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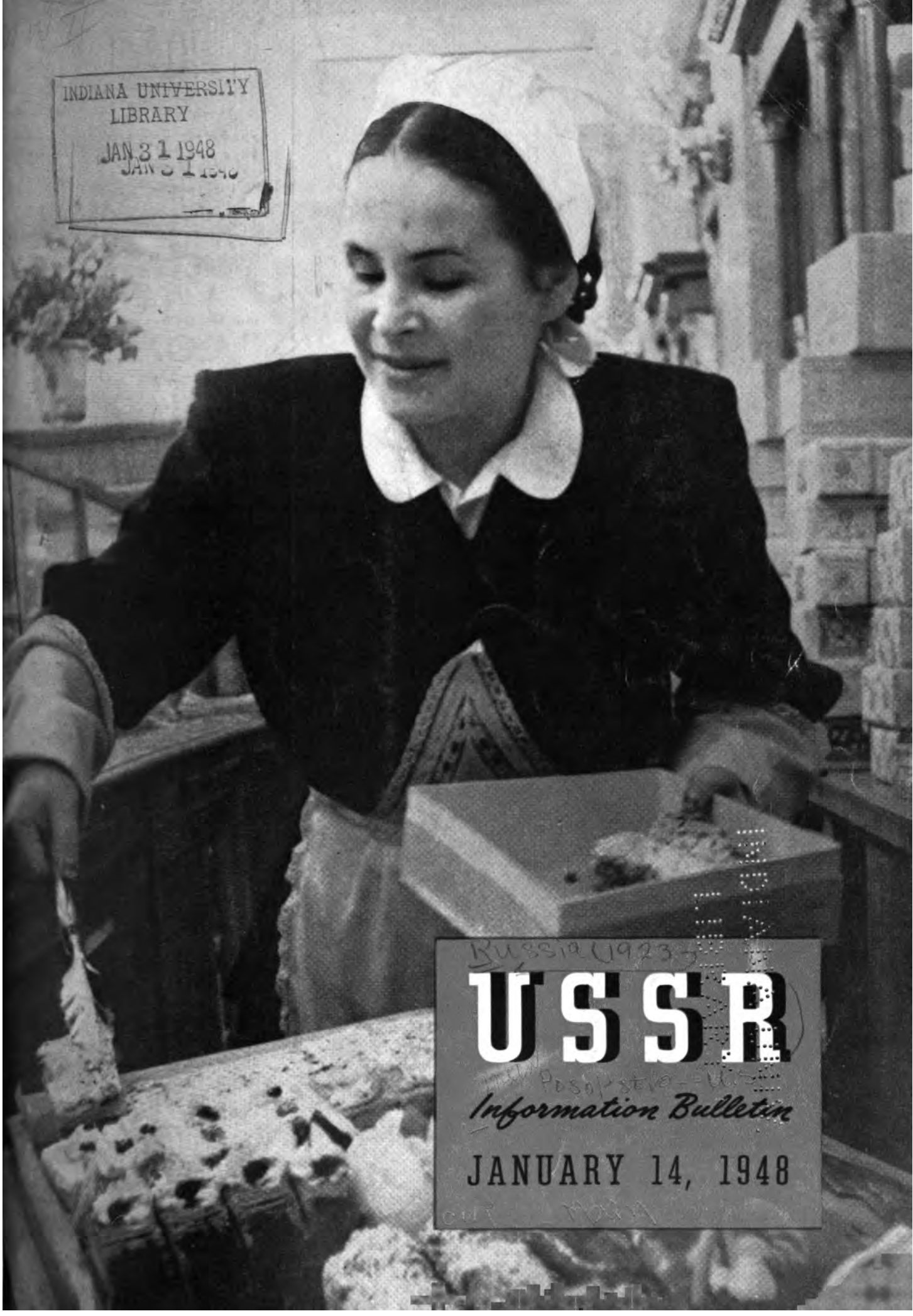

USSR

Information Bulletin

JANUARY 14, 1948

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USSR

INFORMATION BULLETIN

VOLUME VIII ★ NUMBER 1

JANUARY 14, 1948

Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 for six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

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RESTORED MONUMENT (left) to Totleben, hero of 1854 defense of Sevastopol. It had been damaged by the Nazis during their occupation of Sevastopol.

FRONT COVER: With the abolition of rationing, pastries like these are plentiful in Soviet shops.

BACK COVER: Coke batteries at the Magnitogorsk steel works, one of the largest in the country.

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The Foreign Ministers' Meeting— A Summary by V. M. Molotov

Replying to questions by correspondents of IZVESTIA *and* PRAVDA *relative to the results of the London meeting of the Council of Foreign Ministers, as well as to the pronouncements on the subject made by the United States Secretary of State, Mr. Marshall, and the British Foreign Minister, Mr. Bevin, V. M. Molotov, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the USSR, made the following statement on December 31, 1947:*

V. M. MOLOTOV

BOTH the Moscow session of the Council of Foreign Ministers in the spring of this year and the London session were convened principally for the purpose of examining the German problem. The records of these two conferences contain sufficient data on which to base judgment of the attitudes of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union toward Germany.

Agreement on the German problem was not reached in London. The reason, however, does not lie in those minor details to which reference is sometimes made in recent statements. Agreement was not reached on two major questions: first, the peace treaty with Germany; and second, restoration of Germany's unity.

The Yalta and Potsdam Agreements concluded between the heads of the governments of the United States, Great Britain and the USSR in 1945 provide a firm basis for the settlement of both of these questions. If the other governments that signed these agreements, and not the Government of the USSR alone, adhere to the adopted decisions, general agreement on the German questions will be achieved, notwithstanding existing differences of opinion. On the other hand, the Soviet Government has always declared that it will not retreat from these agreements, and will not fall in line with those who are not desirous of carrying them out and who are now striving to enforce a different policy toward Germany, a policy which is at variance with the principles of democracy and the security of nations which underlie the Yalta and Potsdam decisions on the German question.

I. THE GERMAN PEACE TREATY

THE question of the German peace treaty is of importance not only to Germany, but to all the European nations that are anxious for the establishment of enduring peace. A peace settlement with Germany will mean termination of the present state of uncertainty and the establishment of full peace in Europe. This is to the interest not only of the European nations but of all other peace-loving nations. If we really want to promote a stable peace in Europe we must get down to the preparation of a German peace treaty and also to the settlement of all questions connected with the convocation of a peace conference on the German question. This was the attitude of the Soviet delegation, which, however, did not meet with the support of the other three Ministers at the London Conference.

There is, as we know, another point of view. In the early part of this year the United States suggested a provisional statute for Germany, which would have meant postponing the German peace treaty indefinitely. The Soviet Government opposed then, as it opposes now, the suggestion for a provisional statute for Germany, which is only calculated to prevent the establishment of enduring peace in Europe.

At the London Conference the Soviet

delegation urged that a start should be made on the preparation of a German peace treaty and that the matter should no longer be postponed. Our delegation insisted that the Council of Foreign Ministers occupy itself with its major task, the task for which it was created. When the Council of Foreign Ministers was established, its basic task, as defined by the Potsdam Conference, was to proceed with "the necessary preparatory work for the peace settlements," having in mind not only the West but also the East, for which purpose China was included in the Council of Foreign Ministers.

It was decided at Potsdam that the immediate task of the Council was to draw up peace treaties for Italy, Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland, which was in fact done last year. But the decision of the Potsdam Conference also stated that "the Council shall be utilized for the preparation of a peace settlement for Germany, a corresponding document to be accepted by the government of Germany when a government adequate for the purpose is established." It is quite obvious that the time has now come when the Council of Foreign Ministers must focus its attention on the problem of a peace settlement for Germany in the West and the problem of a peace settlement for Japan in the East. This is the right way to strengthen universal peace.

As we know, last year the United States Government also deemed it necessary to proceed to frame a peace treaty with Germany. A proposal to this effect was made by the American delegation at the Paris Conference in April, 1946. But attention was then occupied with the preparation of other peace treaties, which made it impossible to tackle the peace treaty with Germany. The situation is now different. Now that peace treaties with Italy, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary and Finland have not only been signed but have entered into force, it may be taken that the time has come to get down to the peace treaty with Germany. Yet now the most obstinate opposition to this comes from the United States. The attitude of the United States has changed, and now—in contradistinction to last year—the United States Government is no longer anxious to accelerate settlement of the matter. The London Conference demonstrated that Great Britain and France follow the same line.

The representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France did not consider the problem of a peace settlement for Germany a matter of urgency for the London Conference. They tried either to remove it from the agenda altogether, or to postpone it and class it with other secondary matters. From this whole problem they arbitrarily singled out only the question of Germany's frontiers. This was not dictated by any business-like motives, but was simply a means of playing on the nerves of the Germans. This question can naturally be settled only in the course of an examination of the entire problem of the peace settlement for Germany which, however, our partners were not willing to do. Besides, in one of its earlier decisions, the Council of Foreign Ministers had already recognized the necessity of setting up a special committee on boundaries along with other special committees for the preparation of the peace treaty with Germany.

It is now being asserted that the discussion of the preparation of a German peace treaty at the London meeting was sterile, although this does not correspond to the facts. At this meeting —thanks chiefly to the efforts of the Soviet delegation—a number of decisions were taken in which progress was made in harmonizing the positions of the four governments on the procedure for preparing a peace treaty with Germany, although for some reason or other nothing is now being said about this. The examination of this matter was, however, not completed, because the American delegation hastened to torpedo the whole work of the London Conference.

Why the United States, which last year proposed that preparation of a peace treaty be expedited, does not consider this matter urgent today is something which nobody has explained. Yet it is quite obvious that without a peace settlement for Germany the establishment of peace in Europe cannot be consummated.

The facts show that the Soviet Union alone strove to get the London meeting of the Council of Foreign Ministers to accelerate the preparation of a peace settlement for Germany. Quite obviously, this position is in conformity with the interests of all nations that are anxious for the consolidation of general peace.

II. Restoration of Germany's Unity

Parallel with the problem of the peace settlement for Germany arose the question of a German government, and in this connection, the restoration of Germany's unity.

How important the restoration of Germany's unity is for the national development of the German people is clear. On the other hand, it is important for all democratic and peace-loving countries that the principles of the anti-Hitler coalition endorsed at the Potsdam Conference regarding the democratic reconstruction and demilitarization of Germany should be practically implemented all over Germany. All this is possible only when the unity of Germany is restored and no part of Germany is exempt from joint control by all the four powers, upon whom implementation of these principles devolves. The observance by Germany of her obligations toward the Allied countries that suffered from Hitler aggression and occupation likewise depends in no small degree on the restoration of Germany's unity.

At the London Conference no one expressed open objection to a united Germany. Statements were even made to the effect that the restoration of Germany's unity was a major task of the conference of the four Ministers. It transpired, however, that the representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France limited this task to the conclusion of agreements between the occupation authorities regarding the elimination of zonal barriers, so as to facilitate the movement of goods and so on, ignoring the necessity for participation of the German people and their democratic forces in the work of restoring the unity of the German state. It appeared that here, too, the concern was rather to render it more convenient for foreign exporting firms to sell their goods in Germany than really to restore the unity of the German state.

The Soviet delegation took a fundamentally different position.

For can it be seriously suggested that the unity of Germany can be restored in conformity with the Potsdam Agreement without the active participation of the German people and their pro-

gressive democratic forces? It is not hard to answer this question: Germany's unity cannot be restored on a democratic and peaceful basis without the active participation of the democratic forces of the German people. Accordingly, at the London meeting of the Council of Foreign Ministers, the Soviet delegation proposed that the formation of a central German government should be proceeded with in accordance with the decision of the Potsdam Conference. Quite obviously, if this proposal had been accepted, the matter of restoring Germany's unity would have been placed on a firm basis. Nevertheless the representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France rejected the Soviet proposal to set up a provisional central German government.

Our delegation made yet another proposal as a first step toward the creation of a central German government. It proposed that at least the decision of the Potsdam Conference should be carried out which envisaged the establishment of central German departments in the fields of finance, transport, communications, foreign trade and industry, as well as of agriculture and food. The establishment of such economic departments for all of Germany would undeniably constitute a practical step toward the restoration of the economic and political unity of Germany.

Lastly, the Soviet delegation proposed that a German consultative council be set up in Berlin to be composed of representatives of the Lands and of the democratic parties of all of Germany, as well as of the free trade unions and other major anti-Nazi organizations. This, too, would have been of practical help in restoring the unity of Germany and would have opened new prospects for the German people.

The proposals of the Soviet Union regarding a central German government, German economic departments and a German consultative council in Berlin indicated the right path toward the restoration of Germany's unity. For indeed, the unity of Germany cannot be restored without the participation of the German people themselves and without enlisting the cooperation of their democratic forces. The democratic reconstruction and demilitarization of Germany as envisaged by the Potsdam Agreement demands the establishment of central German economic and political bodies, and hence the active participation of the democratic forces of Germany in the whole matter.

However, the proposals of the Soviet delegation did not meet with the support of the Western powers. The position of these powers at the London Conference rendered all progress in the restoration of Germany's unity impossible.

All this goes to show that there are two fundamental political positions with regard to the restoration of Germany's unity: that of the Soviet Union and that of the United States, Great Britain and France, although among the latter there are certain differences in the formulation of their common position. The Soviet Union alone consistently holds to the position that Germany's unity must be restored. As to the other three powers, their position in this matter signified a policy not of uniting but of disintegrating Germany, a policy of sundering the Western zones from the rest of Germany, which has already virtually resulted in splitting Germany.

The policy of disintegrating Germany finds expression in the Anglo-French-American proposal that "all power must belong to the Lands," with the exception of certain minor functions which are to be left under the jurisdiction of all-German bodies. This policy is motivated by the desire to see Germany disunited both politically and economically. Under such a policy the democratic forces of Germany would be unable effectively to unite in defense of the legitimate national interests of their people. This policy is motivated by the fear that Germany may reemerge as serious competition in the world market, where the American monopolies and their subsidiaries in Europe are seeking to exercise undivided sway and to dictate their will. Such a policy is capable of appealing only to narrow groups of German monopolists who are allied with the industrial and bank monopolists of other countries. This policy may also be exploited by German reactionaries and revanchists of every breed, including the old militarists who would like to make the idea of German unity their own affair in furtherance of their anti-democratic and imperialist aims. This policy is contrary to the Potsdam Agreements; it has nothing in common with the interests of German democracy and is alien to the interests of nations which are anxious for the consolidation of peace and democracy in Europe.

This anti-democratic policy is now being practiced in the Western zones of Germany. The establishment of Anglo-American Bizonia facilitated this political course, since Bizonia is in fact not under the control of the four powers but is governed by an Anglo-American administration.

The Soviet Union's disapproval of federalization made it impossible to extend this policy to the whole of Germany. But the Anglo-American authorities did not shrink from taking the course of splitting Germany, so that they might have a field in which to put through their policy, even if only in the Western zones.

Eighteen months ago the United States suggested the idea of a separate merger of the two zones, American and British, ostensibly from motives of economic expediency. The consideration chiefly harped on was the desire to reduce the expenses of the occupation powers in the Western zones, although a large part of these expenses went, as it does now, not to provide for the German population, but for the maintenance of so-called "displaced persons," many of whom actively assisted the Hitlerites in the war against the Allied states, and money spent on whom will have to be made good by the Germans. No secret is any longer made of the fact that the separation of Bizonia from the rest of Germany also has political aims in view. There has been much talk in the American and British press in recent months to the effect that Anglo-American Bizonia must set up its own government under one name or another, that Bizonia must have its own constitution, that a separate currency reform must be carried out there and new money put into circulation and the like. Thus all practical actions of the American and British authorities in the united zone are designed to consummate the partitioning of Germany which was begun last year. Preparations are also being made to join the French zone to the Anglo-American zone, which will convert Anglo-American Bizonia into an Anglo-French-American Trizonia.

From all this it is clear that the assertions of the British and American representatives that they are in

favor of restoring Germany's unity are completely at variance with the practical actions of the British and American authorities in the Western zones. Actually, the policy of the British and American authorities—as of the French authorities in their zone—is tending to render the split of Germany more profound, which, however, cannot but result in undermining the prestige of those who are pursuing this policy. It is inevitable that this policy must fail, since it runs counter to Germany's historical development and is condemned by all of democratic Europe.

III. Reasons for the Breakdown of the London Conference

The London Conference made it clear that the differences over the peace treaty with Germany and the restoration of Germany's unity are not of a chance nature. They are a reflection of two different approaches to the settlement of the German problem.

It is now known that there is an intention to make Germany, or at least Western Germany, the objective of a definite American plan for Europe. Germany is promised billions of American dollars, supposedly for her economic rehabilitation, for food consignments and so forth. German affairs are argued and discussed by American senators and other American busybodies of every kind who are playing the master in the Western zones and helping American monopolies to penetrate deeper and deeper into the industries and banks of Western Germany. It is also known now that the real power in Anglo-American Bizonia is passing from the joint Anglo-American bodies directly to the Americans, who have bigger stores of dollars.

All this is ostensibly being done for the sake of Germany and not for the accomplishment of the definite plans of others. However, the German people are not allowed any say in what is being done in furtherance of these plans. They are not consulted on anything by those who are lording it in German territory and are already endeavoring to determine the economic and political situation for many years ahead, at least in the Western part of Germany. The amount of credits for Germany is being fixed, and the political and economic terms of these credits dictated, without asking whether the terms or credits themselves are acceptable.

The avowed desire to assist in the economic restoration of Germany is directly contradicted by the actual state of affairs in Anglo-American Bizonia. Both last year and this, the industries of Western Germany have been languishing wretchedly, and two thirds of them are still idle. The index of industrial output reached only 35 per cent of 1938, which is considerably lower than the index of output in the Soviet zone, notwithstanding the fact that the conditions for the rehabilitation of industry there are much more difficult. The policy pursued in the Western zones is not one of assisting the restoration of peace industry but a policy of hampering industry and keeping it in a state of stagnation, as a result of which the unused equipment is progressively deteriorating, falling into decay and losing its value. Land reform, to all intents and purposes, has not been carried out. The holdings of the small peasants have not been increased, as they have been in the Soviet zone, at the expense of the rich Junkers and big landowners who were the backbone of German militarism and Hitler aggression. Anglo-American credits to Bizonia, which are disposed of at the discretion of the British and American authorities themselves, have become a heavy burden to the German population of the Anglo-American zone and have done nothing to assist its economic rehabilitation.

The American plan now envisages granting further billions of dollars of credits to Bizonia over a number of years. These billions will help knit the German and American monopolists still closer, and will render the plight of the small and medium manufacturers still more distressing, to say nothing of the basic mass of the German population, whose opinion is not asked in this matter either. These credits are used to develop not the numerous peace industries of Western Germany, but chiefly the raw material producing branches, such as the coal industry and to some extent the iron and steel industry.

Much of what Germany could produce in her own factories again will be imported from other countries, the idea being first and foremost to increase the import of goods from America. The economic dependence of the Western part of Germany on foreign capital will be greater than ever, although even now quite a number of German enterprises have been bought for a song by foreign monopolists. The American creditors will be able to treat economically weakened Western Germany as they think fit, especially in view of the absence of a central German government.

This plan largely reflects the desire to convert the Western part of Germany into a base for the extension of the influence of American imperialism in Europe. The American plan embraces a number of European states whose rehabilitation is being made dependent upon definite economic and political conditions dictated to these states too by the United States. Undivided control in the Western part of Germany is to assist American imperialism to strengthen its influence in other European countries as well. The development of such branches of industry as iron and steel and coal in Bizonia will make it possible to utilize Western Germany as a strategic base for the furtherance of the reckless and aggressive schemes of American imperialism.

It should further be mentioned that the American plan does not envisage the fulfillment by Germany of her reparations obligations to the states which suffered from German aggression and occupation. It does not reckon with their interests and ignores the decision of the Potsdam Conference on the subject. The claim that the decision of the question of reparations to the USSR is hampered by the absence of information about the Soviet zone is of course utterly unfounded. The Soviet Union has always expressed its readiness to present full information on this subject, provided the Western powers not only talk of their readiness to proceed but actually proceed to settle the reparations question. As to the other Allied states which are to receive reparations from the Western zones of Germany, it is no secret that the British, American and French policy has practically nullified what the Potsdam Agreement envisaged for these countries.

It will thus be seen that the American plan for Germany absolutely ig-

nores the interests of the other states that made up the anti-Hitler coalition. Its aim is to liquidate the Potsdam Agreement, which was designed to promote the establishment of peace and security for the nations of Europe. The present American plan reflects the interests of definite American circles, and the Western part of Germany is in this case only being used to further American expansion.

It will be clear after all this why the United States, engaged as it is in pushing its plan for Europe, is now betraying no interest either in the preparation of a peace treaty with Germany or in the restoration of Germany's unity.

By preserving as long as possible the present unsettled situation, when the state of war with Germany has not been terminated, it is possible unceremoniously to prescribe to the Germans any recipe for the cure of Germany's economy, and to impose upon them any obligations in compensation for this so-called "assistance." Both the peace treaty and the restoration of Germany's unity would necessitate the establishment of a German government. But it is easy to guess that the establishment of a German democratic government would compel greater consideration for the interests of the German people, and this apparently forms no part of the present plan of so-called "assistance." The longer the formation of such a government is delayed, the "freer," as the saying goes, will be the hands of the promoters of the American plan, at least in the parts of Germany accessible to them. This can be the only explanation for the reluctance to have the Council of Foreign Ministers occupy itself with the peace treaty or with the restoration of Germany's unity or with the establishment of a provisional German government.

We are told that either the contemplated American plan for Germany will be carried out, or there will not be concluded even "paper agreements for a treaty of peace." This frankness is valuable, as it explains the present situation. The full restoration of peace in Europe and the restoration of the unity of the German state, without which no peace treaty with Germany can be concluded, has thus been made by the United States conditional on acceptance of the American plan for Germany and Europe. Either this anti-democratic plan is accepted unconditionally as dictated by the American expansionists, or there will be no agreements regarding the peace treaties; in other words, the restoration of peace in Europe will not be consummated. The Soviet Union could not but rebuff this dictatorial policy. And it was this dictatorial policy of the United States that led to the breakdown of the London Conference.

The London Conference ended in failure. There have been plenty of attempts to place the blame on the USSR. But nothing came of them. The blame for the failure of the London meeting lies with the ruling circles of the United States. And in this case too, Mr. Bevin and M. Bidault took their cue from Mr. Marshall.

Soviet Coal Mines Exceed Prewar Production

From an article by G. Lomov, Chairman of the Technical Council of the Ministry of the Coal Industry of the Western Areas of the USSR.

A GREAT victory was scored by the Soviet Union in October, 1947, when output of industry as a whole reached the prewar level and in the coal industry even exceeded this level.

This achievement is all the more significant if one takes into consideration the frightful destruction carried out by the Nazi invaders on Soviet territory, and particularly in the coal regions. They wrecked all the mines in the Donbas, the largest coal area of the USSR. The Moscow coal region, which supplied fuel to extensive areas in the central part of Russia, likewise suffered heavily at the hands of the Hitlerites.

