Art circles are just a few. All over the country are to be found Houses of Young Pioneers, Young Pioneer parks and sports grounds.

In summer time, millions of Young Pioneers go out to camps, make special tours, or go on excursions to see the

country.

Through all of its varied and absorbing work, the Young Pioneer organisation inculcates in the children a conscious attitude towards study, discipline and labour, physical endurance, honesty and truthfulness, a sense of comradeship, respect for elders, and accustoms them to socially useful activities.

93.—Why is there only one political party?

THE communist Party is the only political party in the U.S.S.R.

The fact that there is only one party in the country follows from the very nature of Soviet socialist society.

In the Soviet Union there is no bourgeoisie, there are no landlords or *kulaks*. In other words, there are no people living on the exploitation and robbery of the labour of others.

Only two Classes remain in the U.S.S.R., the workers and peasants, and their interests are not in conflict but are identical. There are, therefore, no grounds in the Soviet Union for the existence of a number of parties. There is a basis for one party only. This sole political organisation of the Soviet people is the Communist Party of the Soviet Union.

In the course of the last 50 years the peoples of the Soviet Union tested in practice all the main parties which existed in Russia. The party of the landlords (Black-Hundreds), the party of the capitalists (Constitutional-Democrats—Kadets), the party of the Mensheviks (Right-wing “Socialists”), the party of the defenders of the *kulaks* (Socialist-Revolutionaries), and the party of the Communists.

When they had become convinced that the Communist

Party was the only genuine people's party, the only one which fearlessly and completely defended the interests of the workers and peasants, they rejected all bourgeois parties and chose the Communist Party.

In the Soviet Union the Party and the people have become a mighty united force.

94.—What is the role of the Communist Party in the U.S.S.R.?

THE communist Party is the main, directing force of the Soviet people and the Soviet State.

The development of the socialist society which has been built in the U.S.S.R. is directed by the Soviet State, in which the working class plays the leading part. But the working Class cannot exercise the State leadership of society without having a vanguard armed with Marxist-Leninist theory.

This vanguard of the working class is the Communist Party. The working class needs the Party, not merely to gain power, but also to retain power, to consolidate it and use it to build communist society.

Article 126 of the Soviet Constitution has given legislative force to the leading role of the Party in the Soviet State.

The Article states that "the most active and politically—conscious citizens in the ranks of the working Class and other sections of the working people unite in the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), which is the vanguard of the working people in their struggle to strengthen and develop the socialist system and is the leading core of all organisations of the working people, both public and state."

Leadership by the Party is the most important condition for

the existence and development of the Soviet State, the source of its strength and power.

In what way is the Party's leading role in the Soviet State expressed?

In that the Party determines what direction the entire activity of all State and public bodies is to take.

J. V. Stalin has noted that the highest expression of the Party's leading role in the Soviet State is the fact that no important political or organisational question is decided by any government body or mass organisation without guidance from the Party.

In directing the activities of the Soviet State, the Party does not replace the State or public organisations. It puts forward its line through these organisations, that is through the Soviets, trade unions, the Young Communist League, collective farms, co-operatives, etc. These organisations, which embrace tens of millions of people, accept the leadership of the Communist Party and carry out its policy because the working people of the U.S.S.R. have learned from their own experience that the Party is their reliable guide, leader and teacher.

The Soviet people have accepted the Communist Party as their very own. They have a deep affection for it and devotedly support it. The great objective of the Communist Party—the building of communist society—has become the objective of the entire Soviet people.

95.—Wherein lies the strength of the Communist Party?

THE strength of the Communist Party consists, firstly in that it is armed with advanced revolutionary Marxist-Leninist

theory. "The role of vanguard can be fulfilled only by a party that is guided by the most advanced theory", is what V. I. Lenin, founder of the Party, has said.

Marxist-Leninist theory helps the Party to orientate itself in any situation, to discern how and in what direction society, classes and events are moving.

Knowledge of the laws of the development of society enables the Communist Party scientifically to foresee the course of events, to outline and carry through the correct policy, and to direct the course of events in the interests of the working people.

Marxist-Leninist theory helps the Party unerringly to lead the Soviet people to communism, to surmount all barriers on the road to that goal.