As soon as the enemy was driven out of these regions, the Soviet State took up the gigantic job of restoring the mines and their power and transport facilities. Output in the Moscow coal region today is more than double the prewar. The prewar figures of coal production were reached in this region in 1945.

Coal output of the Donbas as a whole today is more than two thirds of the prewar figure.

Simultaneously with restoration work in areas which suffered from occupation, the Soviet Union is intensifying coal production in the eastern regions of the country. The Kuznetsk coal region in Western Siberia, for instance, is producing 40 per cent more coal than in prewar times. Output here in the first 10 months of 1947 was 600 thousand tons more than in the corresponding period of 1946. In the Karaganda coal region in Central Asia, output doubled during the war years. The first nine months of 1947 saw the Karaganda coal miners produce 710 thousand tons more than in the same period of 1946. Coal output has also rapidly increased in the Urals, Eastern Siberia, the Far East and other regions.

Thirty-six large coal mines as well as a large number of medium and small mines were rehabilitated or built anew in the USSR in 1946. Pits with an aggregate annual capacity of four million tons of coal were put into operation in the first half of 1947.

The installation of new machinery and equipment has played a major role in the speedy growth of output in the coal industry. The coal regions are being constantly supplied with the latest types of Soviet-designed and Soviet-manufactured loading, tunneling and other machinery. A multi-operation machine which simultaneously cuts and breaks coal and loads it onto a conveyor is widely used in the Karaganda pits. These mechanical colliers are now being introduced in the Donbas and the Moscow coal region.

Increased mechanization has led to greater productivity of labor among the miners. Labor productivity jumped 15 per cent in the Moscow coal region and 25 per cent in the Karaganda area in the first eight months of 1947. The third quarter of 1947 alone saw output per miner per shift in the Kizel coal region in the Urals increase by 1.1 metric tons.

Foreign Policy of the USSR And International Law

By D. B. Levin, LI.D.

It is a well-known fact that the foreign policy of any state is a continuation of its domestic policy, and the principles on which the political structure of a country is based find their expression in the sphere of foreign policy and in the international juridical positions adopted.

The Soviet Union as a state represents the most progressive social and political structure in the world and is, therefore, a tremendous factor making for progress in world relations. The basic line in Soviet domestic policy is the completion of the work of building a socialist society and the gradual transition to communism. From this fundamental point emerges the Soviet Union's task of ensuring peaceful conditions under which to complete these historical reforms and, as a natural consequence, of ensuring universal peace and security. The struggle for peace, the struggle against war instigators is, therefore, the cornerstone of Soviet foreign policy.

"The service rendered by Moscow," wrote Stalin, "is that it is the herald of the struggle for enduring peace and friendship among peoples. . . . The service rendered by Moscow consists in that it untiringly exposes the incendiaries of a new war and rallies all the peace-loving peoples under the banner of peace."

The Soviet State is a voluntary federation of equal and free nations that ensures the maximum development of the material and spiritual forces of every nation in the federation. The democratic principles of the self-determination of all nations and the equality of all people, irrespective of their nationality or race, have been put into practice. It is only natural that in the sphere of foreign policy the Soviet Union should act as the protector of the sovereignty and equality of large and small nations, the defender of the self-determination of the nations, and should condemn all acts of imperialist rapine and national oppresson.

EQUALITY. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR from the Karelo-Finnish SSR, the Tatar ASSR and the Tuva Autonomous Region.

The contradictions between the two social systems—between the capitalist and socialist worlds—is no hindrance to peaceful and democratic cooperation between them. The Soviet Union does its utmost to maintain and develop cooperation. Soviet policy is based on respect for the political and economic independence of states and on the profound faith of the Soviet people in their own creative abilities and in their success in the peaceful competition between the two economic systems.

The struggle for universal peace and security, for the liberty and equality of the peoples, and the desire for peaceful and democratic international cooperation—these are the fundamentals of Soviet foreign policy. These principles have remained unchanged throughout the history of the Soviet Union.

The same principles determine the positions adopted by the USSR in international law. The Soviet Union determinedly rejects the undemocratic forms of international law (spheres of influence, protectorates) that came into being under the influence of reactionary imperialist forces and supports and strengthens democratic principles in international law (sovereignty of the people, non-intervention in internal affairs, etc.). The USSR supports everything in international law that promotes peaceful and democratic cooperation among states. "We reject all points of plunder and rapine," said Lenin in November, 1917, "but all points that include good-neighborly relations and economic agreement we gladly accept; those we cannot reject."

At the same time the Soviet Union is creating new principles and new forms in international law; these reflect the socialist character of the Soviet State and the principles of Soviet

SOVIET SPOKESMEN. Foreign Minister Vyacheslav Molotov and Deputy Foreign Minister Andrei Vyshinsky at the Moscow Conference of Foreign Ministers in April, 1947.

democracy. These principles are, to cite a few of them: equality of different forms of property ownership in international law; internationally legal forms of monopoly in foreign trade; treaties of friendship and mutual aid against aggression; treaties of economic mutual aid and cooperation based on the fullest respect for the sovereignty and equality of the contracting parties. These new principles are being more widely accepted and are being introduced into modern international law.

The defeat of the aggressive fascist states in the Second World War resulted in the increased prestige and world significance of the Soviet Union; a number of states based on a new form of popular democracy emerged: Poland, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Albania, and others. The Soviet Union became the center toward which nations interested in the preservation of peace and democracy gravitated. In view of this there has been a growth in the progressive influence of the Soviet Union in the field of international law.

The Soviet Union's contribution to international law is a large and varied one.

In 1917, when the First World War was at its height, the Soviet State, for the first time in history, put forward the idea of a universal democratic peace on the basis of the self-determination of all nations. In the years that followed, the Soviet Union concluded a number of treaties of non-aggression and neutrality with other states; these strengthened the security of the USSR and were a contribution to world peace.

When the Soviet Union entered the League of Nations she made a number of valuable proposals aimed at strengthening peace. The USSR proclaimed the "indivisibility of peace" and proposed as an addendum to the Statutes of the League of Nations the conclusion of bilateral regional pacts of mutual assistance against aggression.

Before the war the Soviet Union was able to carry this through only in part—as, for example, in the pacts with France, Czechoslovakia and the Mongolian People's Republic. During the Second World War, however, and after the war, the Soviet Union concluded pacts of this type with a number of countries. These treaties are an important guarantee against possible German aggression and at the same time they give the Charter of the United Nations greater significance.

In 1936 the USSR proposed the more effective application of the Statutes of the League of Nations in the form of sanctions against an aggressor by those countries that were parties to special treaties of mutual aid and the establishment of responsibility for refusal to apply economic and financial sanctions. Some of these proposals have found expression in the Charter of the United Nations. Long before this the Soviet Union had evolved and recorded in treaties she had concluded a precise definition of acts of aggression—this for the purpose of making it more difficult for the aggressive powers to camouflage and effect aggression.

The Soviet Union has always paid special attention to the problem of disarmament. Twenty years ago the USSR proposed general disarmament of all nations to the League. In 1946 the General Assembly of the United Nations passed a resolution based on

the Soviet Government's proposal to reduce and regulate armaments and forbid atomic weapons.

More recently the Soviet Government submitted a very important proposal for the strengthening of peace; it proposed that the General Assembly condemn war-mongering and war-mongers. The General Assembly unanimously adopted a resolution condemning propaganda for a new war and condemning the instigators.

THE Soviet Union maintains a constant struggle for the recognition of the sovereignty and equality of all states, large and small, and of the right of nations to self-determination. Immediately after the October Revolution, the Soviet Government proclaimed the right of all nations in Russia to self-determination. In conformity with the wishes of the Finnish people the USSR proclaimed their liberty from tsarist rule and acknowledged the independence of Finland.

By renouncing unequal treaties and spheres of influence in the eastern countries—Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan and China—and by concluding new treaties with those countries on the basis of acknowledgment of their sovereignty and full equality, the Soviet State again helped strengthen the principles of democracy in international law.

The Soviet Union always takes a position in defense of countries which are the victims of imperialist aggression and are struggling for their independence. The whole world knows the position adopted by the Soviet Union with respect to fascist Italy at the time of her attack on Abyssinia, with respect to Italian and German intervention in Spain, to Hitler's seizure of Austria and Czechoslovakia and to the attempts of the Japanese imperialists to seize the Mongolian People's Republic.

The Soviet Union succeeded in getting the principle of the self-determination of nations included in the Charter of the United Nations. This principle, therefore, has become a guarantee in international law that enables the peoples who have been deprived of independent statehood to appeal to the international organization for the acknowledgment of their rights and for help in their struggle against imperialism.

The Soviet Union succeeded in overcoming the stubborn resistance of the colonial powers and in including democratic principles in those articles of the United Nations Charter that deal with the trusteeship system. On the insistence of the USSR the promotion of the independence of the territories held in trusteeship became one of the most important duties of the trustee. The active support of the USSR was also given to paragraphs acknowledging the equality of all people irrespective of race, sex, language and religion.

When the United Nations Charter came into force the USSR carried on a determined struggle against the violation of the democratic rights of peoples and states. The speeches of Soviet statesmen in defense of Syria and Lebanon, Egypt and the people of Indonesia are still fresh in everybody's mind; a similar case is the USSR's stand against racial discrimination against Indians and Chinese in the Union of South Africa.

There can scarcely be any doubt that the efforts of the representatives of the USSR are an obstacle to the tendencies displayed by some capitalist countries to convert the UNO Charter into a paper declaration or a screen to hide their reactionary politics.

It is well known, for example, that the diplomats of Anglo-American imperialism made many attempts at the General Assembly to defend "freedom of speech" and the "right" of the warmongers to carry on their work of destruction. The democratic principles of the UNO Charter are strongly supported by the USSR and the new democracies and, despite the resistance of reactionary circles in the imperialist states, are becoming active norms in international law.

IN the sphere of international economic cooperation the USSR has proclaimed the principles of the equality of the economic systems existing in different states, and insists on the impermissibility of any sort of discrimination against a socialist system of economy. This principle has now become generally accepted in international law. In the '30s the USSR proposed to other countries that they conclude pacts outlawing all forms of economic aggression. In the history of the foreign relations of the Soviet Union there are many instances of the Soviet State having decisively counteracted attempts at economic aggression.

Since the Second World War the imperialist monopolies of the United States and Great Britain have been trying to enslave smaller countries economically and to take advantage of their postwar economic weakness. Under the pretext of economic and financial "aid" they are trying to rob them of their economic and, at the same time, of their political independence. The Soviet Union, true to its policy of the voluntary and equal cooperation of nations, exposes the aggressive character of such schemes as the "Truman Doctrine" and the "Marshall Plan."

In contrast to this program are the economic agreements concluded between the USSR and the countries of Eastern and Southeastern Europe, which established new democratic forms for economic mutual assistance between states. This mutual assistance is based on respect for the independence and equality of nations and is in the interests of the independent development of the national economy of every country.

The Soviet Union has played a major role in strengthening the meaning of legality in international relations. The irreproachable probity of the socialist State with respect to the international treaties it has concluded is a well-known fact. The USSR provides an example of the strictest observance of international obligations, and of decisions taken jointly with another state. We may recall the Soviet Union's fulfillment of its obligations under the Statutes of the League of Nations, of its treaties of mutual aid, of its obligations as an Ally during the Second World War.

In peacetime and during the hard years of the war the Soviet Union fulfilled its international obligations with unparalleled conscientiousness. The USSR has, therefore, every right to demand the same strict and accurate fulfillment of international obligations by other states.

In the sharp struggle against the forces of reaction that are attempting to turn international law into a weapon of imperialist politics, the Soviet State successfully defends the progressive and democratic principles of in-

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The Soviet Union's Leading Role In Saving Civilization

By Eugene Tarle
Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

YEARS, decades, centuries will pass and people's thoughts will turn back time and again to examine the question of what the Soviet people did to save Europe and the whole world from fascist gloom, that is, to save civilization.

When one stands at the foot of Mount Kazbek one gets a poorer impression of its huge mass than when viewing it from some considerable distance. It is possible that future generations will be able to obtain a more complete picture of the Soviet Union's role in ridding the world of fascist slavery and actual physical extermination.

When the German attack on the USSR was launched in June, 1941, representatives of public opinion (or those who were regarded as such) in Europe and America, with a very few exceptions, announced orally and in the press that the Soviet Union would not stand up under the onslaught. Even in the State Department of the United States it was said that Soviet resistance would last only until the new year.

In continental Europe, crushed by the Prussian jackboot and terrorized by torture and executions, there were few who hoped for salvation.

We now know that the average man in Western Europe only became convinced of the coming salvation after the unparalleled defeat of the Germans at Stalingrad.

And what were they saved from? It is time for us to take stock and to admit that no other war in the whole course of history was marked by that which the nations suffered at the hands of the fascist butchers. Hitler, with the approval and active collaboration of the "higher race," that is, his trusty followers, attempted to turn all Europe and the whole world into rightless slaves.

The Hitlerite gang hated every kind of democracy, even that which was purely bourgeois. "We will burn out with red-hot iron mankind's very memory of the accursed heritage of the French Revolution, of all those slogans of fraternity, equality and liberty, of all declarations of the rights of citizens," screamed the hysterical Goebbels on the radio and at meetings. Their "new order" meant the absolute dictatorship of the gang of Berlin butchers over Europe and then over the whole world: this "new order" the Hitlerites intended to establish (and they announced it officially) for neither more nor less than a thousand years.

And how much greater was the hatred which this malicious cretin, who to Germany's eternal disgrace ruled her for 12 years, showed for the socialist democracy which had existed on a sixth of the world's surface since the October Revolution.

The Beast of Berlin, who first gained mastery over Germany and then over France and practically the whole of Europe, could see quite clearly that millions of people who toiled on the land without landlords, or in factories without capitalist owners, would offer the fiercest possible resistance and would never submit to the yoke of a new landlord, a German, and a new factory owner, also a German. What is more—as long as the Soviet Union

STALINGRAD. Here the Soviet soldiers waged the battle from house to house, from street to street, and turned the tide of war against the Nazi army.

existed, the French, betrayed by Laval and Pétain, would not rest content with their bitter lot, nor would the Italians, crushed by Hitler's blackshirt allies, nor the Norwegians, despite their Quisling, nor the Spaniards, although Hitler had succeeded in putting Franco in power.

This meant, therefore, that until the Soviet Union was destroyed, nothing had been completed. In view of the fact that terrific resistance was to be expected from the Soviet workers and peasants, it was first necessary to clear the ground, to make an end of those people who might strike a blow in the back when the "higher race," led by Hitler, Keitel and others, would march victoriously to Moscow. Only when this danger had been removed would it be possible to organize a *blitzkrieg* for the speedy reduction of Moscow, Leningrad and the USSR.

It was not only a matter of seizing foreign territory, of looting everything the victims possessed, of sadistic butchery and the murder of many thousands of people, not only of the organization of special death camps for the annihilation of millions of people—not only Oswiecim, Maidanek, Buchenwald, Dachau and other camps. The German High Command had been given the task of deliberately annihilating a number of nations, all those "whom Germany did not need, the former owners of territories won by German arms." This is the title given in Hitlerite documents and declarations to the Poles, Czechs and Serbs.

Naturally, the Hitlerites also added the Russians to the list of unnecessary and dangerous nations. "There will never be any Russian revenge, because there will be no Russians," announced the Goebbels' and the Fricks to encourage their butchers and assure them that their crimes would never be punished. And there would be no Czech revenge, and no Polish revenge and no Yugoslav revenge—all for the same reason.

Not colonization, but extermination! This was the slogan of the Hitlerites.

Part of the population they tried to annihilate to the last man—the intelligentsia, the brain of the conquered peoples. While they were killing off the professors of Krakow University by means of hunger and torture, the butchers said with a smile to the wife of one of them: "From now on the Poles won't need a university, let them plow the soil and chop wood."

In destroying and desecrating places sacred to the memory of Pushkin, Tolstoy's Yasnaya Polyana or Tchaikovsky's house, the Nazis did not hide their intention of completely wiping out Russian culture. Why should the slaves, whose history was already over and who would henceforth exist only to plow the land for the Germans under the whips of overseers, why should these farm animals want to remember that once they had had a Pushkin or a Tolstoy?—asked the cynical fascist barbarians.

Absolute and merciless ruin was bearing down on great nations. The fate that had been made ready for them by the gang of Berlin criminals was a horrible one.

Before the battle of Stalingrad the German fascists did not make any attempt to conceal the fact that they had no intention of confining their conquests to Eastern Europe and Russia. "After the war no country in Europe should think that she will be able to retain complete independence. All the countries of Europe will have to come under the supreme leadership of Germany." This unbelievably cynical phrase was uttered by Hitler's satrap in Belgium.

Another of the satraps, General Stülpnagel, whose bandit activities took place in France, added the further explanation: "We shall exterminate so many of the population in the countries of our enemies that, in any case, they'll never be able to stand on their feet again!"

Herman Goering pictured a still more evil future, not only for Europe but for all mankind. "Today you are taking a photo of me here, near the Eiffel Tower, tomorrow you'll snap me in Buckingham Palace and the day after amongst the New York skyscrapers!" he said to a photographer in 1942. At the same time Goering demanded that this aphorism be recorded on a film, little dreaming that these words would resound from that film at the Nuremberg trial.

And here is how the Nazi gangsters imagined the future of mankind: "When I hear the word culture I draw my revolver and push forward the safety catch!" all the big and little Goebbels', Fricks and Dietrichs wrote, in imitation of Dr. Goebbels.

Before mankind there had opened up a black, bottomless and foul pit in which all the achievements of spiritual culture, all conceptions of liberty and human dignity, all morals were to be drowned without leaving a trace.

EASTERN FRONT. Japanese troops surrendering to Soviet forces.

And then came the second tolling of the funeral knell, still louder than that of December, 1941, on the Volokolamsk road. This time it was so loud that the sound of it could not be drowned: after the Stalingrad defeat mourning flags had to be hung out in Germany for three days.

After that the funeral bell tolled continuously over the Nazi camp. The sound of it grew stronger and stronger, betokening ever greater doom for the Germans. This was the funeral knell for Germany, but for Europe it was a bell of good tidings bringing promise of approaching emancipation, the coming of the hour when all the Hitlerite filth would be scattered by the wind and no trace of it would remain.

We do not by any means wish to belittle the valuable contribution which our Allies made toward victory over the common enemy. There are, however, incontrovertible facts that are acknowledged far beyond the frontiers of Russia. These facts show that the Soviet Union and its army bore almost the whole burden of the war and did not receive any substantial help on the fronts during the most critical days of their life-and-death struggle with the Nazi hordes and the troops of Germany's satellites.

In the spring of 1945 neither the Americans, British or French, despite all their efforts, could, for example, prevent the ruinous bombardment of London with flying bombs. In the very days when the Soviet Army, after having crushed four fifths of the German fighting forces, was approaching Berlin, the Allies were unable, despite the small numerical strength of the German forces against them, to capture the entire Channel coast in northern France and Belgium and so wipe out the nests from which the death-dealing V-2 bombs were being sent to London. It was only when the German-fascist monster lay crushed under the feet of Soviet troops in Berlin, only when Keitel had signed the act of unconditional surrender, that hundreds and thousands of evacuated women and children could return to London, a city that by then had been one-quarter destroyed.

One cannot help but ask the question that was once asked by a London newspaper: what would have happened if one half instead of one fifth of the German Army had been on the Channel coast? The crux of the whole matter was that four fifths of the German Army was at that time concentrated on the Eastern front under the terrific hammer blows of the Soviet Army.

The role played by the Soviet Union in that war, from beginning to end, is not to be measured by any standards! The threat that hung over mankind was the most terrible that the imagination is capable of conceiving, and the victory of the Soviet people that determined the course of world history was of such a gigantic scale and its results were such that they overshadow everything that has been seen for many centuries.

Moscow—Stalingrad—Berlin: these were not only victories for Soviet strategy and Soviet heroism. They were the victories of the great spirit of the Soviet peoples, who had firmly decided to repulse the aggressor, and in an indivisible fraternal alliance under the masterly leadership of Stalin drove our enemy out of Russia and finally crushed him in his own lair.

In the 11 centuries of her historical life Russia has gained many victories and has, on many occasions, achieved imperishable glory. The victory of 1941-1945, however, occupies a special place in world history. This victory will go down through the ages and will show our children and our children's children for many generations how the Soviet people, the people who built the world's first socialist state, under the leadership of Stalin overthrew the Nazis and saved not only their own future but the future of all liberty-loving mankind.

RUINS. The Germans did not spare the ancient cultural treasures.

Foreign Policy

(Continued from Page 8)

ternational law, relying on the growing support of all progressive mankind.

At the Paris Peace Conference, V. M. Molotov said: "There are two directly opposed methods in international life. One method, one that everyone remembers from time immemorial, is that of force and rule, for which all means are acceptable. The other method, one, it is true, that is not yet sufficiently widely developed, is the method of democratic cooperation, based on the acceptance of the principle of equality and the legitimate interests of all states, large and small. We do not doubt that despite all obstacles, the method of democratic cooperation among states will be victorious in the end."

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NEW CURRENCY. Old money is traded for new at a currency exchange station in Moscow.

The End of Rationing

and

The New Currency

COAT. Clothing rationing ended.

BETTER PAY. The first pay in the new higher-value currency brings smiles from these school staff members.

MEAT AND BREAD. Jubilant Soviet citizens buy all they want as rationing ends. A shop in Podolsk.

BAKERY. Pastry, cookies and cakes were favorite items among early buyers.

DAIRY GOODS. Butter, cheese and eggs are plentiful.

CANDY. A young customer.

The End of Rationing

By N. Nevsky

Deputy Minister of the Food Industry of the USSR

RETAIL trade in food and consumer commodities in the USSR has taken a brisk upward turn as a result of the abolition of rationing and the institution of currency reform, put into effect December 16, 1947. Open trade without ration cards has been restored at uniform state-fixed prices, established in the main on the level of the ration prices which existed before December 16. The new uniform government prices of bread, cereals and macaroni are in fact 10 to 12 per cent lower than the ration prices.

The monetary reform strengthened the ruble and contributed to the enhancement of the material well-being of the working people.

Reports pouring in from all parts of the country bear witness to the fact that the Soviet people warmly welcomed these important measures, regard them as a new manifestation of the State's concern for the public welfare.

"I'm grateful from the bottom of my heart for the abolition of ration cards and for the monetary reform," said Yakov Suvorov, shift foreman at the Hammer and Sickle iron and steel plant in Moscow. "Life will become still better and easier. Hitler caused our country and our people much grief. And only the Bolshevik Party, only the Soviet Government succeeded in a comparatively short time in doing away with the rationing system, in lowering the prices of bread and cereals, and in carrying out monetary reform. The most important thing is—the wages of the working people are not lowered."

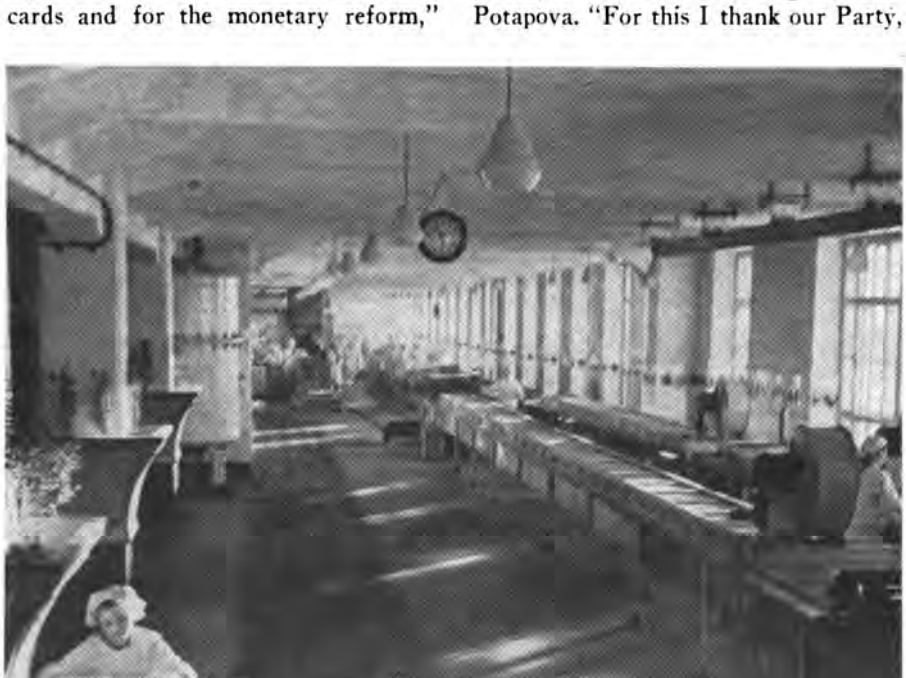
Retivskaya, a Stakhanovite worker at the Bolshevik factory in Moscow, said: "The war against fascist Germany, which necessitated rationing and other sacrifices, was a dreadful war, worse than any preceding one. But we stood it, and won! The monetary reform now restores the full value of the Soviet ruble. Abolition of the rationing system brings us all great benefits."

"I shall now be able to provide better food for my family than I did before," said the working woman Potapova. "For this I thank our Party, our Government and Comrade Stalin!"

FLOUR. A Moscow mill.

"The monetary reform and the abolition of rationing will bring about an immense improvement in the living standards of the working people, will ensure an increase in real wages," said workers of the Kirov plant in Leningrad.

"It is a wise and necessary decision," said Puganov, a steel smelter. "Its wisdom lies in the fact that we working people have gained by it, while the speculators have lost. In response to this measure for our welfare we have done our part by smelting at high speed today, exceeding our quota by 40 per cent." Kozlov, a Stakhanovite steel smelter, added: "We shall do everything to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in Leningrad fashion—in four years!"



FOOD PLANT. The Mikoyan food processing factory in Leningrad.

THE transition to non-rationed trade is indissolubly bound up with the work of the Soviet food industry, the employees of which have already exerted tremendous effort to restore war-damaged industrial plants and to boost productivity. The enterprises of the Ministry of the Food Industry of the USSR completed the output program for the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan by December 7, 1947. This is a notable achievement of the Soviet food industry, if one takes into consideration the fact that half of the enterprises were on territory overrun by the Nazi invaders and had been demolished and looted by the occupationists. The raw material base of the

food industry likewise suffered heavily in the recent war. The sowing area and yield of sugar beet, sunflowers, potatoes and other crops were considerably reduced. In addition to this, the drought in the Soviet Union in 1946 was the worst experienced in the country in the past half century. The raw material reserves of the food industry, naturally, were greatly affected by the crop failure.

Under such conditions it would ordinarily have required many years to overcome the deterioration of the technical and raw material bases of the food industry. The system of planned socialist economy, however, made it possible for the Soviet State swiftly to rebuild the production and technical base and substantially to increase the raw material reserves in the course of two and one half years. More than 1,000,000,000 rubles invested in the Soviet food industry made it possible to rehabilitate a large number of sugar refineries, creameries, canneries, bakeries and other enterprises.

As a result of the increase of production capacity in most branches of the food industry, large stocks of raw materials are now being processed.

Special measures for the advancement of agriculture instituted by the Soviet Government resulted in a sharp increase this past year in raw material supplies. The amount of sugar beet, oil seed, potatoes and other industrial crops harvested last year exceeds considerably that of 1946. For instance, nearly three times as much sugar beet was gathered in 1947 as in 1946.

The Soviet collective farmers demonstrated splendid efforts in their drive to boost the country's food supplies. Geda, a collective farm woman who heads a team of sugar beet growers, was awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor for harvesting more than 60 tons of sugar beet per hectare.*

Bigger stocks of raw materials were delivered to the food industry enterprises of the Soviet Union last year than in 1946. This has led to the manufacture of greater quantities of food products as compared with the previous year. Enterprises processing sugar beet for example produced twice as much sugar. Output of the confectionery, canning and salt industries has increased substantially. The Soviet Union is now producing larger quantities of concentrated foods and vitamins.

*Metric tons—2,204 lbs.; 1 hectare=2.471 acres

CANNED FRUIT. Warehouse of the Megri cannery in Soviet Armenia.

The Soviet Government devoted particular attention to the rehabilitation of bakeries. War-damaged bakeries in the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the North Caucasus have been reconstructed, and new ones have been put into operation in the industrial centers in the East. Mechanized bakeries, some of which are among the largest in Europe, are furnished with up-to-date automatic equipment. Some of the mechanized bakeries in the Soviet Union can supply bread daily for one million persons.

Soviet confectionery factories have also considerably increased the variety of their output.

Creameries have undergone major reconstruction. Modern machinery has been installed and radical changes have been made in the technological processes.

The fruit and vegetable canning industry, set up in Soviet times, has scored major successes in the restoration of industrial plant. The canneries are now equipped to handle the tremendous amount of raw materials provided for by the Five-Year Plan.

The past year saw the further increase of capacity and the growth of output of Soviet food industry enterprises. The fine harvest in 1947 provided the food industry with the necessary amount of raw materials and, thus, was an important prerequisite for the abolitioning of rationing.

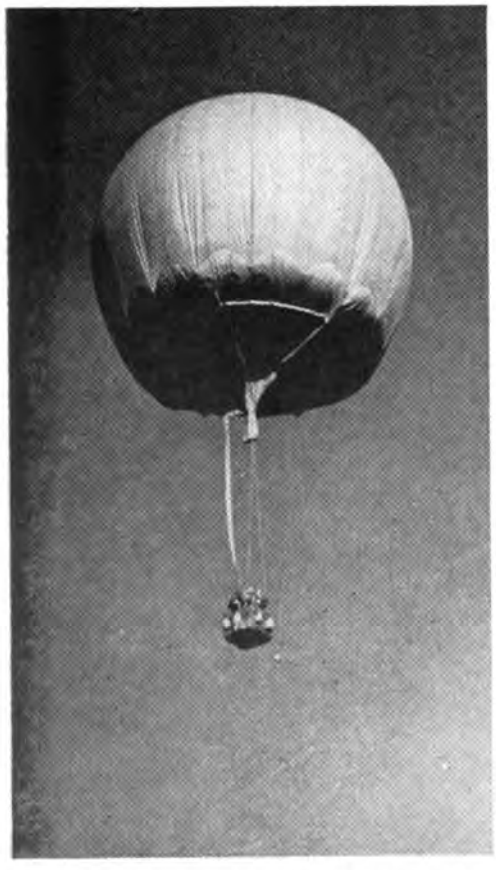
To cope with the growing demand, a number of new factories have been built and are now turning out corn flakes and other breakfast foods, prepared foods, mayonnaise, sauces of various kinds, and other food products.

The food industry of the USSR will work in 1948 under even more favorable conditions, particularly as regards raw material resources. The enterprises have received better equipment, and laborious processes will be further mechanized. Training of new workers, engineers and technicians proceeds on an ever-increasing scale.

All this will make it possible to speed production in the food industry and carry out one of the main tasks of the postwar Five-Year Plan—to secure an abundance of food and other consumer goods and raise the material well-being of the people of the Soviet Union.

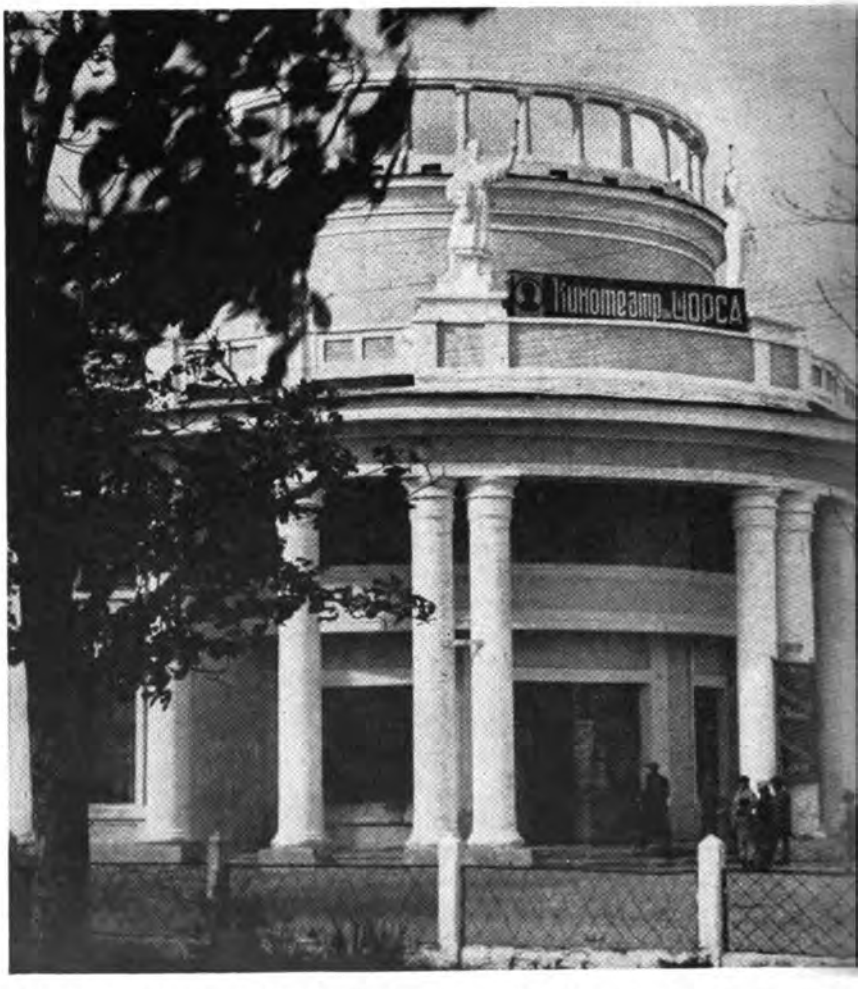
Soviet News in Pictures

WINTER SPORTS. A young skater in Moscow.



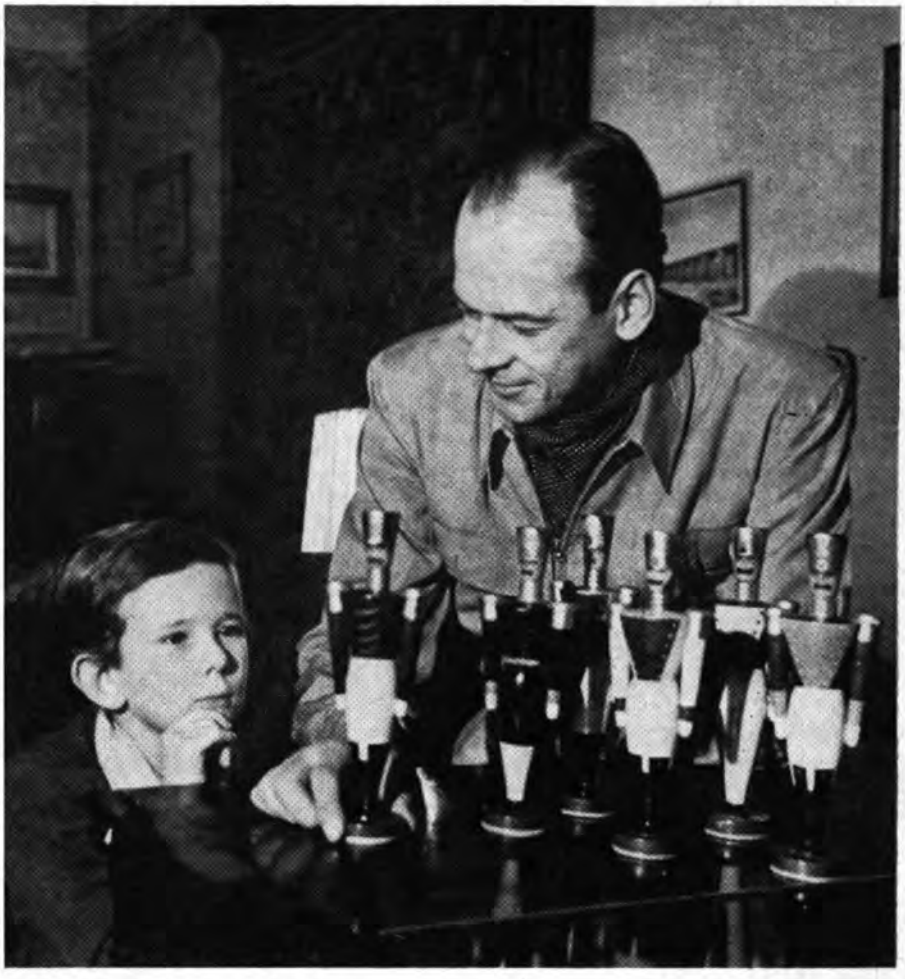
BALLOON. The sub-stratosphere balloon "USSR VR-62".

TRAVELERS. Old and new meet as these Tajik farmers, in colorful na costume, arrive in Stalinabad by plane.



RESTORATION. A newly rebuilt cinema in Chernigov in the Ukraine. This was badly damaged by the Germans.

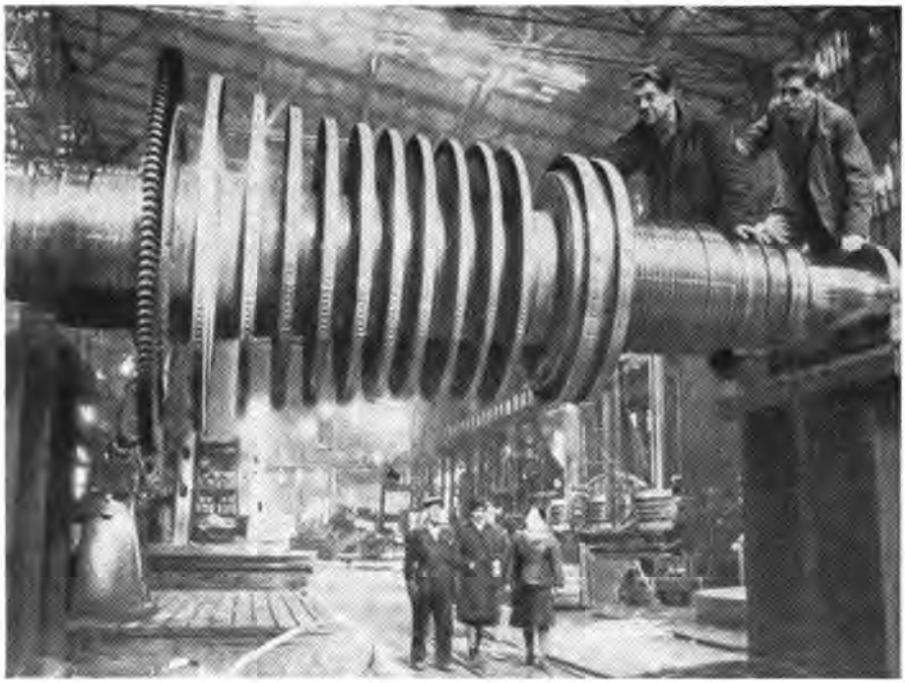
IFTED CHILD. Ira Bondarenko of Kiev.



FILM ACTOR. Nikolai Cherkassov, whose film portrayals are world-famous, with his son, Andrei.

XPERIMENTS. Experimental plants at the Botanical Institute of Turkmenia.

DEPUTY. Julia Smirnova (right), Deputy to the Moscow Regional Soviet, with her mother.



LENINGRAD. The city which pointed the way. Scene at the Stalin heavy machine works.

Five Years in Four

By A. Philippov

THE appeal of Leningrad workers to all workers of Soviet industry to carry out the current Five-Year Plan in four years is finding an eager echo throughout the country. The personnel of thousands of enterprises who have held meetings since the publication of the Leningrad appeal are enthusiastically taking up the challenge and working out plans of action aimed at fulfilling their five-year programs a year ahead of the projected time.

I recently visited two Moscow industrial enterprises, the Kalibr and Borets factories, to find out how these plans of action are drawn up.

The Kalibr, which makes instruments, introduced a number of important technical innovations in 1946 and 1947. Particularly effective was the inauguration of the continuous-stream method in the manufacture of universal measuring instruments, carried out for the first time in the history of the Soviet instrument-making industry. As a result of this innovation, output of micrometers doubled.

Particularly arduous pattern-making operations were mechanized, certain parts were machined on more efficient automatic and semi-automatic lathes instead of turning and turret lathes, and several other innovations were put into practice at the Kalibr factory. As a result of constant and persistent work with beginners, as well as better industrial planning and the application of improved devices, Nikolai Rossiisky, a foreman, succeeded in tripling output in his section. All the workers under his supervision topped their production quotas. Sixteen other foremen have followed Rossiisky's example and output in their respective sections has also been considerably increased.

The greater part of these technical and organizational measures were unforeseen in the Kalibr factory's five-year plan. As a result of these measures the enterprise completed the program for 1947 by October 30, two months ahead of time. At the same time, the prewar level of labor productivity there was exceeded by 15 per cent. Most of the technological improvements mentioned above were put into effect only in the middle of the year.

"Therefore," state the workers and office employees of the Kalibr factory, replying to the appeal of the Leningrad workers, "if we employ our new technology from the very beginning of 1948, then our output will be much higher. Dozens of new measures are at present in various stages of development. For instance, other types of instruments will be manufactured by continuous-stream methods. All our foremen are participating in the current drive to increase the productivity of their respective sections. A number of valuable organizational ideas have been contributed by our workers and engineers. All this creates conditions for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years."

The other plant I visited, the Borets, turns out compressors for the oil industry. This enterprise has already exceeded the prewar level of production by more than 50 per cent. This industrial victory was achieved as a result of the persistent work of hundreds of the plant's workers and engineers in putting into practice some 1,100 rationalization measures proposed by the factory personnel. Some of these measures introduced improvements in technology, others the mechanization of laborious processes, and still others led to the operation of machines at greater speeds. Continuous-stream methods of production also occupied a prominent place in the rationalization picture. The application of these methods made it possible to

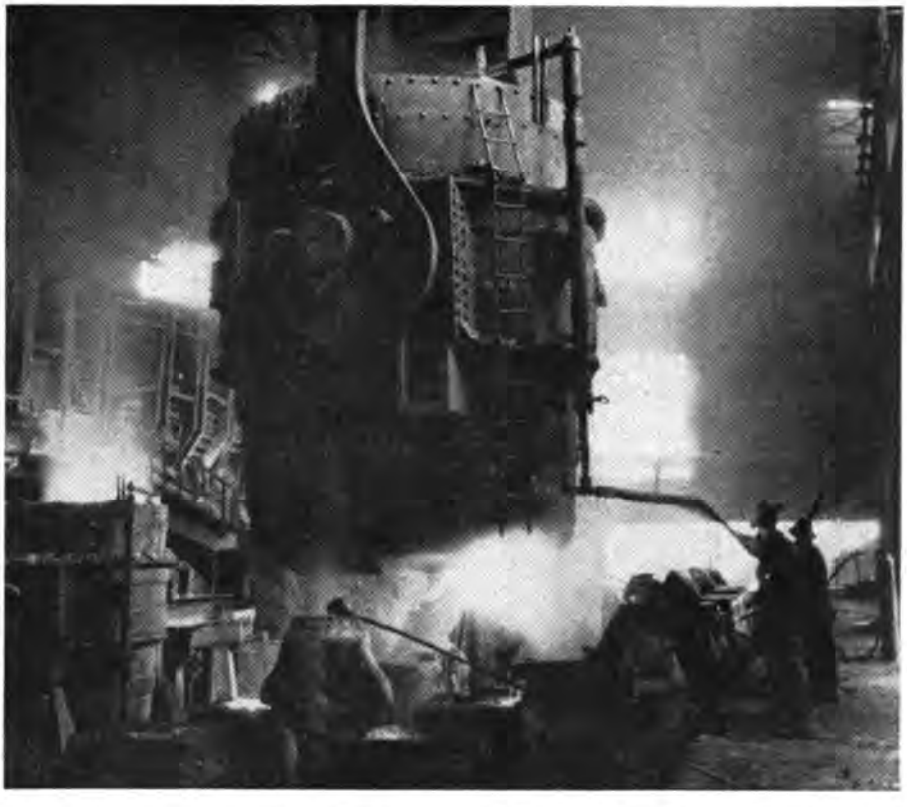
DONBAS. Miners like A. Sinebabkov took up the challenge.

cut the time in the manufacture of an engine muffler by one half, from five hours to two and one half hours. The speed of production processes, as a whole, was increased at the Borets plant by 25 per cent. Parts which formerly required four hours for manufacture are now completed in three hours. This hour saved in working time represents additional reserve unforeseen in the Borets plant's five-year program, and will help the personnel of the enterprise to carry out their pledge: to fulfill their five-year plan in four years.

Other enterprises in the Soviet Union are drawing up their plans in similar fashion. A group of coal-cutting machine operators at rehabilitated Colliery No. 11—21 in the Donbas began using a different system this summer. Previously, these machines were operated from the bottom of the seam up, and ran idle for three hours while being returned to the bottom. The new system introduced by the miners of Colliery No. 11—21 makes it possible for the machines to cut coal as they work from the top of the seam down as well. Thus the idle time of each coal-cutting machine has been eliminated. As a result output was raised 40 per cent above plan.

There are a large number of innovators in Soviet industry who are boldly advancing new rationalization schemes. Socialist industry knows no production secrets and competition; the knowledge of each individual worker is passed on to all workers. That explains why in Soviet industry there are hundreds of thousands of workers systematically exceeding their output assignments. In the Stalino district of the Donbas, nearly 30 thousand young coal miners completed their 1947 output program in October; another 1,700 miners completed their program for two and even three years in that month. The wide application of the experience of leading workers is one of the principal means ensuring fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

TRACTORS. This important industry too is striving for maximum production. The Kirov plant in the Urals.



STEEL. Much is needed if industry as a whole is to reach its goal. Scene in the Second Zlatoust iron and steel mill.

THE Leningraders' appeal is also meeting with a warm response on the part of Soviet scientists. Science has played a major role in effecting the socio-economic changes which have taken place in the USSR since the October Revolution. In the course of the past 30 years, the general cultural level of the people had to be raised, the economic might of the country increased, its vast natural resources established and developed, the means of production multiplied and improved. In all this the State needed the help of science.

In this connection it is particularly important to emphasize the great role played by Soviet science in the development of technology as the material base of the economic growth of the country. On the basis of this technology a powerful, ramified indus-

try was created in the USSR, entirely changing the country and its life.