The strength of the Communist Party consists, secondly, in the unbreakable unity of its tanks and in that it is inseparable from the people.

The Party constantly strengthens its ties with the working people, listens to what they have to say, understands their needs, and not only teaches them but also learns from them.

That is why the Communist Party enjoys the utmost confidence of the working people. For, having learned in practice that the Communist Party fights for the happiness of the people, they trust and follow it. Its inseparable ties with the working people are the source of the Communist Party's invincibility.

96.—What is meant by Criticism and Self Criticism?

IN the Soviet socialist State, in which the workers, peasants and intellectuals are themselves masters of their

country, all working people are equally interested in having all their institutions and organisations, their industrial enterprises and collective farms, work well, so that, day by day, they provide more material and cultural values for the people.

That is why, at their meetings and conferences, at sessions of the Soviets and in the newspapers, the Soviet people, both communists and non-communists, expose in a forthright way defects in the work of State institutions or public enterprises, and criticise poor leaders. They also view their own work critically.

This critical attitude towards the activity of government officials, deputies to the Soviets, towards the work of fellow workers and towards their own work, Soviet people call Bolshevik criticism and self-criticism.

Criticism and self-criticism are called Bolshevik because the slogan of criticism and self-criticism was launched by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union—the Bolshevik Party, the Party of Lenin and Stalin.

Criticism and self-criticism have always been and are now methods applied by the Party in its daily work. And, since in the U.S.S.R. communists and non-Party people have the same tasks, and one and the same goal—the building of, communist society—these methods used by the Party in its work have become the daily working methods of all Soviet people.

Speaking on the role of criticism and self-criticism in Soviet society, J. V. Stalin has said:

“We want to move forward. And precisely because we want to move forward we must make honest and revolutionary self-criticism one of our most important tasks. Without this there is no moving forward. Without this there is no development.”

Criticism and self-criticism have become a great force in

the development of Soviet society. Fortright criticism of defects in work prompts Soviet people not to be satisfied with their success not to become set, but always to go forward, to develop their socialist economy.

Criticism and self-criticism help to enlist millions of working people to take part in the solution of important problems of State, develop their activity and inculcate in them the feeling that they are the masters of the country.

By availing themselves of this opportunity to criticise openly defects in work, the working people become active participants in guiding the country and its economy.

Criticism, by the broad masses, of inferior work of State economic and public organisations is a vivid illustration of the genuine democracy of the Soviet socialist system.

The spirit of criticism and self-criticism pervades the entire work of the Communist Party, the Soviets and all organisations of the working people of the U.S.S.R.

97. —What are socialist nations?

THE Soviet Union is a multi-national State. It is made up of more than sixty nations, national groups and nationalities.

Before the establishment of Soviet government, in the days of tsarism, many of these nationalities were not recognised as such. Their culture was degraded and their language suppressed. Under the tsarist heel, many nationalities were dying out.

The Great October Socialist Revolution and the socialist changes that have followed, have fundamentally altered the position of the nationalities in the U.S.S.R. Socialism brought emancipation to all the nations and nationalities of the U.S.S.R.

and guaranteed them free national development.

As a result of the abolition of the exploiting classes and the victory of the socialist system, the former nations have become new, socialist nations.

In what way are the present, socialist, nations, different from the nations that existed in pre-Revolutionary Russia?

The former nations were bourgeois nations, for their chief leading force was the bourgeoisie and its nationalist parties. The bourgeoisie and its nationalist parties preached class “peace” within their nations in order to strengthen the rule of the exploiting classes. They tried to expand the territory of their nation by seizing the territories of other nations. They sowed distrust of and hatred for other nations, suppressed national minorities and worked in close alliance with the imperialists. This is what the old bourgeois nations were like.

The make-up of the socialist nations of the Soviet Union is quite different.

The main leading force of these nations is the working class and its internationalist Communist Party, which are the foes of national oppression of any kind.

Alliance between workers and peasants so that communism may be built triumphantly; abolition of the relics of national oppression and nationalism so that the nations may be equal and may develop freely and friendship may be knit between the peoples, and internationalism firmly established; a united front with all oppressed nations in the struggle against wars of annexation and against imperialism—such is the complexion of socialist nations.