The successes of Soviet science have been made possible by the exceptional attention paid by the Soviet Government to its needs and problems. Before the Second World War the corps of scientists and scientific workers in the Soviet Union numbered about 100 thousand persons. Their contribution to the Soviet war effort was a vital factor in ensuring victory. In the postwar period also, Soviet science accepts the challenge of the day: restoration of the country's war-wrecked economy and improvement of the general standard of living.

Inasmuch as Soviet science serves only the people and the State, its development and practical activities are included as an integral part of the general state plans. This, naturally, has given rise to the necessity of planning scientific work, a feature which distinguishes the science of the socialist society.

However, the perspectives opened up by the steadily growing research program frequently far exceed the scope of the current economic plans. Science has its own specific logic of development, not limited to present-day objectives, but looking far ahead.

It is precisely because Soviet science develops in this way that it can take an active part in the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years. The wide horizons opened before science by the socialist system enable Soviet scientists and scholars to respond confidently to the call of the Leningraders.

As V. M. Molotov stated in his report delivered at the celebration meeting of the Moscow Soviet in honor of the 30th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, Soviet industry had already reached the prewar level in October of this year in spite of all the difficulties of the restoration period. This great victory of the Soviet people was the result of the nation-wide socialist emulation movement which aroused great creative initiative. The rationalizaton of industrial processes and their further mechanization and automatization and the perfecting of technological processes all led to a great increase in the productivity of labor and to a rapid advance of the national economy. For this victory a definite share of the merit belongs to Soviet scientists, for this rapid growth of socialist industry is based on the latest achievements of Soviet science and technology which make it possible to outstrip the plans.

Supporting the patriotic challenge of the Leningraders, Soviet scientists are bending every effort to contribute to this new enthusiastic undertaking of the people, to assist them in solving the tasks confronting the country.

In the Soviet Union, there is true creative collaboration between scientists and production workers, from engineers to rank-and-file workers. As the experience of the Stalin Five-Year Plans has shown, the innovations of leading workers, technicians and engineers have often served to indicate new paths of research to scientists in the solution of certain theoretical problems and their practical implementation. On the other hand, Soviet scientists invariably facilitate the growth of the creative initiative of practical workers of industry and agriculture.

This cooperation between science and industry is a great force which will, undoubtedly, help to solve the task of fulfilling the Five-Year Plan in four years.

POWER. Insulators at the Dnieper station. This restoration was done ahead of the time set.

CONSUMER INDUSTRY. Retail shop of the Hammer and Sickle iron and steel mill.

Building in Record Time

By L. Ginsberg

KEEPING pace with the tempo of industrial reconstruction and production—slated to reach the 1950 goal set by the Five-Year Plan in 1949—is the Soviet program of housing construction in the towns and countryside.

A key factor in the housing program—as it is in the industrial and agricultural programs—is the nationwide socialist emulation movement for overfulfillment of output quotas by individual workers. Individual workers set the pace, often overfulfilling their quotas severalfold, and other workers, numbering millions, take up the challenge. It is this movement and the spirit behind it, swelled to national proportions, that has spurred the country to undertake completion of the five-year program in four years.

The initiator of socialist competition among building workers is the Moscow bricklayer, Fedor Shavlyugin. His outstanding performance has sparked not only the Moscow reconstruction program; his example is being followed in many other cities of the Soviet Union as well.

In the 20 years that he has worked on various construction jobs in Moscow Shavlyugin has helped to build many fine buildings of which Moscow may justly be proud. Shavlyugin remembers the time when the number of bricks laid by a workman in one shift was counted in hundreds.

Two years ago, when Moscow launched its postwar building program, he laid almost 19 thousand bricks in eight hours.

But Shavlyugin didn't stop there. He set another labor record: working with two apprentices, he laid 31,092 bricks! The significance of this figure will be understood when compared with the fact that the daily quota of a bricklayer is 2,150 bricks. Twelve carloads of bricks had gone through Shavlyugin's hands that day, and the cranes had hoisted 40 tons of mortar.

Moscow building workers, fired with intense pride and love for their capital city, followed the example set by their fellow worker. On the same building site with Shavlyugin, who is now a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation, many other builders, too, began to perform outstanding feats of labor. Alexander Gorev and Fedor Parilov, engaged in facing the building with slabs, together daily perform the work of 16 skilled workers. Carpenters Zemin and Larkin, working on window bars; fitter Sinyaev, installing the ventilation system; Shibanova, a woman parquetry joiner; and the young workers straight from trades school—all are outdoing themselves and each other.

FAME. A bricklayer can be a famous man in the USSR. Shavlyugin and friends read what the papers say about him.

This effort, emulated on every building site in the capital, will substantially accelerate completion of the city's enormous construction project. Much was built in Moscow before the war; in the three prewar Five-Year Plans hundreds of new buildings were erected with a total floor space of some 65 million square feet—half of what had been built in the eight centuries of its existence. But the present scope of work leaves even these figures behind.

At present there are more than two thousand building sites in Moscow. The majority of the buildings going up are apartment houses. A new suburb is growing on the Khoroshevsky Highway, and other workers' districts are being expanded.

In the current five-year period Muscovites will get 32 million square feet of new housing floor space, which is the equivalent of six hundred seven-story buildings. If these houses were to be placed side-by-side in two rows they would form a street 21 miles long. In addition to apartment houses a large number of schools, theaters, hotels and office buildings are going up, and a group of new buildings for institutes of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR will form a science center.

Building workers engaged in other construction projects in the capital are equally inspired by the national socialist emulation spirit and by the examples set by such leading workers as bricklayer Shavlyugin. Architects and engineers engaged in the planning of Moscow's first skyscrapers, geologists and underground workers who are extending the city's subway network, gas line workers piping natural gas supplies to Moscow homes—all are working with a common will to make their city more comfortable and attractive.

The Recent Local Elections

THE final results of the elections of the local Soviets, which took place in five Soviet Republics on December 21, 1947, have been tabulated and released.

In the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, elections were held to six territorial Soviets, 47 regional Soviets, three regional Soviets in territories, six regional Soviets of autonomous regions, 10 area Soviets of national areas, 2,541 district Soviets, 727 urban Soviets, 344 district Soviets in towns, 41,049 rural Soviets and 1,063 settlement Soviets.

The results of the voting were as follows:

	Total electorate	Votes cast	Percentage
Territorial Soviets ..	7,070,459	7,063,103	99.9
Regional Soviets ...	46,500,068	46,465,321	99.92
Area Soviets	367,974	367,274	99.81
District Soviets ...	39,891,090	39,864,083	99.93
Urban Soviets	22,414,786	22,389,285	99.89
District Soviets in towns	13,315,416	13,300,657	99.89
Rural and Settlement Soviets ...	36,757,886	36,709,431	99.87

The number who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc was as follows:

	Votes	Percentage of total vote
Territorial Soviets..	7,027,803	99.5
Regional Soviets ...	46,137,965	99.29
Area Soviets	365,751	99.59
District Soviets	39,545,836	99.2
Urban Soviets	22,092,060	98.67
District Soviets in towns	13,125,270	98.68
Rural and Settlement Soviets	36,226,200	98.68

The number of ballots on which the names of the candidates were deleted, i.e., the number of votes cast against the candidates, was as follows:

	Votes	Percentage of total vote
Territorial Soviets ..	34,479	0.49
Regional Soviets ...	322,137	0.69
Area Soviets	1,482	0.4
District Soviets	314,682	0.79
Urban Soviets	293,346	1.31
District Soviets in towns	172,959	1.3
Rural and Settlement Soviets	476,560	1.3

The number of ballots declared invalid under Article 108 of the election regulations was 22,624.

In the Moscow region 99.99 per cent of the registered voters went to the polls. In all 300 electoral districts, 99.92 per cent of the total number of those who voted cast their votes for the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people. In the elections to the Moscow district Soviets, in all 4,696 electoral districts, 99.95 per cent of the total electorate took part. Of those who voted, 99.37 per cent cast their votes for the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people.

At Leningrad, 99.93 per cent of the total electorate took part in the elections to the City Soviet. Of those who voted, 99.17 per cent voted for the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people.

The total number of deputies elected to all the local Soviets is 766,563. All the deputies elected were candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc.

Among the deputies are 267,088 women (34.8 per cent).

Of the total number of deputies, 358,527 (or 46.8 per cent) are members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, and

VOTING. Nina Krupenina, an actress, casts her ballot as a young friend looks on.

408,036 (53.2 per cent) are non-Party people.

In 84 constituencies the candidates for rural Soviets failed to obtain an absolute majority and were not elected. In three constituencies in the elections to district Soviets and in one constituency in the election to a rural Soviet, the poll was declared invalid in view of violations of the regulations governing the elections. The elections did not take place in 14 constituencies, including one constituency of an urban Soviet, three constituencies of rural Soviets, and 10 constituencies of settlement Soviets. In all these constituencies new elections will be held.

In the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic, elections were held to 24 district Soviets, 12 urban Soviets, three district Soviets in the town of Petrozavodsk, 245 rural Soviets and 17 settlement Soviets.

In the district Soviets, 99.98 per cent of the electorate voted; and in the urban, rural and settlement Soviet elections, 99.96 per cent. The total vote in the whole Republic was 99.97 per cent of the electorate.

Of the total vote cast, the votes cast for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were:

	per cent
District Soviets	98.91
Urban Soviets	98.89
Rural and Settlement Soviets	98.51

The number of ballots on which the name of the candidate was struck out, i.e., the number of votes cast against candidates, was:

	per cent
District Soviets	1.08
Urban Soviets	1.11
Rural and Settlement Soviets	1.49

In all, 4,050 deputies were elected to all local Soviets. This number includes 1,595 women (39.38 per cent), 1,850 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (45.68 per cent), and 2,200 non-Party people (54.32 per cent). All elected deputies were candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people. The elections took place in all constituencies.

The Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic conducted elections to 38 district Soviets, 11 urban Soviets, four district Soviets of the city of Erevan, 711 rural Soviets, and 24 settlement Soviets. The percentage voting was:

	per cent
District Soviets	99.99
Urban Soviets	99.97
District Soviets in towns	99.95
Rural and Settlement Soviets	99.99

Of the total vote cast, the votes cast for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were:

	per cent
District Soviets	99.66
Urban Soviets	99.61
District Soviets in towns	99.69
Rural and Settlement Soviets	99.58

The number of votes cast against candidates running for local Soviet office was:

	Votes
District Soviets	1,787
Urban Soviets and District Soviets in towns	1,522
Rural and Settlement Soviets	1,964

A total of 123 ballots was declared invalid.

In all, 12,195 deputies were elected in the Armenian SSR, all of them candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. The deputies include 4,118 women (33.77 per cent), 6,411 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (52.57 per cent) and 5,784 non-Party people (47.43 per cent).

In three constituencies the candidates did not receive an absolute majority of votes and were not elected. In these wards new elections will be held.

Elections were held in the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic to 60 district Soviets, 14 urban Soviets, three district Soviets in towns, 1,236 rural Soviets and 12 settlement Soviets. The percentage voting was:

	per cent
District Soviets	99.94
Urban Soviets	99.9
District Soviets in towns	99.9
Rural and Settlement Soviets	99.94

Of the total vote cast, the percentage of votes cast for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc was:

	per cent
District Soviets	99.49
Urban Soviets and District Soviets in towns	99.22
Rural and Settlement Soviets	99.26

The percentage of ballots on which the name of the candidate was struck out, i.e., the percentage of votes cast against the candidates, was:

	per cent
District Soviets	0.51
Urban Soviets and District Soviets in towns	0.78
Rural and Settlement Soviets	0.74

Ballots declared invalid numbered 248.

The total number of deputies elected to local Soviets in the Moldavian SSR is 21,174, all candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. The deputies include 6,979 women (32.96 per cent), 2,840 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (13.41 per cent), and 18,334 non-Party people (86.59 per cent).

In one rural constituency the election was declared invalid in view of violations of the election regulations. In addition, in one rural constituency elections were not held. In these two constituencies new elections were scheduled.

In the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic elections were held to 25 regional Soviets, 13 area Soviets, 750 district Soviets, 258 urban Soviets, 86 district Soviets in towns, 16,405 rural Soviets and 465 settlement Soviets.

The percentage of qualified voters who voted was as follows:

	per cent
Regional Soviets	99.96
Area Soviets	99.99
District Soviets	99.98
District Soviets in towns	99.93
Rural Soviets	99.98
Settlement Soviets	99.96

The percentage who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc was as follows:

	per cent
Regional Soviets	99.68
Area Soviets	99.83
District Soviets	99.57
District Soviets in towns	99.33
Rural Soviets	99.4
Settlement Soviets	99.21

In all, 307,361 deputies were elected, all of them candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. They include 99,782 women (32.46 per cent), 97,777 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party (31.81 per cent) and 209,584 non-Party people (68.19 per cent).

In 11 rural constituencies the candidates failed to obtain an absolute majority of votes and were not elected. In three constituencies for rural Soviets the elections were declared invalid in view of violations of the election regulations. New elections will be held in these constituencies.

How Soviet Farmers Are Paid On Collective Farms

By Mikhail Sukhanov

In collective farms—agricultural co-operatives — the annual income (after providing for seed stocks and funds for development, mutual aid, etc.) is distributed among their members according to the work-days to their credit.

The collective farm work-day is something quite new. It originated in the process of the socialist transformation of Soviet agriculture. In it is expressed the socialist principle, "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work," in accordance with which the income of every collective farmer depends upon the quantity and quality of his labor.

To carry this principle into effect it is necessary to determine exactly how much labor the collective farmer contributes to the common effort. For this purpose rates of output are fixed in collective farms. These rates, in conformity with the collective farm statute, are worked out by the administrative board and are subject to the approval of a general membership meeting of the collective farm.

But since there are different kinds of farm work—some more difficult and more intricate, others simpler and easier, some requiring more experience and knowledge, others less—all farm work is divided into seven groups in order of their importance and laboriousness. The more important and the harder the work, the more work-days are credited for the fulfillment of the fixed rate of output. Distribution of the income of a collective farm among its members is effected exclusively on the basis of work-days, i.e., the share of each collective farmer is in accordance with the number of work-days to his credit. Consequently, the more labor the collective farmer expends and the higher its quality, the greater is his income.

But the earnings of collective farmers do not depend only on the number of work-days put in by them, but also on the total income of the collective farm. The higher this income, the greater is the rate of pay per work-day, and consequently the higher is the income of the collective farmer. Under such a system, it is therefore to the interest of the collective farmer not only that he work better, but that all others also work well, for the labor of each increases the wealth of the collective farm and thus ensures high earnings to the collective farmers.

The collective farms have finished the harvesting and fulfilled the plans for sales of produce to the State, provided for seed stocks and various funds, and have started distribution of their income among their members in accordance with the work-days to their credit.

The past year's results demonstrate the growth and vitality of the collective farms. Despite the ravages of the war and of the serious drought of 1946 the collective farms last year secured

GRAIN. Girls of a high-ranking Ukrainian farming team beam as their wheat is inspected.

LEISURE. Young people of a Ukrainian collective farm chat in the evening.

an abundant harvest. Reports from all parts of the USSR indicate a picture of high earnings of the collective farmers.

In the Akhundov collective farm in the Azerbaijan Republic the collective farmers are receiving for each work-day 11 pounds of rice in addition to other produce and money. And in another part of the country, at the Udarnik collective farm in the Tula region, 14 pounds of cereals, 26 pounds of potatoes, nine pounds of other vegetables and six rubles in cash were paid for each work-day.

Six and one half pounds of grain was paid per work-day in the Urals collective farm named for the Eleventh Cavalry Division. There, Marfa Slobodskova, a rank-and-file collective farmer, together with two members of her family, put in 995 work-days and received almost three tons of grain—a ton of grain to each person—and that only as an advance payment! And the family of Nikitin, from the Fifteen Years of the October Revolution collective farm in the Gorky region, for their 1,500 work-days received five tons of grain.

LEADING FARMER. F. Kushkhambiyev of Kabarda.

DAIRYMAID. On a collective farm in Kirghizia.

HAPPY OLD AGE. Flax growers of Kirov Region.

In accordance with a government decision additional payment is made in collective farms for raising the yields of grain and industrial crops and the productivity of animal husbandry. Part of the produce obtained above plan is distributed among the collective farmers who have achieved the overfulfillment of the plan. This is a further incentive to collective farmers to raise the productivity of their labor. In the past year thousands of teams (each team consisting of five or six persons), millions of collective farmers, throughout the USSR harvested crops in excess of quota, for which they received additional pay.

In the Spark of Socialism collective farm in the Yaroslavl region, a team headed by a collective farm woman, Gorsheleva, harvested on an average 2.56 tons of barley per hectare.* As additional pay for exceeding the plan, the members of this team received 2.1 tons of grain. A team headed by another collective farm woman, Budova, of the Budyonny collective farm in the Don area, exceeded the plan for the wheat harvest. Budova has received 1.5 tons of grain for her work-days and about one ton of grain as additional pay for exceeding the plan.

The examples cited above are not those of the highest rates per work-day. In Azerbaijan, 44 pounds of grain was paid per work-day in the Voroshilov collective farm, which gathered a particularly high harvest. Here the collective farmer Novsun Damirov has received more than 15 tons of grain for his work-days. Other members of the collective farm have done equally well.

Collective farmers receive for their work-days not only grain, but also other agricultural produce: meat, fats, potatoes and other vegetables, fruit, honey, etc. In addition, every collective farmer has his own private farm with a kitchen garden, an orchard, a cow and other animals, poultry, an apiary, etc., from which he also derives a certain income.

Every Soviet collective farmer sees the results of his labor on the collective farm. He receives for his labor grain, vegetables, fruit and other produce, as well as money in amounts which not only are sufficient to provide him with a well-to-do and cultured life, but also give him confidence in the future. Life itself has shown to the Soviet farmer that his personal well-being depends upon the prosperity of the collective farm. The richer and the stronger the collective farm, the richer and more secure is his own life. This coordination of social and personal interests is one of the most important causes of the strength of the collective farm system.

*Metric tons—2,204 lbs.; 1 hectare = 2.471 acres.

CAPITAL. Riga of the ancient culture and the modern industry, viewed from the Western Dvina river.

Latvia Builds Anew

By Boris Polevoi and K. Graudin

In a little Latvian seaside village smelling of tar and smoked fish, an old fisherman who has cast his nets for more than half a century in the unfriendly waters of the Baltic told us a folk legend that goes something like this:

Once upon a time, there lived in the Amber country, as the Letts call their land, a rich and cruel baron. He was notorious all along the coast for his evil deeds, for the lives he had crushed and the blood he had shed; and when the time came for him to die the baron pleaded with the devil thus: "I have been a faithful servant of yours all my life. Postpone my death; let it wait until I bring up an heir to inherit my possessions." And the devil said to the baron. "Very well. You have served me well. I shall do as you ask."

But the baron was childless. Where was he to find an heir? Riding one day along the seashore he saw some fishermen casting their nets: handsome stalwart lads they were—brothers, obviously. The baron rushed toward them, seized the youngest, threw him across his saddle and carried him off to his castle. "You shall be my heir," he said.

And a miracle happened: the boy fell asleep. He slept for a year; he slept for two. Ten years, 20 years passed, and still he slept. The baron finally lost patience. "What do I want with such an heir?" he stormed. "Throw him to the dogs!" The boy was ejected from the castle. His mother found him. She wept over him, kissed and caressed him. An a second miracle happened: the bo awoke. "Ah, what shall you do?" she wailed. "You're so small. You brothers have grown up to th skies. They can wade across the gulf." And here a third miracle happened Perhaps it was the mother's caresse —at any rate the boy began to grow so fast that before his mother's tear had dried he had become a grown man like his brothers. His shoulder reached to the clouds, and he strod forth across the gulf to help his broth ers draw in their nets with the ric catch.

WEAVER. E. Savelyeva is a deputy to the Latvian Supreme Soviet.

This tale has a symbolic meanin today, because the story of the awak ened youth who became a giant o a man is very much like the stor of Latvia herself. The story parallel the processes now taking place al over the Latvian land.

In the year 1919, reactionary force cut Latvia off from the family o Soviet peoples who had begun t build their socialist state. This cul tured, industrial region whose econ omy had been closely linked wit Russia became a puppet state, a semi colonial raw material preserve of cap

italist Europe. Latvia, just as the young fisherman, torn from the family of free peoples, fell into a deep sleep, ceased to grow and became feeble and wan. The rulers of bourgeois Latvia turned their country into an anteroom of capitalist Europe.

Their first measure was the deliberate and planned undermining of Latvian industry. And they scored some notable successes in this respect. In 1938, only one seventh as many workers were employed in the industrial enterprises of Latvia as in 1913.

The famous Provodnik plant of Riga was closed down and its 15 thousand workers left jobless.

The Riga railway car building works, an enormous enterprise which once manufactured splendid refrigerator cars, was also shut down, and its equipment dismantled. In a few remote corners of its tremendous, empty workshops the last vestiges of a once flourishing concern manufactured soup ladles, saucepans, pots and bedsteads.

The equipment of the large Riga shipyards, in whose docks battleships were built before the First World War, was turned over to the British in exchange for footwear, wool, textiles and cotton.

The famous ports of Riga, Liepaya and Ventspils, where ships flying all the flags of the world used to dock, fell into decline.

Riga had a permanent army of more than 23 thousand unemployed. Tens of thousands of skilled workers were obliged to earn a living by working for rich farmers, the "gray barons" of bourgeois Latvia.

But at last that for which progressive people in Latvia had yearned and struggled through the lean years finally came to pass: the Latvian people returned to the family of Soviet nations, to their motherland. Latvia awoke from its long, heavy sleep, and, like the fisherboy in the fairy tale, began to grow by leaps and bounds to catch up with its brothers who in the past decades had grown to the mighty stature of titans.

And wherever you travel in Latvia today you see evidence of this rapid and mighty process of development, the speedy restoration of the land, its factories and its homes, which were destroyed by war and occupation, and an eagerness to embrace socialist culture.

SKILLED LIGHT INDUSTRY. Parts for automatic telephone exchanges.

With a generous hand the Soviet Government is helping the Latvian people to revive their Republic. More than 2,000,000,000 rubles were appropriated under the Five-Year Plan for Latvia. Never have such lavish investments been made in Latvian economy.

The new Five-Year Plan will not only heal the wounds inflicted by the war but will revive Latvian industry, regenerate the prosperity of Latvia's ports, and rebuild and revive transport—in a word, effect an all-round transformation of the country.

The banks of the broad Daugava River in Riga are today the scene of intensive activity. Divers are descending to the river bottom, steam hammers are pounding, cranes are lowering huge granite slabs into the waters. Ask any of these people—an engineer, a job superintendent or a sailor on some divers' boat—what is being done, and he will eagerly tell you that the Riga port, which was totally wrecked by the Germans, will soon become the pride of the Soviet land.

Traveling in Latvia by train or by car, you see restoration work going on everywhere. A second track is being laid on the Riga-Moscow line. New locomotive and car depots and repair shops are being built at the junctions.

A new electrical machinery works is now housed in the premises of the Provodnik plant which stood empty for more than 20 years. Riga railway car builders, who spent their time in bourgeois Latvia making saucepans and axes, are now turning out handsome cars for suburban electric trains, while the enterprise's designing bureau is drawing up plans for subway cars. The two Riga factories producing radio sets (VEF and Radiotekhnika) are vying with one another in overfulfilling their plans, and the fame of Riga radio sets is spreading from day to day.

The countryside is keeping pace with the towns in economic regeneration. Farmers, who used to live each for himself, have now pooled forces to drain the swamps and build irrigation canals, which by 1950 ought to add tens of thousands of acres to the arable land of this small maritime country. The farmers no longer regard machinery as an instrument of enslavement. They turn to the machine and tractor stations for help in their efforts to revive and develop their agriculture.

In the struggle for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan the Latvian people are acquiring a socialist attitude to labor. More than 35 thousand workers are exceeding their production quotas every day at plants and factories, in shipyards, ports and on the railways.

Latvia, returned to the family of friendly Soviet nations, has awakened from its heavy stupor. It is growing by leaps and bounds, catching up with its elder brothers of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Training Young Actors

STUDENTS. At the school of Moscow's Maly Theater. Young actresses in a class in dramatic gesture.

LEARNING MAKEUP. Here the students learn to create the appearance of age or youth, health or illness, and all the other illusions at the command of those skilled in the art of stage makeup.

SCENE FROM A PLAY. Students perform as their instructor, People's Artist of the Russian SFSR Konstantin Zubov (seated at the table) watches.

BORDER TO BORDER. On any day, from the far North to the sunny South, the camera can find the Soviet people working and building.

A Day in the USSR

By Vladimir Tregubov

"A DAY IN A VICTORIOUS COUNTRY," a new documentary film in color, is a striking record of the everyday life of the vast Soviet Union. The hundred cameramen who filmed it traveled to some of the most remote places of the USSR.

The particular day chosen—August 14, 1947—was in no way remarkable; any day in the life of the socialist state during the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan shows much that is impressive and significant.

The narrative of the film, *A Day in a Victorious Country,* underlines the creative and enthusiastic work that has become a matter of honor, valor and heroism for the people of the Soviet Union, the people who are turning to good use their country's natural wealth, building its industries and power stations, and helping its recovery from the destruction wrought by the Germans.

Scenes of the forests, steppes, mountains, the highland pastures, the seas that wash the shores of the USSR, give the spectator an impression of the vastness and variety of the terrain of the Soviet Union. Thus, in an hour and a half, the audience is taken on an excursion to the Arctic, to Soviet vessels in far northern seas, to the eastern outposts, to the fishers of the island of Sakhalin, to Kamchatka's volcanoes and geysers.

We meet Semivolos, the miner who has risen to the position of manager of a mine in Krivoy Rog in the Ukraine, and Gavrilyuk, chairman of the Lenin collective farm in the Tambov Region. The feats that these people have performed are also illustrated. On August 14, the mine where Semivolos works completed, ahead of time, its plan for 10 months, and the Lenin collective farm launched a new power station.

That same day a number of Byelorussian peasants who have been rebuilding their village after its destruction by the German fascists during the invasion moved into new houses, and the joyous house-warming is shown.

The collective farmers of Uzbekistan who volunteered to help the workers building the great Farkhad Canal in their Republic finished a section of it on August 14. The picture shows the Uzbeks' dream of the irrigation of large tracts of arid land in the process of realization.

An extremely interesting section of the film is Leningrad's reconstruction and the new buildings completed on August 14.

The camera also shows parts of the Black Sea port, Sevastopol, the squares and streets that have been rebuilt through the efforts of the Soviet people after the devastation left by the German invasion. The Ukraine's mines and plants are being repaired and reconstructed. A memorable picture is that of the mining town of Krasnodon, associated with the "Young Guard," the patriots whose names are an inspiration to the rising Soviet generation.

In the Moscow scenes of the film, the cameramen visited scientists, factory workers and noted musicians.

The Soviet violinist, David Oistrach, and his son are studying a new composition for their next concert; and that same day in the Pamirs, far from Moscow, a party of mountaineers headed by Eugene Abolakov, well-known explorer and sculptor, was making the ascent of a new peak, now named the Thirtieth October Anniversary. These are also recorded by the camera.

The scene changes to Sochi, the finest of the Black Sea health resorts, where weavers from Orekhovo-Zuevo, workers from Baku, and famous actors of the Moscow theater are shown spending their holidays. Another holiday scene is taken in Artek, the seaside children's camp in the Crimea. Each summer several thousand schoolchildren go to this splendid health resort. Then we are shown Baku, its oil derricks and wells. A new gusher is photographed.

All these pictures show various aspects of a day in the Soviet Union, a peaceful socialist country, where the highest interests are the prosperity of the people, the advancement of their welfare, culture and arts.

As the 14th of August draws to a close, the film takes us to Red Square in Moscow, where the Kremlin bells ring out the chimes of the hymn of a victorious country, where the people are free, where great friendship links all the nationalities peopling the country of happiness and bold achievement, the country advancing toward communism.

The Ceramics of Isidore Frikh-Khar

By I. Suvorova

Among the new work by Soviet artists shown at the exhibition held in honor of the 30th anniversary of the Revolution was the sculpture of Isidore Frikh-Khar of Moscow.

Isidore Frikh-Khar was born in the Caucasus in 1893. He took part in the Civil War of 1918-1921. He never attended an art school, but studied independently. By 1925 his work had won him a place among the foremost Soviet sculptors. Sculptures by Frikh-Khar are to be seen in many of the museums and galleries of the USSR. His figure of Pushkin won him a diploma at the Paris Exhibition of 1937.

Frikh-Khar says that he was impelled to take up sculpture by the desire to create things that would become a part of people's surroundings, that would give a sense of pleasure and happiness.

He was attracted to majolica as a medium because of its fine decorative possibilities, its color, glaze and brilliance. He even liked the uncertainty in it. "The artist in majolica is never sure how the thing will turn out until after firing. The most unexpected things can happen, and it is this uncertainty that lasts till the end of the whole process, and the surprises it often brings, that fascinate me."

ISIDORE FRIKH-KHAR

The first things he attempted in faience were small, but even in these he displayed a marked inclination toward the monumental, vivid color and the decorative. Notable among them was his *Shashlyk-vendor*. As he was going through the streets of the old part of Tashkent in Central Asia, the sculptor noticed at the crossroads an Uzbek who was selling shashlyk — mutton roasted on spits over a pan of charcoal. The figure stood out against the background of the dark southern night and the traditional circular tin plate for fanning the embers shone like a moon in his hand. The sculptor resolved to convey this impression in his design. In this work the decorative feeling is harmonized with realism in the forms, coloring and character of the whole.

The sculptor realized the possibilities of this medium for large compositions, and used it for bas-reliefs. Many colors are used in these works, and the sculptor has made bold use of architecture, masses of people, orchestras and herds. The style is at once dignified, decorative and in keeping with the traditions of Oriental art.

Most of Frikh-Khar's work is done in majolica. He loves the harmony he can obtain between color and sculptured form. It helps, he says, to give character to the form and bring out the idea; this he regards as a most interesting problem, and he has devoted many years to it. He paints his sculpture before glazing it. His favorite colors are turquoise and cobalt blue, and he uses a good deal of white and gold, which, he feels, helps the plasticity of form and the ringing quality of ceramics.

At present the sculptor is engaged on a huge majolica fountain, intended for a park in Moscow. The dark and light blues, peach and white will gain in effect from the background of foliage and flower beds. *The Fountain of Abundance,* as he calls it, will be an unusual example of decorative faience sculpture. Two hundred feet in diameter, designed in three tiers, it will have a large five-pointed star-shaped basin of dark blue marble, light blue majolica and gleaming bronze. The center is to be an intricate composition of marble and colored majolica, crowned by a group of dancing children. A powerful jet of water will play above this. Snowy doves perch on the ledges of the fountain, and the transparent waters will give the white and colored majolica a luminous and brilliant quality.

CERAMIC GROUP. Frikh-Khar's "Life Is Better, Life Is Happier," done in majolica.

Chigorin Chess Tournament Held

BOTVINNIK. The Soviet grandmaster, often considered the leading contender for the world championship, in a previous tournament.

PLAYING his first major match since his return to competition after more than a year of retirement, Grandmaster Mikhail Botvinnik, Soviet chess ace, captured first place in the international Chigorin tournament held in Moscow from November 25 to December 23, 1947. Leading chess players from Slavic countries participated in the tournament, dedicated to the memory of the great Russian chess player, M. I. Chigorin (1850-1908), founder of the Russian school of chess. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria, in addition to the Soviet Republics, were represented.

Botvinnik, star of the 1946 Soviet-American contest and several times USSR champion, led the field of contestants in the Chigorin tournament with 11 games won out of 15. Botvinnik, an electrical engineer by profession, withdrew from competition more than a year ago to complete work for his doctorate.

A close second, with 10½ points, was Soviet Grandmaster Vyacheslav Ragozin, veteran of international competitions and winner of several prizes.

Soviet Grandmasters Isaac Boleslavsky and Vassili Smyslov tied for third and fourth place with 10 points each. Soviet Grandmaster Alexander Kotov followed in fifth place with 9½ points.

Tied for sixth and seventh places were Soviet Grandmaster Paul Keres and Master N. Novotelnov of the Russian SFSR, with 9 points each. The Czechoslovakian chess champion, L. Pahman, placed eighth with a score of 8½. P. Trifunovic, Yugoslavian chess master, placed ninth with 8 points, while his countryman, Master S. Gligoric, followed with 7½ points.

Soviet Grandmaster Igor Bondarevsky scored 6½ points, to place eleventh. Chess Master R. Kholmov of the Byelorussian SSR placed twelfth, with 5½ points.

C. Kottnauer, Czechoslovakian chess master, scored 5 points to take 13th place; Masters R. Plater of Poland and A. Sokolsky of the Ukrainian SSR tied for 14th and 15th with 4 points each; and Master A. Tzvetkov of Bulgaria placed last with 2 points.

In statements to the press, the players were generous in paying tribute to their opponents. After winning one of the early games from the Byelorussian master, R. Kholmov, the Czechoslovak champion, L. Pahman, commented: "Kholmov defended himself with rare ingenuity. We heard that Kholmov had had little tournament experience. But if USSR masters play like that in their first big event, then what may one expect of the famed Soviet grandmasters?"

He added: "The organization of the event is perfect. It is a real pleasure to play in the packed hall among so many friendly faces. It will be a hard job to get in among the prize winners."

S. Gligoric, Yugoslav chess master, was greatly impressed with Moscow. "When my country was groaning under the German yoke and we were fighting the invader on the battlefronts, we dreamed of going to Moscow," he said. "Today this is reality. Whatever the result of the tournament may be, my best and most cherished prize will remain my Moscow visit."

Gligoric noted that chess is attaining wide popularity among the people of Yugoslavia, who follow the Chigorin style of play, and added: "Trifunovic and I are proud to have been among the contenders in this contest. We hope that this tournament is the first of many encounters of Slav players."

The holding of the tournament coincided with the publication of a new book on Chigorin's games by the chess theoretician Nikolai Grekov.

Soviet Sports in 1947

By Nikolai Ozolin

The author of this article is a noted athlete of the Soviet Union, who has held the national title in the pole vault for many years. Ozolin has been awarded the title of Merited Athlete of the USSR. He now heads the light athletics department at the Central Institute of Physical Culture in Moscow.

THE past light athletics season in the Soviet Union saw a keen struggle for top honors, which led to the improvement of many national records and revealed a wealth of new talent.

Among the best performers in 1947 was Alexandra Chudina, a member of the Dynamo Sports Society. She began training seriously at the beginning of the season to eclipse the world record in the pentathlon, 4,470 points, held by Mauermeyer of Germany. Chudina succeeded in setting a new Soviet record and registering a new world record with 4,561 points in the pentathlon.

Klavdia Mayuchaya had long dreamed of hurling the javelin beyond the 50-meter mark. This dream came true toward the close of the season, when Mayuchaya tossed the javelin for a distance of 50.32 meters. This happened a month after she won a gold medal for placing first in the women's javelin throw at the USSR light athletics championship meet with a toss of 47.82 meters. (Nina Dumbadze, the Soviet Union's champion woman discus thrower, who hails from Tbilisi, the capital of Soviet Georgia, hurled the discus beyond the 50-meter mark for a new world record in 1946.)

Mayuchaya has a formidable rival in the person of Ludmila Anokina of Leningrad, who likewise heaved the javelin beyond 50 meters. Her latest achievement is just 12 centimeters short of Mayuchaya's record.

Valentina Fokina of Moscow established a new Soviet record in the women's 80-meter hurdles, breasting the tape in 11.5 seconds.

Good scores were made by Zoya Dukhovich, a 20-year-old athlete of Rostov. She covered 100 meters in 12.1 seconds and 200 meters in 25 seconds flat. She triumphed in the 200-meter sprint in the USSR championship meet, beating Yevgenia Sechenova, 1946 European champion, in this event.

An impressive showing was made by two young Moscow girls, Nadezhda Gerasimova and Lydia Borodina, both of whom are not yet 19. In the 1947 championship contests, Gerasimova took the title in the girls' dash (26.3 seconds) and the running broad jump (5.46 meters). Borodina heaved the shot for a distance of 12.58 meters and cleared 1.53 meters in the running high jump.

In the men's division, standout of the season was Vladimir Volkov, a new decathlon star. He engaged in skiing, swimming, horseback riding and a few other sports before taking up light athletics. His all-round physical development was a major factor in his achievements in 1947. He scored a total of 7,159 points to win the national decathlon title and chalk up a new Soviet record. Here are some of his results: 100 meters—11.4 seconds; broad jump—6.63 meters; shot put—11.67 meters; discus—36.04 meters; pole vault—3.90 meters; javelin—60.89 meters; and 1,500-meter run—4 minutes 33.8 seconds.

Heino Lipp, a young athlete of Estonia, bettered the Soviet shot put record several times in the course of the 1947 season. His best distance was 16.73 meters. Lipp likewise won the discus title with a toss of 49.41 meters. Ali Isayev, another Soviet star, improved upon Lipp's showing during a meet in Tashkent, Uzbekistan, in mid-November, where he registered a distance of 49.80 meters.

Alexander Pugachevsky, the noted Soviet middle-distance runner, set a new Soviet record in the 3,000-meter steeplechase—9 minutes 10 seconds.

Young Timothy Lunev of Novosibirsk, in his first year of competition with adult runners, twice bettered the USSR record in the 200-meter hurdles. His record now stands at 29.4 meters.

Along with the well-known athletes, outstanding results were scored by the younger generation of athletes. Lev Sanadze, a young sprinter of Soviet Georgia, for instance, turned in a 10.7-second performance in the century dash. George Gilde of Estoni was just one tenth of a second slower A promising pole-vaulter is V. Knya zev of Moscow who cleared fou meters this season.

More than 10 million people par ticipated in the spring and autumn cross-country running races sponsored jointly by the trade unions and Young Communist League organizations in 1947.

The success of Soviet athletes wa strikingly displayed at the 1947 All Union Sports Parade in Moscow las summer. Thousands of spectators wit nessed the performances of athletic delegations of the 16 Soviet Republics who demonstrated the genuine mas scale of physical culture and sports, the high skill and training of Soviet youth and their fitness for labor and for the defense of the country.

High spot of the festival was the reception given by the Soviet Govern ment in the Kremlin on July 22 for the participants in the parade. Addressing the athletes, Vyacheslav M. Molotov urged them to pay profound attention to the mass development of sports, to the training of rank-and-file athletes and the improvement of the quality of sports performances. Replying on be half of millions of Soviet athletes, the leading athletes pledged to exert all effort to develop physical culture, to draw more people into sports, improve their skill and capture new athletic honors.

SPORTS made a rapid recovery in the Soviet Union after the war. The prewar level of mass physical culture work has already been surpassed. A con siderable number of skilled physical cul ture instructors and coaches are being trained throughout the country. The USSR has 11 institutes of physical culture, 39 specialized physical culture high schools, and three special institutes engaged in physical culture research More than five million boys and girls in the Soviet Union are regularly at tending sports classes.

Large sums are appropriated every year for the promotion of physical cul ture and sports in the USSR.

Notes on Soviet Life

HAVING gathered this year's rich harvest and completed their autumn work, the collective farmers of the Ukrainian SSR have started active preparations for the 1948 spring sowing. On the collective farms, scores of thousands of plows and cultivators have already been repaired, stocks of seeds prepared and more than half a million cartloads of fertilizer brought to the fields. Repair of tractors and agricultural machinery is in full swing at the machine and tractor stations.

★

Put into operation a few months ago, the Moscow auto factory, making Moskvich cars, has turned out more than one thousand of these low-powered automobiles. Six more automobile plants will be completed in the period of the current Five-Year Plan. Annual output of automobiles in the Soviet Union by 1950 will reach 500 thousand.

★

Joseph Stalin has sent messages of congratulation to industrial rehabilitation workers at Dniepropetrovsk and Rostov-on-Don. In Dniepropetrovsk, the Soviet Union's largest rolling mill has been restored to operation, while in Rostov the first section of the huge agricultural machinery plant has been rebuilt.

★

Semyen Ginsburg, Minister of the Building Materials Industry of the USSR, has been awarded the Order of Lenin on the occasion of his 50th birthday, for his services in the field of industrial construction.

★

Academician A. Y. Vyshinsky, Deputy Minister for Foreign Affairs of the USSR, is to head a group of Soviet scholars who will conduct special research on questions of international law, peace and war, and the problem of international criminal law. This is part of the 1948 plan of work of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

This year the third volume of a large research work, *Essays on the History of Russian Economic Thought*, covering the period 1900-1917, will be published by the Academy.

By decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Army General Nikolai Bulganin, Minister of the Armed Forces of the USSR, has been promoted to the rank of Marshal of the Soviet Union. The promotion was conferred in recognition of his outstanding services during the recent war and in the past period.

★

Output of tractors at the famous Stalingrad factory has reached the prewar level. The scene of weeks of bitter fighting during the battle of Stalingrad, the tractor plant was reduced to ruins. Rehabilitation work began the day after the Germans surrendered.

★

A new theater with a seating capacity of one thousand has been completed in the Stalin district, an industrial section of Moscow. The theater has a stage five stories high, a concert hall and two lounge rooms. Passing through a portico beneath the sculpture, "Victory," the spectators enter a magnificent vestibule illuminated with fluorescent lamps. An unusual feature of the design for this theater are the flower beds and open spaces on the sides of the building.

★

The television center, restarted in Leningrad after an interval of six years, has been almost completely reconstructed. A transmitter of a new type has been installed. All the equipment, made at Leningrad factories, bears witness to the high level of Soviet radio engineering. Two more television centers will be set up—one in Kiev and the other in Sverdlovsk—in the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

★

Many collective farms of Moldavia experimented with rice crops last year. The rice was planted in the Dnieper everglades. The Voroshilov collective farm planted 10 hectares (a hectare = 2.471 acres) and averaged 4.8 metric tons of rice per hectare. Experiments with rice crops were likewise conducted in the Prut everglades. Rice cultivation in the Moldavian Republic will be increased tenfold this year.

Tens of thousands of unusually powerful machine tools were made in 1947 by Soviet enterprises. They include a ball-polishing machine which treats bearings of from 50 to 200 millimeters in diameter. A Ukrainian factory has a new milling machine which is operated by 17 electric motors. It can make machine parts weighing up to 150 tons. In Novosibirsk a powerful steam-hydraulic press weighing 135 tons has been constructed. It can press a piece of metal weighing up to 15 tons.

One of the new automatic machines is adapted for the simultaneous drilling of 85 holes in a 12-meter-long metal girder, performing this operation in five minutes. Another new machine requires only 25 seconds to drill 26 holes in a sheet of metal.

★

A new railway 100 miles long, connecting a number of industrial centers between the towns of Sosva and Alapayevsk in the Urals, has been put into operation.

★

River transport of the northern districts of the USSR in 1947 carried two million tons more freight than in 1946. About one million tons of cargo above plan were carried by boats of the central river lines. As compared with 1946, 50 per cent more grain, 26 per cent more oil and 20 per cent more building materials were delivered to Moscow by water in 1947.

★

The Moscow Dynamoes won their recent football match against a Norwegian team in Oslo, 7-0. Thus the Dynamo footballers have won all three of their matches abroad this season, with a total score of 17-2. King Haakon of Norway attended the Oslo game.

★

Twenty-four heavy engineering works in the USSR completed their 1947 production programs ahead of schedule. Output of the heavy engineering industry as a whole has reached the prewar level.