The socialist nations of the U.S.S.R. are far more united and viable than any bourgeois nation. Socialist nations are free from class contradictions, which corrode bourgeois nations, for under socialism there are no exploiters and hence no hostile

classes.

Whereas the relations between bourgeois nations are characterised by mutual distrust and enmity, the relations between socialist nations are distinguished for their friendship and co-operation.

The peoples of the U.S.S.R. are one friendly family, and the friendship of the peoples gives the Soviet multi-national State the greatest stability. As far back as 1936 in describing the changes that had taken place in the national relations in the U.S.S.R., J. V. Stalin said:

“The absence of exploiting classes, which are the principal organisers 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 the foe 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 among the peoples has been established within the system of a single federated state.”

The socialist nations of the U.S.S.R. are building communism in their country, on the basis of all-round co-operation and mutual aid, and of planned development of the economy and culture of all Soviet peoples. That is why all nations and nationalities of the U.S.S.R. have made tremendous progress in their political, economic and cultural development.

98.—What is Soviet patriotism?

LOVE for one's country is called patriotism. Patriotism is inherent in the working people of any nation. History shows that only the working classes—the workers and peasants—and the progressive intelligentsia, are really patriots, for all the material and spiritual wealth of a country is created by their labour.

Soviet men and women are ardent patriots. They love their country and are devoted to their Soviet motherland. The Soviet people's patriotism blossomed out particularly as a result of the victory of socialism in the U.S.S.R., following the elimination of the exploiting classes and the abolition of exploitation of man by man.

The Patriotic War of the Soviet Union against the fascist aggressors showed that Soviet men and women are ever ready to fight to the last drop of blood for the freedom and independence of their socialist motherland.

During the war the patriotism of Soviet men and women was revealed by the heroic deeds performed both at the front and in the rear.

But love for their country and selfless labour to strengthen it, are not all that there is to Soviet patriotism. This patriotism is of a new and higher type.

Soviet people are not only *patriots*, but are *internationalists* also. They are not merely devoted to their country: they also respect the freedom and independence of the peoples of all races and nations.

Soviet patriotism includes recognition of equality for all nations, large and small. That is why Soviet people always uphold the State sovereignty of all peoples at international conferences, particularly in the United Nations. The policy of

aggression and suppression of the national sovereignty of other nations is profoundly foreign and hateful to them.

J. V. Stalin, the builder of the friendship of the peoples, characterised the specific feature of Soviet patriotism as follows:

“The strength of Soviet patriotism lies in the fact that it is based not on racial or nationalistic prejudices but upon the profound devotion and loyalty of the people to their Soviet Motherland, on the fraternal co-operation of the working people of all the nations inhabiting our country. Soviet patriotism is a harmonious blend of the national traditions of the peoples and the common vital interests of all the working people of the Soviet Union. Soviet patriotism does not disunite but unites all the nations and nationalities inhabiting our country in a single fraternal family. This should be regarded as the basis of the indestructible and ever-growing friendship that exists among the peoples of the Soviet Union. At the same time, the peoples of the U.S.S.R. respect the rights and independence of the peoples of foreign countries and have always shown their readiness to live in peace and friendship with neighbouring countries.”

That is the essence of Soviet patriotism.

99.—What is the dictatorship of the proletariat?

THE dictatorship of the proletariat is the State power of the working class that is established in a country after the overthrow of the power of the bourgeoisie. It continues throughout the period of the transition of society from capitalism to communism. During this transition period the working class, which is at the helm of State power, performs

the following tasks:

1. It suppresses the overthrown exploiting classes in their attempts to re-establish their power, and it organises the country's defence so as to protect it from sudden attacks on the part of capitalist States.

2. It establishes and consolidates the friendly alliance with the working peasantry and other masses exploited under capitalism, drawing these masses into the work of building socialist society, exercising State guidance of these masses, enlisting them to take an active part in administering the country and educating them in the spirit of socialism.

3. It organises the planned development of the national economy, completely eliminates the exploiting classes and the capitalist elements in the national economy, works to carry through the complete victory of socialism in every sphere of life, and effects the transition to the classless communist society. (*see answer No. 100*).