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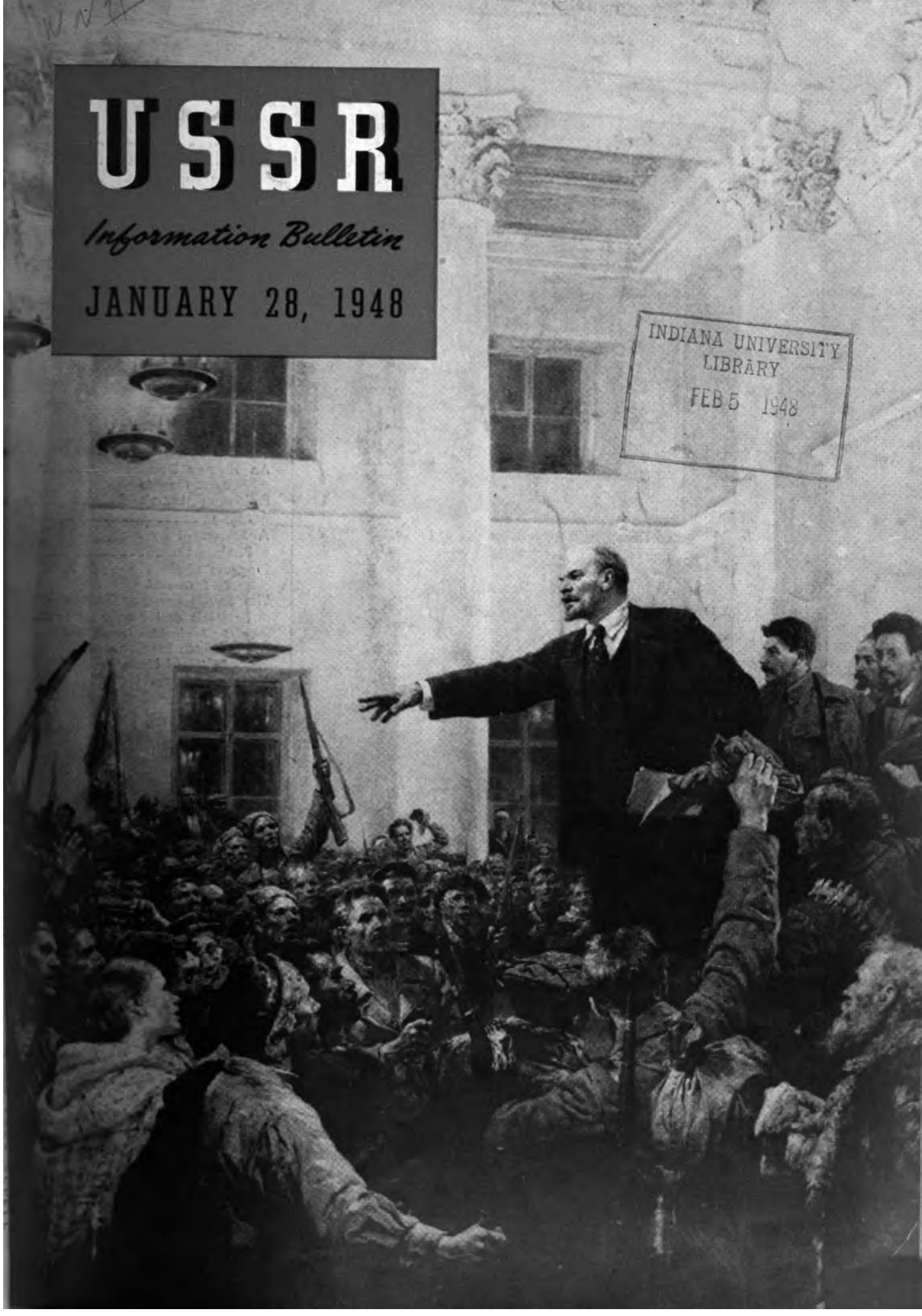

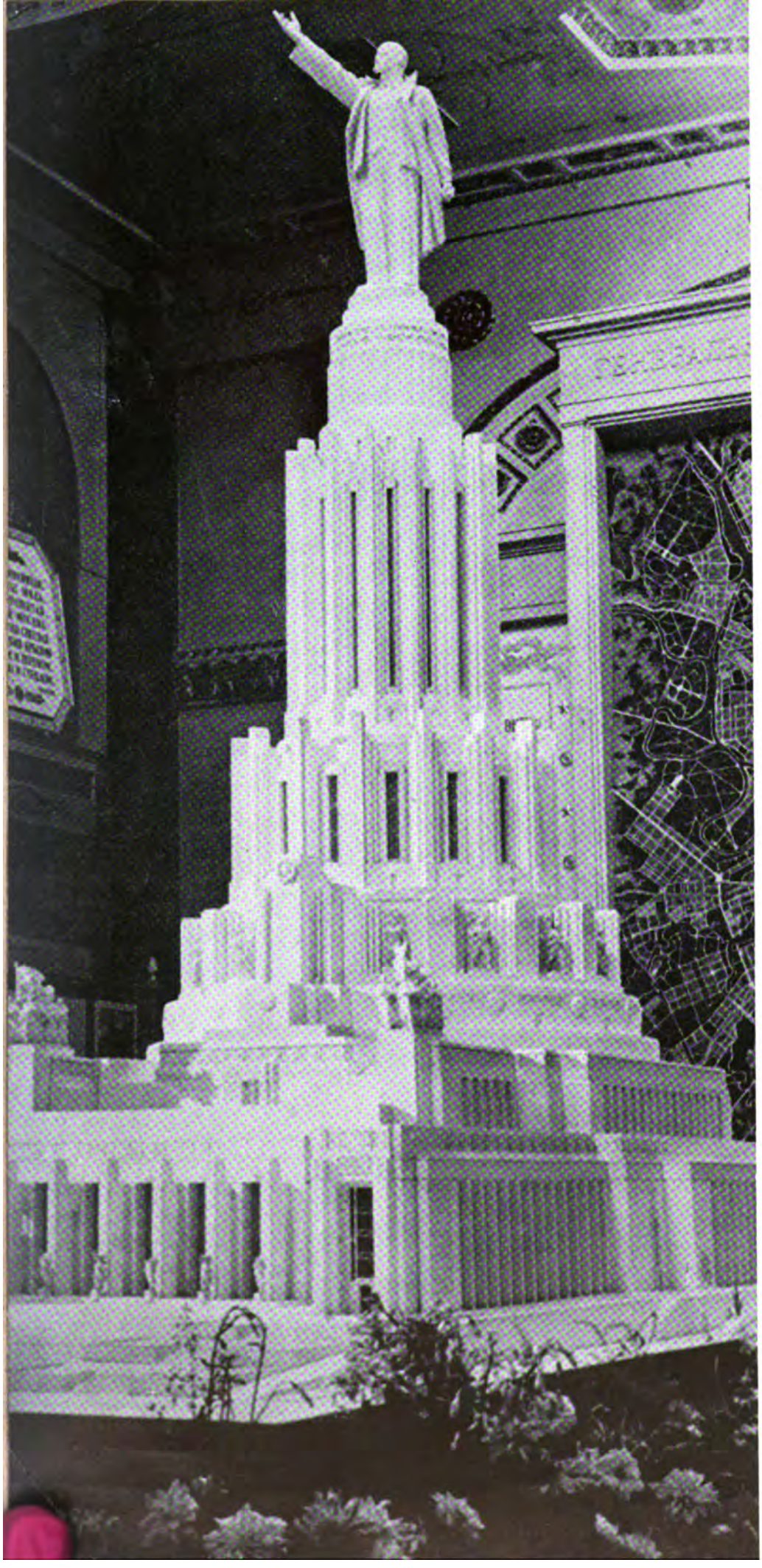

USSR

INFORMATION BULLETIN

VOLUME VIII ★ NUMBER 2

JANUARY 28, 1948

Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 for six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

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WORLD'S TALLEST BUILDING. (Left) Scale model of the projected Palace of Soviets, which will tower more than a quarter of a mile high. A statue of Lenin will crown this monument to the great revolutionary leader.

FRONT COVER: "V. I. Lenin proclaims Soviet power." Painting by V. Serov.

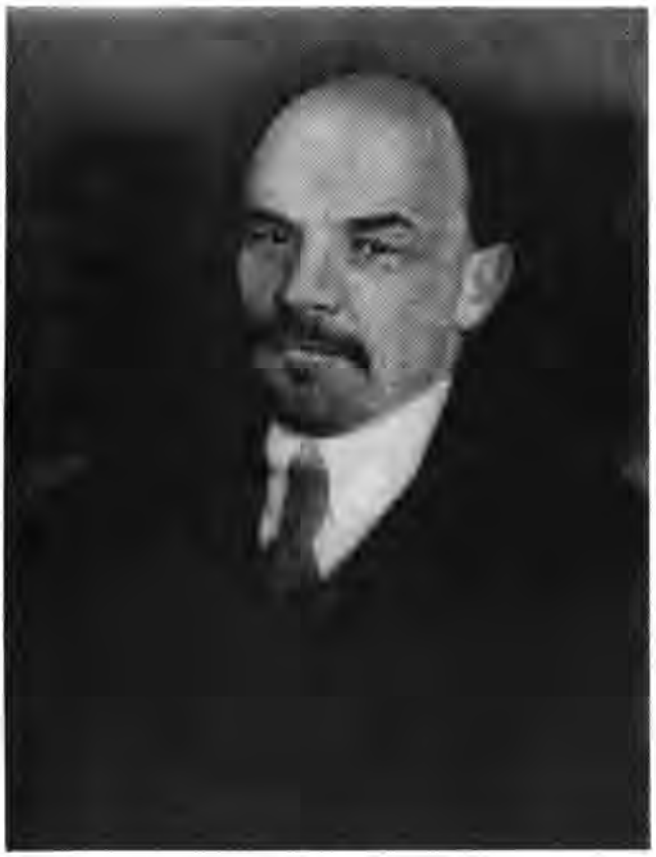
BACK COVER: Turbines of the Volkhov hydroelectric station near Leningrad, the first power station built in the USSR in accordance with Lenin's electrification program.

Lenin on the Impregnability Of the Soviet State

By N. Matiushkin

All the historic, social, and political achievements of the Soviet people, their achievements in creative labor and on the field of battle, are indivisibly connected with the names of Lenin and Stalin. Lenin and Stalin led the struggle of the people of Russia against the exploiters, led the working people to victory in the October Socialist Revolution. Lenin and Stalin are the founders and builders of the Soviet State.

Lenin realized that the Soviets, created by the revolutionary activities of the people, constituted a new form of state power, a new form of democracy, a form that stood on a much higher plane than the bourgeois state and bourgeois democracy. Lenin and Stalin laid bare the full significance of Soviet power and indicated the great historical role it was to play in the future history of the working people, of the oppressed and exploited nations of the whole world.



V. I. LENIN

Soviet power, said Lenin, differs radically from all previously existing forms of state power, and in this lies the powerful source of its strength and invincibility. Power was formerly a weapon in the hands of the exploiting classes for the oppression and suppression of the working people. Soviet power emerged as the result of the overthrow of the exploiters and was called upon to safeguard the interests of the people.

Soviet power destroyed the bourgeois state apparatus down to its very foundations, since it could not serve the purpose of emancipating the working people. In old Russia, national oppression and the inequality of nations prevailed throughout the country. Soviet power established full equality of nations. Under the rule of the landowners and capitalists, education was the privilege of the wealthy classes and was employed against the interests of the workers and peasants. Soviet power placed all cultural achievements at the service of the people, opened the way to education, science, engineering and art to all the working people.

Under the old regime the means and instruments of production belonged to a small handful of exploiters, while the overwhelming majority of the population was condemned to burdensome toil. Soviet power immediately placed representatives of the working people in all the leading posts in the national economy and then completely abolished private ownership of the means and instruments of production. This established socialist economy throughout the country, an economy which is based on social ownership of natural resources and the means of production.

From the very first days of the new regime the workers and peasants could see that the Soviets were the true people's organs of power, that they were closely bound up with all sections of the working people and safeguarded their interests. On this basis, the people's confidence in the Soviets and their close connection with them grew into a mighty force. Whatever difficulties may have faced the young Soviet Republic, whatever heavy trials it may have passed through during the Civil War and the Great Patriotic War, the loyalty of the people and their love for their socialist country have always made it stronger. The Soviet Union has always overcome its difficulties.

"A nation can never be conquered," said Lenin, "when the majority of its workers and peasants have come to know, feel and see that they are defending their own Soviet Government, a government of working people, that they are defending a cause whose victory will secure to themselves and to their children the possibility to benefit from all the achievements of culture, from all the products of human labor."

The strength of Soviet power lies also in the fact that from the very beginning it began to put into practice the principles of socialism. Basing itself on the masses, Soviet power saw as its purpose the awakening of the most oppressed sections of society to a new life and to socialist creative effort.

Lenin devoted great attention to the task of drawing the laboring people into the work of governing the state. The Bolshevik Party, he said, has convinced Russia, has won her over from the rich for the poor, from the exploiters for the working people.

Lenin pointed out that the foolish

and barbarous prejudice that only the wealthy classes and privileged officials can rule a state must be destroyed and abandoned. He gave the working people greater confidence in their own strength, and aroused millions of Soviet people for real creative activity. "Remember that you yourselves are now governing the state," he told them. "Nobody will help you unless you unite and take all the affairs of the state into your own hands. Your Soviets are now the organs of state power, organs with full competence to decide all questions."

During the years of Soviet power millions of ordinary people have been aroused to take part in the work of running the state; and they have proved that when the workers and peasants are themselves the masters of their country, they can run state affairs no worse but many times better than the landlords and capitalists.

In a genuinely democratic solution of the national question, Lenin saw a mighty source of the strength and invincibility of the Soviet State. He devoted a tremendous amount of attention to the development of the national statehood of the backward peoples that, under tsarism, were colonially dependent and oppressed. "We rule, not by dividing, in accordance with the laws of ancient Rome, but by uniting all the working people. . . ." said Lenin. "Our union, our new state, is stronger than the tyrannical power that unites people by means of lies and iron, into the artificial state formations required by the imperialists."

A mighty source of the invincibility of Soviet power is the alliance between the working class and the peasantry which was formed and grew strong in the years when the working people were struggling against the exploiters and against all enemies of the Soviet State. No matter what misfortunes may befall the Soviet Republic, said Lenin, it is invincible. It is invincible because every blow delivered by infuriated imperialism arouses more and more sections of the workers and peasants for the struggle, it strengthens their militant alliance, teaches them at the cost of great sacrifices, hardens them and gives rise to mass heroism.

The Soviet people are proud that they were the first to break the prison chains of imperialism. "We made tremendous sacrifices in the struggle to break those chains, but we did break them," wrote Lenin.

In the fact that the Soviet system was capable of creating a new production method and developing the productive forces of society to a tremendous degree, Lenin saw the great advantage which the Soviet system has over the bourgeois-capitalist system.

Lenin proved irrefutably that the victory of socialism is possible in the Soviet country, and to the end of his life he remained an inspired organizer of the new social system. Russia will inevitably become socialist, he said, and that will be a new source of titanic strength. "In the final analysis the most deep-lying source of strength for victories over the bourgeoisie and the only guarantee of the stability and irrevocability of these victories can be only the new and higher method of social production, the replacing of capitalist and petty-bourgeois production by large-scale socialist production."

The enemies of the working people within the country and beyond its borders spoke of the Bolsheviks and the Soviet people as being incapable of creative, constructive work. Lenin and his followers exposed these slanderous fabrications of the enemies. The Party of Lenin and Stalin aroused the Soviet people for the great cause of the socialist reform of Russia, for the industrialization of the country, for the collectivization of agriculture, for the cultural revolution, and placed in the hands of millions of ordinary people the gigantic program of work that took final form as the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

There is great faith in the creative abilities of the people in the words spoken by Lenin in 1918, to the effect that "we have material wherewith to create a truly powerful and rich Russia in our natural wealth, in our reserve of people and in the splendid scope which the great Revolution has provided for the creative efforts of the people."

Soviet power is the path to socialism

LENIN AND STALIN. A photograph taken in the summer of 1922.

discovered by the working masses and which, therefore, is truly invincible. The Soviet system creates favorable conditions for the development of the productive forces of the country, for the manifestation of initiative and creative energy on the part of the working people, such as have never existed before.

Socialism not only does not eliminate competition, said Lenin; on the contrary, for the first time in history, it provides the opportunity to make really extensive use of it, to draw the majority of the working people and then the whole people into work in which they can make the best of themselves, can develop their abilities, discover the talents of which the people are an untapped mine and which capitalism has crushed, suppressed and obliterated in the thousands and millions. The Great October Revolution opened unlimited possibilities for the development of the material and spiritual forces of the people.

"For the first time after centuries of labor for others, after slave labor for the exploiters, there is a possibility to work for oneself, and it is work that is based on all the latest achievements of technology and culture," said Lenin.

An inexhaustible source of the might and invincibility of Soviet power is the Bolshevik Party, the inspiration and organizing power of the Soviet people. Lenin called the Party the mind, honor and conscience of the contemporary epoch.

LENIN WITH PEASANTS. A drawing by P. Vassiliev.

WRITINGS. Lenin's works have been translated into most languages.

The Bolshevik Party unites in its ranks the best representatives of the working people, the Party rallies the Soviet people and inspires them to labor and to great deeds. The Party headed the revolutionary people in the days of October, 1917. It headed the struggle of the workers and peasants against the counter-revolution at home and against foreign intervention. Thanks to the authority of the Party, when it sent out the call to defend Soviet power and the country, tens, hundreds, thousands, millions, all went as one single man. "Only because of this were we in a position to win despite the two, three and four campaigns of the imperialists of the Entente and of the whole world," said Lenin.

In the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans and during the Great Patriotic War the indestructible bond between the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet people became even stronger. The people and Communism merged into a single unit. The Soviet Union became a mighty power with a socialist industry and collectivized agriculture. The Great Patriotic War clearly demonstrated the advantages of the state and social system of the USSR, the titanic might of the Soviet State, its incomparable superiority over the capitalist countries.

The great friendship of the peoples of the USSR, the moral and political unity of socialist society, ardent Soviet patriotism, the leading role and prestige of the Bolshevik Party constitute the inexhaustible source of the strength and invincibility of Soviet power. No other state could have withstood the severe trials that confronted the Soviet Union during the Second World War. The USSR not only defended its honor, liberty and independence, but also saved the liberty-loving peoples of the world from the slavery of fascism.

"The present war has strongly confirmed Lenin's well-known thesis that war is an all-round test of a nation's material and spiritual strength," said Stalin. "The history of war shows that only those countries can stand the test which excel their enemies in economic development and organization, whose troops excel in experience, skill and fighting spirit, and whose people excel in endurance and unity throughout the whole course of the war. Ours is precisely such a country."

The might of the Soviet State, built by Lenin and Stalin, is also clearly evident in the period of postwar development. The Soviet people are successfully struggling for the pre-schedule fulfillment of the great program of work set out in the postwar Five-Year Plan. In the sphere of international relations the Soviet Union has become the bulwark of the forces of democracy and progress, the hope and support of all progressive humanity.

Under the victorious banner of Lenin and Stalin, the Soviet people are advancing confidently to communism.

THE PEOPLE MOURN. Long lines of visitors to Lenin's tomb are a common sight.

The Tomb of Lenin

By B. Dunayevsky

"Your tomb has become the heart of the earth."—Jamboul

It is winter in Moscow now. And on a frosty day, Moscow, with its broad avenues and spacious squares, seems more beautiful than ever.

In the center of Moscow, where many of its thoroughfares converge, spreads the vast Red Square with its wonderful monuments of times both modern and long past, with the fantastic multi-colored cupolas of St. Basil's Cathedral, with the building of the Historical Museum and the tall, crenelated Kremlin wall.

At the foot of this wall, beneath dense blue firs, there are some graves. There is the large common grave of those who fell in the battles of the Great October Revolution. There is the grave of Jacob Sverdlov, the first head of the Soviet State. Here too are buried Felix Dzerzhinsky, the fearless knight of the Revolution; Mikhail Frunze, who headed the Red Army; and Mikhail Kalinin.

There is a row of marble plaques in the Kremlin wall. Behind them, immured in the wall, are urns with the ashes of men and women renowned in the history of the Soviet Union—Gorky, Kirov, Kuibyshev, Ordjonikidze, Krupskaya and others.

And next to this revolutionary necropolis stands the wonderful and incomparable monument which has become a shrine of all progressive mankind—the tomb of Lenin, founder of the first socialist state in the world, the greatest of all men of our era.

It is a building rising in broad, narrowing terraces. It is all made of red granite and black labradorite. The slab of red porphyry which crowns the structure came from the distant mountains of Karelia. And cut into the black granite above the broad entrance to the tomb is an inscription in letters of red porphyry: LENIN.

Inside the tomb in a glass sarcophagus rests the imperishable body of Lenin. Two sentinels stand guard at the entrance. On their faces one can read solemnity and pride—standing guard at the grave of the greatest of men is an honor never to be forgotten.

Every day in the afternoon people draw up in a long queue at the Kremlin wall. They are residents of the capital and visitors from distant parts of the country, from wintering stations in the remote Arctic and from the warm, sunny South. There are among them the fair-haired natives of the Baltic Republics and the swarthy inhabitants of Central Asia, workers, peasants,

intellectuals, those who remember Lenin, who saw him alive, and those who were born after his death. And there are children, very many children; they have come to look at the man who founded their country, the country of truly happy childhood. All of them are waiting—silently and solemnly—for the chimes on the Kremlin tower to ring the third hour. It is then that the doors of the tomb are flung open to let visitors enter beneath the granite vaults. The human stream begins to move slowly and quietly.

We come to the entrance. There is a huge slab of granite with the coat of arms of the Soviet Union. We descend along one of the two granite staircases to a hall flooded with the even, soft light of invisible lamps. Here in a glass sarcophagus lies Lenin, dressed in a modest khaki jacket. His head, with the familiar features and high forehead, rests on a red pillow trimmed with black crepe. His arms are stretched along his body and his hands lie on the banner of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the Party which he founded, rallied, headed and led to victory. Lenin's face is calm and majestic.

Deeply stirred, with bated breath, the people file slowly past the sarcophagus. All eyes are riveted on Lenin as if in an effort to impress the dear features upon the memory. One feels like stopping for a while longer to get another look, but the stream moves on without stopping. What a wealth of thoughts and feelings are carried away from here!

Slowly we ascend the stairs on the other side. The people keep moving and moving all the time. Tears glisten in many eyes.

It is nearly a quarter of a century since Lenin's tomb became the shrine of mankind. Throughout the world, in every nation of the earth, homage is paid to the memory of the man who made the happiness of humanity the aim of his life.

More than 20 million persons had filed past the sarcophagus with Lenin's body before the beginning of the Great Patriotic War. More millions have filed through Lenin's tomb in the years since the end of the war, and among them people from all countries and continents who came to pay homage to Lenin.

An old man, obviously an industrial worker, stops, lost in thought, as he emerges from the tomb. A tear has rolled down his face and is glistening in his thick gray moustache. "Yes," he says softly, "that's exactly how he looked then, in the House of Trade Unions, where he lay after his death."

Youths wearing the uniform of a trade school listen to the old man, fearing to miss a single word of his story of Lenin's life and death.

The stream never ends. There seems to be a new brightness in the eyes of the people as they emerge from the tomb and contemplate their beautiful capital or think of their boundless country. Before them spreads one of the finest cities of the world. It did not look this way in Lenin's lifetime. But this is how Lenin wanted it to be. And it was of a country such as the Soviet Union is today that Lenin dreamed. This is how he would have made it. It was to the creation of such a country that he devoted his genius, his energy, his life.

"If he were alive! If he could see! If he could rejoice together with us in our victories and achievements!" That is what millions of people think as they come out of the tomb.

Millions of people march through Red Square on days of national celebrations. They carry banners and slogans. They raise aloft—for all to see—the things they produce, the fruit of their work, the evidence of their labor efforts and victories.

They march through the square and their eyes are turned to the tomb in which Lenin's body rests. In those hours the granite terrace of the tomb becomes a reviewing stand. And on it stands Stalin. From this tribune he looks upon the passing columns and there is a kind and fatherly look in his eyes as he returns the greetings of the people. There is something unforgettable in these hours when the people meet their leader, the man who has continued the work of Lenin, has strengthened Lenin's cause, has made Lenin's dream reality.

On the most important days in the life of the Soviet Union, the people come to Red Square, to the tomb of Lenin, to greet Stalin, to express their love for their departed leader and their desire to carry on his work under the leadership of Stalin.

TOMB. The facade of Lenin's tomb on Red Square, Moscow.

AS A STUDENT. Lenin (right) at a student's meeting at Kazan University. A water-color by P. Alyakrinsky.

YOUNG MAN. V. Oreshnikov has pictured Lenin at university examinations.

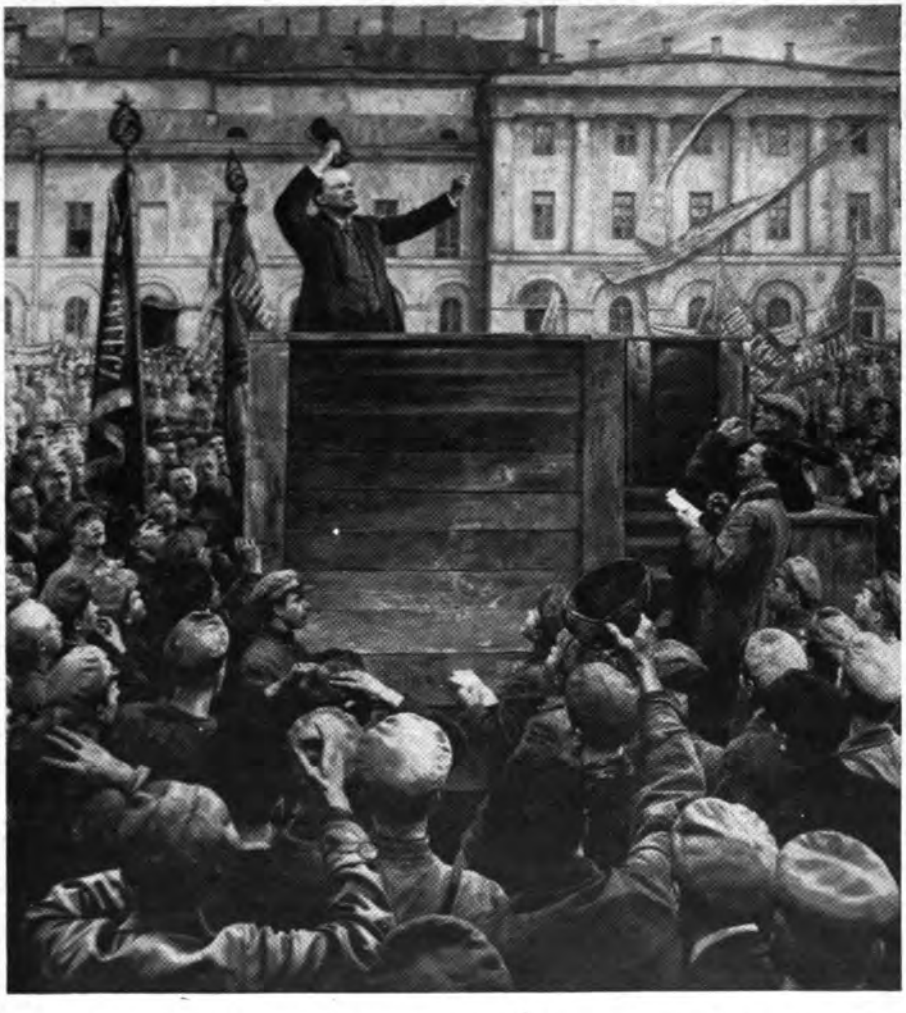
Lenin in Soviet Art

IN HIDING. M. Sokolov's painting.

"THERE IS SUCH A PARTY!" P. Vassiliev has pictured the moment in June, 1917, when Lenin rose in the First All-Russian Congress of Soviets to proclaim that the Bolsheviks were willing to take the responsibility of state power.

LENIN'S ARRIVAL IN PETROGRAD. M. Sokolov's painting (left) shows Lenin, accompanied by Stalin, greeting crowds of working people, on his arrival from exile abroad. A. Serov has pictured (right) Lenin, immediately after his arrival, calling on the people to fight for the Socialist Revolution.

SCULPTURE. By S. Merkurov.



PEOPLE'S ARMY. Lenin addresses Red Army men. By I. Brodsky.

FROM EACH ACCORDING TO HIS ABILITY. No talent is stifled in the USSR; the expanding economy provides a wide choice of jobs. Training is available for all.

An Historic Document

By S. Titarenko

JANUARY 17 is a significant date in the history of the Soviet State. On that day, 30 years ago, the *Declaration of the Rights of Toiling and Exploited People* was published. Penned by Lenin and Stalin, this Declaration was adopted as the basis of the first Soviet Constitution, ratified in July, 1918, by the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets.

The Declaration was proclaimed after the Soviets had been in power for two months. The Socialist Revolution, which commenced with the overthrow of the bourgeois Provisional Government in Petrograd, had subsequently spread throughout the gigantic country and developed, as Lenin put it, into a triumphal march of Soviet power. It was a period which witnessed the destruction of the old bourgeois state apparatus and the advent of the new government of workers and peasants as represented by the Soviets. The sweeping revolutionary action of the people destroyed all the mainstays of the exploiting system and laid the foundation of the new socialist society, the new Soviet democracy.

"The Bolsheviks have been in power only two months," wrote Lenin at the beginning of January, 1918, "and yet the step already taken toward socialism is tremendous. . . . Within a few weeks the undemocratic institutions in the army, in the countryside and in the factories have been shattered almost to their foundations. And except by thus shattering them, there is not, nor can there be, any road to socialism."

The *Declaration of the Rights of Toiling and Exploited People* summed up the great achievements of the October Revolution and outlined the course of the future struggle for socialism. The Declaration confirmed the transfer of all power (centrally and locally) to the Soviets. It confirmed the abolition of private ownership of the land and its resources, the laws on labor control over production and the conversion of the banks into state property. It proclaimed the necessity of arming the working people and forming a socialist Red Army of workers and peasants. Recognizing the Soviet Republic as a free union of free nations, the Declaration proclaimed the complete break of the Soviet Government with all and any policies of national oppression, and the determination to fight for a just and democratic peace among peoples based on the free self-determination of nations.

The Declaration recognized as the fundamental aim of the Soviet Government "to abolish all exploitation of man by man, to put a complete end to the division of society into classes, mercilessly to crush the resistance of the exploiters, to establish the socialist organization of society. . . ."

The Declaration laid particular stress on the necessity to abolish classes and eliminate the basis of class inequality—private ownership of the instruments and means of production. This task has been consistently carried through in the Soviet Union.

Thirty years have passed, and the great results of the Soviet people's heroic struggle for socialism are now in full evidence.

The socialist principle—"From each according to his ability, to each according to his work"—is incorporated in the Soviet Constitution which was adopted in 1936. This principle, as are all the provisions of the Soviet Constitution, is a statement of actual achievement, not the projection of a distant goal.

As clearly recorded in the Stalin Constitution, the Soviet people have already achieved the first phase of communism—socialism. Public ownership of the means of production is secured by the Constitution as the unshakable foundation of the socialist system. The Constitution further secures the abolition of all exploitation in the USSR. In fact, such social groups as could live by the labor of others long ago ceased to exist in the Soviet Union. Consequently, the USSR does not have exploiting classes, which in capitalist

countries appropriate the lion's share of the national income.

In the Soviet Union the national income is entirely at the disposal of the working people, and is used chiefly for the general needs of the State. The socialist principle of distribution according to labor is in force in the USSR, which means that consumption by citizens is determined by their personal labor. The better one works, the more he contributes to society, the more he receives, the higher is his living standard.

Equal pay for equal work is a law of socialist society. This constitutes one of the basic principles of socialist equality.

The planned system of economy prevailing in the USSR excludes any possibility of crises and unemployment; each citizen is guaranteed by law the right to work and to remuneration according to the quality and quantity of his labor.

In the country where every man and woman is guaranteed work, living quarters and food, where neither rich nor poor exist, where exploitation has been banished, the people enjoy real and not illusory freedom and equality. Each Soviet citizen takes full advantage of his right to work, to rest and education; each one has the opportunity to participate in the country's public and political life, regardless of his race, nationality, sex, education, social origin, property status, past activities, etc.

Women in the Soviet Union have equal rights with men. A convincing illustration is afforded by the number of women recently elected to local Soviets in five Union Republics. More than 30 per cent of the deputies elected to the local Soviets of the Russian SFSR, the Ukrainian, Armenian, Moldavian and Karelo-Finnish Republics are women.*

Such are the true facts about Soviet socialist democracy. They indicate that the principles proclaimed in the *Declaration of the Rights of Toiling and Exploited People* 30 years ago have been carried out in practice in the USSR. Soviet society is now developing on its own socialist foundation; it is confidently advancing toward the complete victory of communism, on whose banner is inscribed the principle: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his need."

* See "The Recent Local Elections," USSR Information Bulletin, Vol. VIII, No. 1, Jan. 14, 1948, Page 22

TO EACH ACCORDING TO HIS WORK. There is only one road to fame or fortune in the Soviet Union—good work.

IN 1919. Lenin (center), Stalin and the late M. I. Kalinin photographed at a Communist Party Congress.

Following Lenin's Behests With Stalin

TWENTY-FOUR years have passed since the sad day on which Lenin died—Lenin, the great leader, theoretician and builder of communism, the founder of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet State, the genius of the Revolution, the beloved teacher and friend of all laboring humanity.

The Soviet State which Lenin founded has been in existence for more than 30 years. The persistent struggle and creative activity of the Soviet people have been the practical embodiment of the all-conquering force of Leninism. We see proof of this in the building of socialism in the USSR, in the victory of the Soviet people in the Great Patriotic War, in the confident advance of Soviet society toward communism.

Stalin defended Lenin's cause from its enemies, rallied the Communist Party and the whole people under the banner of Lenin, defended Lenin's teachings in stubborn struggle against the capitulators and those of little faith, and developed them further.

The Soviet people have fulfilled the behests of Lenin under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party headed by Joseph Stalin, Lenin's great collaborator and worthy continuer of his work. In the USSR socialism has been built; a first-class socialist industry and the world's biggest farming system of socialist farms have been organized; friendship among equal peoples, unparalleled in the world, has come into being. The Soviet Union put an end to its economic, cultural and military backwardness, and in the years of the Stalin Five-Year Plans became a mighty power. Under the invincible banner of Lenin and Stalin, the Soviet people defeated the German fascists and Japanese imperialists. The Soviet people saved mankind from the menace of fascist enslavement.

In the postwar period, the great might of the Soviet State and the tremendous mobilizing and organizing role of the ideas of Lenin and Stalin have been demonstrated with new force. Industry, transport and agriculture are being rapidly rehabilitated in the USSR, there is constant development of all branches of economy and culture, currency reform has been successfully carried out, rationing has been abolished, prices of food products and consumer goods have been reduced, and the material well-being of the people is constantly improving.

The Soviet system, the foundations of which were laid by Lenin, ensures a constant increase in productive forces. In the two years since the war, the the prewar industrial output and prewar harvest of grain crops have been attained. There is every possibility that in 1948 the prewar level will be surpassed, with a further increase in the strength of the Soviet State, improved living conditions for the pople, and new victories on the road to communism.

In the USSR the moral and political unity of the whole people is becoming ever firmer, socialist democracy is flourishing more than ever, and the friendship of the Soviet peoples is stronger. The elections to the Supreme Soviets of the Constituent and Autonomous Republics and to the local Soviets of Working People's Deputies were a fresh triumph for the ideas of Leninism, a fresh demonstration of the solidarity of the Soviet people rallied solidly around the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government.

Following the behests of Lenin, the Bolshevik Party does not rest content with that which has been achieved. Armed with the powerful weapon of Leninism, the Bolshevik Party mobilizes its forces and the forces of the whole multi-national Soviet people in the struggle for the further strengthening of the might of the USSR. The Party is developing extensive ideological educational work among the masses for the accomplishment of the great tasks of building communism.

Following the behests of Lenin on raising the productivity of labor, the strengthening of labor discipline, economic management of the national economy, bold and widespread application of all modern achievements in science and engineering, the Soviet people are accelerating the movement toward communism.

The Soviet Union, the child of Lenin, is the true champion of a sound democratic peace, the trusty defender of the state sovereignty and liberty of peoples. In the present intricate international situation, the Soviet State consistently and courageously puts the Lenin-Stalin foreign policy into practice, and this policy is winning the sympathy of ever new millions of people abroad.

A Statement by Ambassador Panyushkin

ALEXANDER S. PANYUSHKIN, Ambassador of the USSR to the United States, replied this week to a series of questions put to him by staff writer John Scali of the Associated Press. The full text of the interview follows:

QUESTION 1. *Do you foresee improvement in relations between the Soviet Union and the United States?*

ANSWER: I consider desirable the improvement of relations between the Soviet Union and the United States of America, the more so since the peoples of both countries are equally interested in the improvement of these relations.

QUESTION 2. *In your opinion are increasingly serious differences between the Soviet Union and the United States inevitable because of differences in the two political systems?*

ANSWER: The foreign policy of the Soviet Union proceeds from the fact of the co-existence of the two different systems. The Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, J. V. Stalin, replying to an analogous question by the well-known American Harold Stassen on April 9, 1947, pointed out that "They—the Soviet Union and the United States—certainly can cooperate. The difference between them is of no essential importance as far as their cooperation is concerned. The economic systems in Germany and the United States are similar and nevertheless war broke out between them. The economic systems of the United States and the USSR are different, and yet they did not fight each other but cooperated during the war. If the two different systems could cooperate during the war, why can they not cooperate in peacetime? It is certainly understood that, given the desire to cooperate, cooperation is perfectly possible, even with different economic systems. When the desire to cooperate is lacking, states and people may start to fight each other, even though having the same economic systems."

Thus, the difference of systems in our countries is not an obstacle to the improvement and development of political, economic and cultural relations between our countries.

AMBASSADOR PANYUSHKIN

QUESTION 3. *Do you plan to work for increased trade between the Soviet Union and the United States? What specific commodities does the Soviet Union need from the United States?*

ANSWER: Both our countries are interested in the increase of trade between the USSR and the USA.

As far as the Soviet Union is concerned, it has never refused the development of trade with the United States under conditions of normal business practice. It is a known fact that in the USA also there are certain circles desiring to develop and strengthen trade relations with the Soviet Union.

However, at present the American trade regulating agencies are applying to trade with the USSR measures of a discriminatory character, which fact, obviously, not only does not promote the development of trade between our countries but, on the contrary, leads directly to the opposite results.

QUESTION 4. *How can the United States best help the Soviet Union rebuild war-devastated areas?*

ANSWER: As is known, the Soviet Union has a Five-Year Plan of rehabilitation and development of its national economy. This plan proceeds from the full utilization of the internal resources of the country. The Soviet people are successfully fulfilling this plan, reconstructing with their own efforts the war-devastated areas. Simultaneously, the Soviet Union is reviving and developing its trade relations with other nations. Therefore, you could find an answer to your question in the normalization of Soviet-American trade. One cannot help mentioning that the fulfillment of the Yalta and Potsdam agreements on reparations would also have a great positive meaning.

QUESTION 5. *Do you propose to renew conversations with the American State Department shortly in an effort to reach a settlement on the Soviet lend-lease account with the United States?*

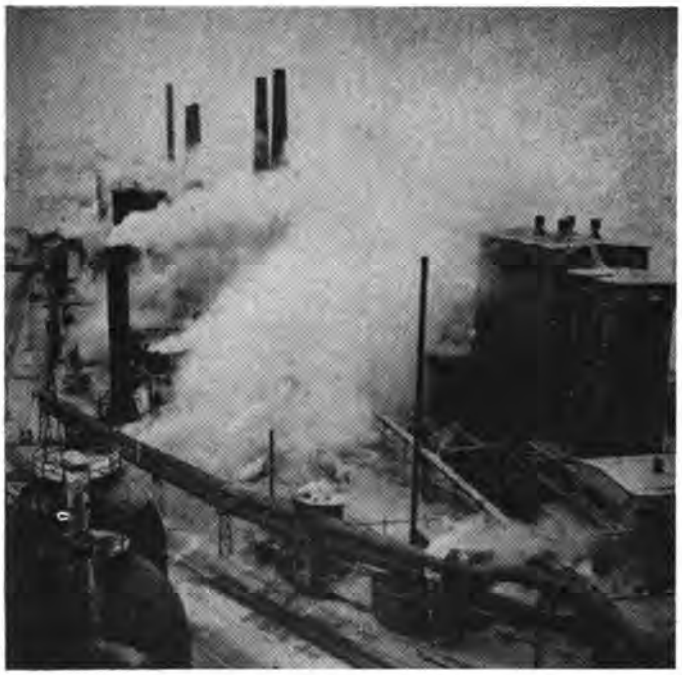
ANSWER: Certainly. As early as December 16, 1947, the Soviet side submitted to the US side its concrete proposals regarding the question of the lend-lease settlement.

QUESTION 6. *Do you intend at this time or in the foreseeable future to resume the Soviet Union's discussions with the United States Government on the prospect of a billion dollar loan to the Soviet Union?*

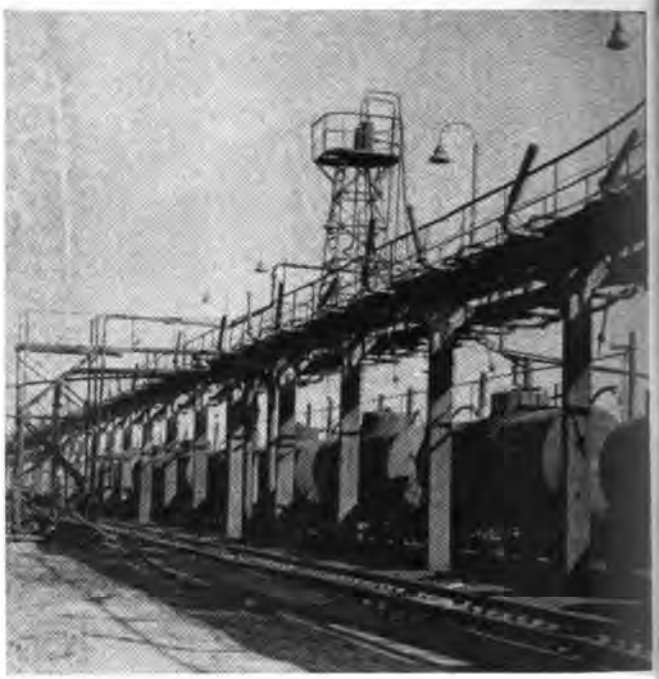
ANSWER: No, it is not my intention under the present circumstances to take the initiative in that direction. I feel that the loan to which you refer should be looked upon as a normal business undertaking which is in the interests of both countries—the USSR and the USA. Some American circles approach this question differently.

QUESTION 7. *As official representative of the Soviet Union on the Far Eastern Commission, can you tell us what you think of the manner in which the commission has supervised Allied policy toward Japan?*

ANSWER: As is known, the most important tasks of the Far Eastern Commission are the prevention of the revival of a militaristic Japan, and the democratization of that country. However, in this regard the situation cannot be considered as satisfactory, to which fact it is necessary to draw serious attention.



STEEL. The Kuznetsk iron and steel mill in Siberia.



OIL. Tank cars waiting to be filled near Ufa.

Progress of the Five-Year Plan

By S. Gurovich

THE statement of the State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the operation of the postwar Five-Year Plan in 1947, published January 18, 1948, shows that all branches of the national economy are making increasing progress toward reaching the goals set by the Five-Year Plan. All Soviet industries taken as a whole fulfilled the 1947 output plan by 103.5 per cent. The plan for the first two years—1946 and 1947—has been 100 per cent fulfilled.

One of the characteristic features of Soviet industry is the steadily mounting rate of increase of output. The increase in the first quarter of 1947, as compared with the corresponding quarter of the previous year, was 12 per cent; in the second quarter, it was 18 per cent; in the third quarter, 26 per cent; and in the fourth quarter, 30 per cent. Thanks to this rapid progress, Soviet industry reached the prewar level of output in the fourth quarter of 1947—ahead of schedule.

The iron and steel industry, the coal industry of the Eastern areas, the oil industry, electric power generation and most other industries not only reached but exceeded their quotas for the year. It was this that enabled the Soviet machine-building industries to make a substantial new advance. The largest increase was registered in the output of long-distance railway engines (a rise of 177 per cent over the output of 1946); next was the output of ring-spinning frames for the textile industry (163 per cent increase), steam turbines (157 per cent), tractors (109 per cent) and agricultural machinery (106 per cent).

This is in line with the provisions of the Five-Year Plan which assigned priority to the restoration and development of heavy industries and railroads as the basis for the progress of agriculture and industries producing consumer goods, in order to improve the material well-being of the peoples of the Soviet Union.

The development of individual industries proceeded accordingly. While total industrial output in 1947 increased by 22 per cent, output of the textile and light industries increased by 33 per cent, of sugar by 110 per cent, etc. To ensure a further accelerated increase in the output of consumer goods, capital construction in the food processing and light industries increased in the past year by 30 per cent. The volume of capital construction in all other branches of the national economy likewise greatly increased.

The output of all agriculture in-

COAL. Men like this Tajik mine exceeded the quota.

creased by 32 per cent, and the output of field farming by 48 per cent. The grain crop was 58 per cent larger, the cotton crop 21 per cent larger and the sugar beet crop 190 per cent larger than in 1946. Furthermore, the area plowed for winter fallow to ensure a good harvest in 1948 was 19,768,000 acres larger than in 1946. To no small extent, all this was achieved as a result of the substantial increase in the output of tractors and agricultural machines and also in the output of mineral fertilizers. In the past year, the Soviet chemical industry supplied 35 per cent more superphosphates, nitrates and potash than in the preceding year. That is the result of the concrete assistance rendered to the collective farmers by the Soviet State.

The transport services also made great progress. Average daily carloadings increased by 10 per cent, the amount of freight carried by river craft increased by 23 per cent, and of seagoing freight by 15 per cent.

The Five-Year Plan provides for 5,900 industrial enterprises to be put into operation in the 1946-1950 period. In 1946 and 1947, the number of state-owned industrial enterprises rebuilt or built anew and put into operation reached 1,900. This means that in the past two years, an average of more than 18 factories, mills and other industrial enterprises went into operation every week. They were all built with the country's own resources, supplied in increasing volume by the developing national economy.

The productivity of labor in Soviet industries increased during the year by 13 per cent.

It is an inherent law of socialism that the number of workers keeps increasing and the quality of their work improving, and that material and cultural standards rise constantly. In the past year, the number of factory and office workers in the national economy of the USSR increased by nearly 1,200,000. Many millions of workers have with state aid improved their qualifications, and thus increased their earnings. Total wages and salaries in the national economy increased in 1947 by 23 per cent.

Elementary and secondary school attendance increased by 860 thousand pupils, the number of students in vocational high schools and other specialized high schools increased by 36 thousand, and the number of students in universities and colleges by 56 thousand.

AGRICULTURE. Anna Koshevdya, a sugar beet grower, has been named a Hero of Socialist Labor for her fine production.

While the earnings of the working people increased, prices of consumer goods were greatly reduced in the past year. This meant a considerable increase in the purchasing power of the great masses of the people. The net benefit accruing to the working people of the USSR this year as a result of the lowering of state retail prices alone will amount to more than 57,000,000,000 rubles. The currency reform carried out at the end of 1947 in the interests of the people still further increased the real income of the working people.

In preparation for the abolition of rationing at the end of 1947, about 55 thousand new trading establishments were opened in the USSR during the past year.

In 1947, a total of 96,876,000 square feet of housing space built or restored at government expense was made available for occupancy. In addition, state credits enabled private citizens in towns and workers' settlements to build houses for themselves, amounting to a total floor space of 43,056,000 square feet. In rural districts of formerly occupied areas, 370 thousand houses were built in 1947 with government assistance.

Rehabilitation of industries in the formerly occupied areas was also attended by marked success. While total industrial output in these areas increased by 33 per cent, output of cast iron increased by 30 per cent and of rolled steel by 35 per cent. This testifies to the progress made by the iron and steel industry of the South, which was completely wrecked by the Hitlerites. Output of coal in the Donets Basin increased by another 19 per cent, generation of electricity by 35 per cent, output of cement by 48 per cent, and output of sugar by 123 per cent.

That, in general outline, is the picture of the progress of the national economy of the USSR in 1947.