The dictatorship of the proletariat continues to exist in communist society as long as, side by side with it, capitalist countries continue to exist. The dictatorship of the proletariat (State power) will disappear when the capitalist encirclement is completely replaced by a socialist encirclement.

The State form of the dictatorship of the proletariat is not uniform. In the Soviet Union it takes the form of Soviet power (the power of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies).

After the Second World War, States of proletarian dictatorship arose in Central and South-Eastern Europe (Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Rumania and Czechoslovakia). In these countries the dictatorship of the proletariat takes the form of governments of people's democracy.

In both the Soviet Union and the people's democracies, the

leading role in the State belongs to the working class, as the foremost class in society.

The highest principle of the dictatorship of the proletariat is the alliance between the working class and the peasantry, with the working class in the leading role.

The leading and directing force in the system of the dictatorship of the proletariat is the vanguard of the working class: the Communist Party in the U.S.S.R., and the communist and Marxist workers' parties in the people's democracies.

The leading role of the communist and Marxist workers' parties has, by the will of the people, been given legislative embodiment and secured to them in the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. and the Constitutions of the people's democracies.

100.—What is communism?

THE Soviet people have built up socialism and are now in the period of gradual transition to communism.

What is communism, and in what way does it differ from socialism?

The teaching of the founders of scientific communism, Marx and Engels, a teaching developed comprehensively by V. I. Lenin and J. V. Stalin, propounds that socialism and communism are the two phases, two stages of development, of one and the same social system: communist society.

Socialism is the first (lower) stage; and communism is the second (higher) stage of communist society. While socialism and communism have much in common, there is, nevertheless, a difference between them.

The following features are common to both socialism and communism:

Under both socialism and communism the economic foundation of society is the public ownership of the instruments and means of production and an integrated socialist system of economy. There are no contradictions between the productive forces and the relations of production; there is complete conformity between them.

Neither under socialism nor communism is there social oppression. There are no exploiting classes, no exploitation of man by man, and no national oppression.

Under both socialism and communism the national economy is developed according to plan, and there are neither economic crises, nor unemployment and poverty among the masses.

Under both socialism and communism everyone is equally bound to work according to his ability.

What then, is the difference between communism and socialism?

Socialist society affords full play for the development of the productive forces. The level reached by socialist production makes it possible for society to give effect to the principle: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work". This means that the products are distributed in accordance with the quantity and quality of the work performed.

In communist society, however, the productive forces will reach an incomparably higher level of development than under socialism. The national economy will develop on the foundation of a higher technique, the production processes will be mechanised and automatised in an all-round way, and people will extensively utilise every source of energy.

The higher level of technique and productivity of labour will ensure an abundance of all consumer goods and all

material and cultural wealth. This abundance of products will make it possible to meet fully the needs of all members of communist society. Social life under communism, therefore, will be guided by the principle:

“From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs.”

Ignoramuses and enemies of communism assert that under communism there will be a levelling of the tastes and needs of all people. This is slandering communism, for tastes and needs of people are not and cannot be the same or alike in quality or quantity, either under socialism or communism.

Under communism there will be an all-round and full satisfaction of every demand of civilised people.

Under socialism there are still the working classes—the workers and peasants—and the intelligentsia, among whom there remains a difference. Under communism there will be no class differences, and the entire people will become working folk of a united, classless communist society.

Under socialism there still exists a distinction between town and country. Under communism there will be no essential distinction between town and country, that is, between industry and agriculture.

Under socialism there still exists an essential distinction between mental and manual labour, because the cultural and technical standards of the workers and peasants are not yet high enough. Under communism this distinction will disappear, for the cultural and technical standard of all working people will reach the standard of engineers and technicians.

Under socialism there still exist the survivals of capitalism in the minds of some members of society (indifference towards work, a tendency to take all you can get from society while giving as little as you can get away with, etc.). Under

communism all survivals of capitalism will disappear.

Under communism work is no longer merely a means of livelihood, but man's primary need in life.

This is the difference between socialism and communism. These are the main features of communism.

J. V. STALIN

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