The Soviet Currency Reform—Its Basis and Results

An Interview With Joseph Trachtenberg
Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

In view of the widespread interest in the details of the currency reform and the abolition of rationing in the USSR, a Soviet newspaperman put the following questions to one of the leading Soviet financial experts, Joseph Trachtenberg, member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR:

1. What was the reason for the currency reform in the USSR?

2. What made the currency reform possible?

3. What are the guarantees for the effective accomplishment of the currency reform?

4. In what way does the currency reform in the Soviet Union differ from similar reforms in other countries?

5. To what extent is the Soviet currency reform connected with the abolition of rationing?

Here are Academician Trachtenberg's replies.

ANY big war, particularly one of such magnitude as the Second World War, usually makes a currency reform necessary. War expenditures must be met to a large extent by the increased issue of currency. This leads to a vast increase of currency in circulation and to a consequent lowering of the purchasing power of money. In the recent war too the constant increase of currency in circulation led in all countries to a constant rise of prices and dislocation of production and trade. In the long run the condition of the large majority of the people in countries outside the Soviet Union deteriorated, while the profits of the big property-owners multiplied.

During the war the purchasing power of the Soviet ruble also declined. However, the Soviet currency reform and the way it has been carried out differ in principle from similar reforms in other countries. Everyone knows that the Soviet Union bore the brunt of the war against Hitler Germany. The Soviet Union had to mobilize all its resources, maintain a big army, develop war industries. Every day of the war cost the Soviet Union hundreds of millions of rubles. Add to this the damage, running into hundreds of billions, caused by the German invasion. The Soviet Union began to spend billions of rubles on the work of rehabilitation while the war was still going on. All this meant that the Soviet Union had to put large amounts of currency into circulation during the war. And that at a time when, as was quite natural, the output of consumer goods shrank and retail trade declined. The situation was further aggravated by the fact that the Germans put large amounts of counterfeit money into circulation in the Soviet territories they occupied. All that resulted in a lowering of the purchasing value of the ruble. The purpose of the currency reform has been to eliminate the aftermath of the war in the sphere of currency—to withdraw the mass of surplus and counterfeit money from circulation and thus to bring back a full-value ruble.

Although the Soviet Union had to shoulder enormous expenditures, th Soviet Government managed to mai tain the prewar state prices on ration goods throughout the duration of t war. Of course, this was only possib because the State controlled most the commodities available. At the sam time the Government introduced th sale of goods at higher, or commercia prices. These prices were gradual lowered, with the result that ever sin 1943 prices in the open collective far markets also began to drop systema ically. This meant that even while th war was still in progress the purchasi power of money, far from declining, b gan to rise.

After the war Soviet economy w quickly switched to a peacetime foo ing. The output of peacetime goo began to pick up by leaps and bound and today it has already reached th prewar level. In the years since th war commercial and market pric have dropped further, and consequentl the purchasing power of money i creased. But there was still muc

MONEY BUYS MORE. The end of rationing and the issuance of higher-val currency brought crowds of buyers to Soviet shops.

more money in circulation than was essential for the national economy. On the other hand, the progress of Soviet economy in the period since the end of the war made it possible and necessary to abolish rationing and to reintroduce open trade at lowered uniform state prices. But in order to do this it was essential to normalize the currency circulation. And so new, full-value currency has been put into circulation as of December 16, 1947, and the old depreciated and counterfeit currency has been withdrawn from circulation.

Now, any normalization of currency circulation after the war required: (a) a sufficiently high level of output; (b) a balanced budget and balanced foreign trade payments; and (c) a government enjoying the confidence of the population.

In most other countries these requisites are absent. That is why the attempts to normalize currency circulation in those countries have failed. Economic recovery in those countries is very slow, and output is still far below the prewar level. In most of the capitalist countries the budgets still show great deficits, and the amount of money in circulation has been increasing: they have adverse balances of payments, and the governments of some of them do not enjoy the confidence of the population. All this is interfering with the normalization of currency circulation.

In the USSR all the requisites for a successful currency reform are present. Economic recovery has been going on at a rapid pace. In the autumn of 1947 large-scale industries had already reached the pre-war level of output. The new Five-Year Plan is an unqualified success. The budget is balanced without a deficit. The Soviet people are working enthusiastically to reach the goals of the Five-Year Plan. A mass movement is on foot to carry out the Plan in four years, instead of five. All this is inherent in the socialist system of the Soviet Union, where there are no antagonistic classes and the government policy is fully in accordance with the vital interests of the large masses of the people. It therefore also is obvious that the Soviet Government enjoys the absolute confidence of the people.

The distinguishing feature of the currency reform in the Soviet Union consists in the following. Any economist knows and experience has shown that a currency reform involves considerable sacrifices. In capitalist countries such a reform is usually attended by a rise in the prices of consumer goods and, consequently, by a decline of real wages. The sacrifices inevitable in a currency reform are therefore borne primarily by the non-propertied classes. Bourgeois governments are loath to encroach on the money piled up by the wealthy classes as the result of war-inflationary profits. The wealthy are consequently hardly affected at all by the reform. In the Soviet Union, however, we have an entirely different situation. Here the monetary reform has been carried out, in the main, in the interests of the masses and not at the expense of the people. The inevitable sacrifices were distributed as fairly and evenly as possible. Small depositors who kept their money in the state savings banks have not suffered at all. Only large depositors have sustained some losses. For savings bank accounts up to three thousand rubles remain intact and are revalued at ruble per ruble. Accounts above three thousand and up to ten thousand rubles are revalued at the rate of two rubles for three. As for the money kept in state savings banks and in the State Bank by cooperative organizations and enterprises and by collective farms, it is revalued at the rate of four rubles per five. The reason is quite obvious. The increased incomes of cooperatives and collective farms during the war and after its end have to a certain extent been due to the higher market prices. And it is only fair that 20 per cent of these accumulations should revert to the nation.

Simultaneously, all the state loans, with the exception of the 1947 Rehabilitation Loan, are consolidated in a single loan at the rate of one ruble in new bonds for three rubles of the old bonds. The reason for this measure is that most of the loans were floated in the war years, and were acquired by the population with money of lowered purchasing power, whereas the Government will have to redeem the loans with new, higher-value money.

There are no capitalists or landlords in the Soviet Union, and no class could grow rich on the war. But there were cases of profiteering elements growing rich by inflating market prices and hoarding money. It is they who have suffered the greatest losses as the result of the reform.

Those who accumulated large amounts of money by profiteering were reluctant to deposit their money in savings banks, and they have therefore lost heavily by the reform, as cash money on hand has been exchanged at the rate of one ruble of the new currency for ten rubles of the old.

The currency reform leaves wages, salaries and all incomes from work on the same level as before. These are to be paid in full in the new currency.

The Soviet currency reform thus involves the minimum sacrifice on the part of the working people, as the State bears the brunt of the losses. Furthermore, the rise of real wages as the result of the abolition of rationing and the establishment of lowered uniform prices will quickly compensate the small losses people in the Soviet Union may have sustained.

For since the earnings of the working people remain the same, this means that people can buy more for their money.

Obviously, this could not be effectively accomplished without the normalization of currency circulation. It is utterly wrong to say, as one British commentator has done, that the Soviet Government had to abolish rationing in order to carry out the currency reform. The fact of the matter is that what we have in the Soviet Union is not two reforms, but one reform. Both measures are organically connected and serve one aim—to raise the standard of living of the Soviet people.

The British commentator referred to above seems to be unable to understand that planning on so large a scale in the interests of the entire nation is impossible in capitalist countries for the reason that there the means of production and the mass of commodities are in the hands of private owners whose first concern is to derive the biggest possible profits. That is why in most countries prices are rising and wages are falling. The attempts to normalize currency circulation there have been unsuccessful.

Only the Soviet Union with its socialist system and planned economy could abolish rationing, reduce prices and introduce new full-value currency. As a result the standard of living of the Soviet people has already risen considerably.

HOSIERY MILL. The Sylva mill at Kaunas, Lithuanian SSR, is largely automatic. One worker can tend many machines.

More Goods for Consumer Use

By Nikolai Chesnokov

Minister of Light Industry of the USSR

THE decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party on monetary reform and abolition of rationing of foodstuffs and industrial commodities—measures of tremendous political and national economic importance—confronts the Soviet Union's light industry with major political and national economic tasks. The strengthening of the Soviet ruble and trading without ration coupons, at reduced prices, have brought about a considerable increase in the demand for consumer goods.

The war inflicted serious losses on light industry. In the Ukraine and Byelorussia, where light industry was well developed, enterprises were plundered and ruined by the Germans during the occupation. As a result, production of clothing, footwear, knitted garments and similar goods declined.

Attaching great importance to the supply of consumer goods to the population, the Soviet Government, even in wartime, adopted measures for the utilization of the factory equipment evacuated to the eastern regions of the country for expanding production of clothing, footwear, knitted garments and other consumer goods. The rehabilitation of light industry enterprises was launched immediately after the end of the war. In many cases, factories had to be built and equipped anew.

Extension of old factories and the launching of new ones required the training of new workers. In November, 1947, the number employed in light industry was 18 per cent higher than in the same month of 1946.

KNIT CLOTHING. A mill of the Transcarpathian Ukraine.

The postwar Five-Year Plan requires that the prewar level of production of the main branches of light industry should be restored and exceeded. For instance, as compared with 1940, output of leather footwear in 1950 is to increase by 17 per cent, of stockings and socks by 31.5 per cent, of knitted underwear by 37 per cent, of assorted kitchenware by 16 per cent.

In December, 1946, the Soviet Government adopted a special decision insisting upon a considerable acceleration in the development of light industry. Capital investments in the construction of factories and dwelling houses were increased and much additional equipment and material was provided.

In light industry, 1947 was a year of preparation for work under new conditions, under conditions of free, non-rationed trading and of an enhanced demand for consumer goods. In 1947, Soviet light industry enterprises exceeded their output program by six per cent. Output of cotton and woolen fabrics in 1947 was 33 per cent higher than in 1946; output of leather footwear was 40 per cent higher; of rubber footwear, 68 per cent higher; and of soap, 28 per cent higher.

In the first two years of the postwar

Stalin Five-Year Plan, the volume of production in light industry increased considerably in districts that had been under German occupation. During 1947, as compared with the previous year, output in the enterprises of the Ukrainian and Lithuanian Republics increased by 71 per cent, of Byelorussia by 74 per cent, and of Latvia by 53 per cent.

Hundreds of huge factories, equipped with the most up-to-date machinery, were established in the USSR during the Five-Year Plans. The USSR established its own tanning extract industry and as far back as 1932, the end of the First Five-Year Plan, no longer had to import tanning material. Large light industry enterprises were set up for the first time in Soviet Republics which before the Revolution were the colonial borderlands of tsarist Russia.

In preparation for the abolition of the rationing system and the transition to free trading on the basis of uniform state-fixed prices, the Council of Ministers of the USSR adopted during 1947 a number of special decisions calling for improvement in quality and variety of yarn, knitted goods and footwear. Carried into practice, these decisions have already borne fruit. Output of high-quality cotton stockings has been increased, and so has the variety of patterned socks; nearly one hundred new models of knitted garments have been put out by the Dzerzhinsky mills, the Red Banner factory and other enterprises. Machines producing an interesting new fabric are being installed in the Dzerzhinsky mills and several other enterprises.

RADIOS. Inspecting newly-manufactured sets at the Radiotechnika factory in Riga, Latvian SSR.

HOT PLATES. The Dynamo factory in Moscow.

Much has also been done to improve the quality and variety of footwear. After the end of the war, manufacture of shoes with uppers of suede, patent leather and velours was resumed in the Moscow and Leningrad shoe factories, among the largest in the country. Output of boots and shoes with microporous rubber soles, more serviceable than leather, is increasing. Shoes with colored rubber soles are being manufactured in almost all the shoe factories.

In connection with the abolition of the rationing system, measures for improving the quality of clothing have been carried out. Conferences of representatives of industry and trading organizations were called to discuss questions of enlarging the assortment of goods. Samples of the production of clothing factories were on display at these conferences, which took place in Moscow, Leningrad, Saratov, Tbilisi, Kiev and Novosibirsk. Styles which have gone out of fashion or are not up to standard have been withdrawn from production and replaced by new models. During the next six months two thousand new models of dresses, suits and overcoats will be introduced.

The Ministry of Light Industry, which has a special trading network, will open new stores in the next few months in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi, Tashkent and Gorky for the sale of ready-to-wear clothing. Alterations will be done on the spot.

To meet the increased demand following the abolition of the rationing system, the glass industry has increased production of cut-glass, dinner and tea sets, vases, laboratory apparatus and other items. Manufacture of these articles has been started by the Sverdlov glass works, the Neman and Kiev factories. Output of diamond-faceted glassware is also increasing.

Special attention is being paid to improvement in the packaging of goods produced by light industry enterprises.

Socialist emulation has been launched on a large scale among workers in light industry for the fulfillment of the current Five-Year Plan in four years. The successes achieved in 1947 and the measures adopted for further expansion and improvement in quality of production, coupled with the workers' enthusiastic efforts, create grounds for anticipating that the postwar Five-Year Plan in light industry will be fulfilled before the end of the five-year period. The population of the Soviet Union will be supplied with a wide assortment of footwear, knitted goods, clothing and other commodities of excellent quality.

Winter Holidays

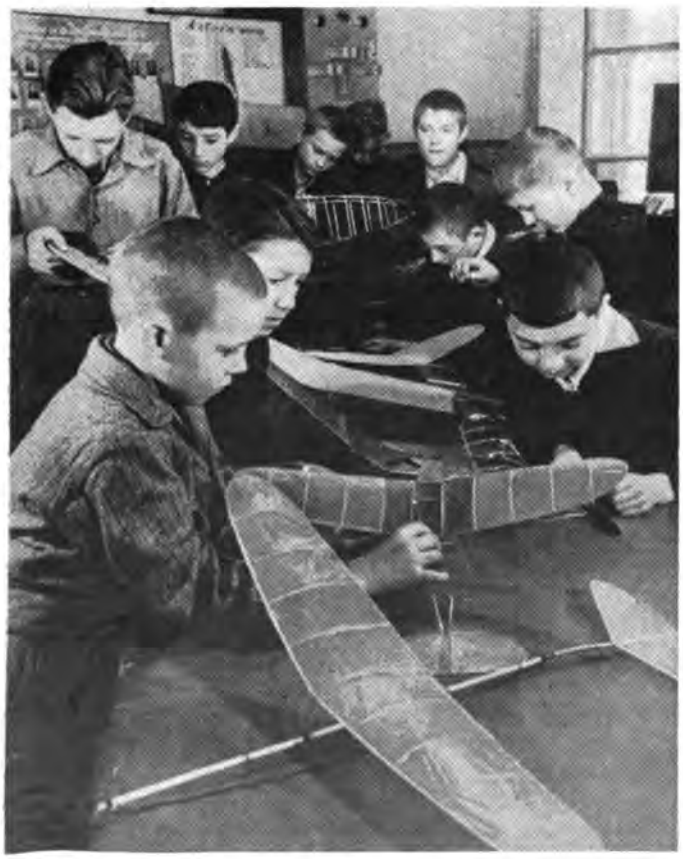
The winter holiday season is a high spot in the life of Soviet children. The wealth of recreation facilities placed at their disposal provides a variety of gay good times for youngsters of all ages.

Festivities get off to a start with the traditional fir-tree party to hail the new year. Games, dancing, singing and theatricals put the children in holiday spirits. These parties are civic affairs, sponsored by trade unions and other public organizations on a lavish scale. Actors and dancers from the theaters perform as the traditional holiday characters and as figures from fairy tales—Grandfather Frost, Puss-in-Boots, and so on. Cities are studded with picturesque outdoor booths and stages, and parks are decorated for outdoor celebrations of the new year.

During the holidays the children's clubs bustle with activity. Children's clubs, in every city and village of the Soviet Union, are popular hobby centers. A variety of material facilities and expert instruction encourages children to develop creative interests and skills of all kinds.

The pictures on these pages show Soviet children at their holiday fun—enjoying the fir tree party, and absorbed in their favorite pastimes at their clubs.

NEW YEAR PARTY. Puss-in-Boots and the Snow Maiden lead the dance.



CHILDREN'S CLUBS. Boys at their hobby in a Moscow children's club (left). Young chess enthusiasts of a juvenile club in Leningrad (right).

DANCING. Little girls spending a pleasant afternoon at their club.

RADIO. Young radio fans learn how to make sets.

EMBROIDERY. Another of the varied activities at the children's clubs.

NEW YEAR TREE. A holiday party.

When Will My Son Return?

THE extraordinary and heartbreaking difficulties encountered by Soviet parents seeking the return of their children who were carried away by the German armies and are now in the British zone of occupation are told in an "Open Letter to the Women of Britain" written by the mother Yevdokia Serdiukova and printed in the Soviet press. She writes:

"Dear friends!

"In February, 1947, I learned from Irena Filippova, just returned from the British occupation zone in Germany, that among the charges of the asylum in Rolschdorf near Lubeck, in the British zone of occupation, there was an eight-year-old boy named Yuri Serdiukov. I at once reported the address to the Soviet repatriation authorities, who at my request had been searching all over Europe for my Yuri and the children of my friends for more than two years. I asked them to take the necessary steps to hasten the repatriation of our children.

"At the same time, I wrote a letter to the tutoress of my son, Rosa Briedis, a friend of Irena. I asked her if my boy was really alive and if his name and surname had not been changed. Such things had been done by the former director of the asylum, a certain Ilga Hainis, for the purpose of concealing the Soviet extraction and citizenship of the children and to delay their homecoming. Weeks and months passed, but there was no answer. The numerous attempts of the Soviet officers to get the British occupation authorities to return the children were fruitless.

"With Tatyana Gurtovaya I then addressed an open letter to the President of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Nikolai M. Shvernik, and asked him, the head of the Soviet State, to help us recover our children from Germany.

"An interminable chain of formalities required by the British occupation authorities was begun. They demanded documentary proof that these were our children and that they had been carried off to Germany by the Nazis, etc., etc. We, the mothers, sent the requisite birth certificates of the children and other documents to the British occupation authorities through the Soviet repatriation bodies. Three months passed and we mothers, the Soviet public and press raised the question about the fate of our children again and again.

"Your compatriots finally returned Victor Mukhammedov, Vladimir Mazharov, Nikolai Gurtovoy and Victor Rakhvalov. But the asylum continues to retain my Yuri and scores of other Soviet children who are unlawfully withheld by the British occupation authorities in Germany.

"A few days ago I received a letter from the tutor Rosa Briedis, to whom I wrote in February, 1947.

"Her reply was brazen and heartless. She wrote that my son Yuri Serdiukov, eight years old, was in the aforementioned shelter, but since it has not been proved that he had been removed from the Soviet Union by the Germans during the war and that I was his mother, he would not be returned to me. I refuse to believe that this reply was written by Rosa Briedis. She herself comes from Latvia, knows all about my son and the other children. According to Irena Filippova, Rosa Briedis is an honest and decent girl. That reply was apparently dictated to her by someone.

"This worries me. I saw for myself how cowed and intimidated were the children of Zinaida Mazharova, Tatyana Gurtovaya and Helen Rakhvalova when they returned. I am troubled over Yuri's future and cannot keep quiet about it. I cannot keep quiet about it, too, because after a prolonged silence about our children the British Foreign Office suddenly began to talk about them. On October 8, the Foreign Office officially acknowledged that there were Russian children in the German orphanages in the British zone of occupation, but that their repatriation was being delayed for the following reasons:

"The British occupation authorities responsible for these children must, before they permit their repatriation, be certain that these children are citizens of this country or that they have parents or relatives there. When the extraction and existence of their parents had been determined four children were at once permitted to go home.

"It would seem that neither the British occupation authorities in Germany nor the officials of the Foreign Office are as yet convinced of my extraction and existence. It turns out that I, who have lived for more than 30 years, who have endured German slave labor, the Nazi death camps, all the fascist torments and tortures and yet survived, must now, if I am to recover my child, prove that I, Yevdokia Serdiukova, am really alive and exist.

"Is it possible that my open letter to the President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, a letter published in the Soviet press and broadcast over the radio, was not enough for the British occupation authorities in Germany and the officials of the Foreign Office of Great Britain?

"Is it possible that a birth certificate proving that Yuri Serdiukov, my son, was really born on October 11, 1939, in Berezia village of the Nemyatovsky Village Soviet in the Novo-Ladoga District of the Leningrad Region is not enough? The birth certificate was issued by the local Soviet official body and was sent to the British military authorities in occupied Germany through the Soviet liaison officers as far back as July, 1947.

"Is it possible that the testimony of the eye-witness, Zelma Vitins, the director of the Latvian Republic's Children's Home in the Majori resort on the coast of Riga, is not enough? On September 16, 1947, she informed the newspaper *Trud* (No. 218) that my son Yuri Serdiukov, born on October 11, 1939, was on the children's list of Home No. 81, the list having been preserved, and that on October 4, 1944, he was taken down to the Riga port by the German gendarmes, and together with 133 other children of the home, was placed aboard a ship on October 5, 1944, and sent to Germany.

"This, by the way, has been confirmed by the organ of the Latvian emigrants in Sweden, the newspaper *Latviu Vards* (*Word of the Latvians*) which is far from being favorably in-

clined toward the Soviet Union and Soviet Latvia.

"In its issue No. 42, this newspaper, as far back as September 1, 1945, published a list of the children who were removed from the children's home of the Majori resort on the coast of Riga by the Nazis and shipped to Germany. The 78th name on the list is my son, Serdiukov Yuri. Under the heading, 'Date and Year of Birth,' one can read: 'Born on October 11, 1939.' Under the heading, 'Place of Birth,' there is: 'USSR.'

"Three different documents thus confirm that my Yuri was really born in the Soviet Union and was really removed to Germany from the Soviet Union in the autumn of 1944. Tell me please, you British officers of the occupation forces in Germany and you gentlemen of the Foreign Office of Great Britain, what other proof and documents do you require to return a child to its mother?

"The only thing I want is to recover my boy as quickly as possible. The only aim in my lonely life is to rear my child as his father wanted him to be reared, his father who fell at the front. The will of those who died for us is sacred. That is why I, a Russian woman and mother who was deprived of the joys of motherhood by the Nazis, now, two and a half years after the war, demand to know why your compatriots refuse to return my son. I turn to you, the women and mothers of England! You must help me! My rights as a mother are being trampled upon.

"It is not only I, Yevdokia Serdiukova, who demand this, but all the women of my country. Every day I receive letters from strangers from all parts of the USSR, people who have taken my case to heart.

"Catherine Sazonova writes from the Urals: 'Your sorrow has deeply moved me. You were perfectly right when you wrote that there are people who have already forgotten the trials and hardships of the war, the suffering of millions. They do not know what the loss of a child means to a mother. The grief of others does not trouble them. But take courage, and remember that we are always with you.'

"I have had similar letters from other Soviet women. Together with them I demand to know of you, British officers, just when you will return my son and all the Soviet children in your zone of occupied Germany."

(SIGNED) Yevdokia Serdiukova

Latvian SSR, Liepaya, Graudu Street (Zernovaya), No. 22, Apt. 3.
November, 1947.

THAT the story of this mother is not uncommon is attested by Major Chekmazov, Senior Liaison Officer of the Soviet Military Mission on Repatriates in the Schleswig-Holstein area of Germany, in the British zone. In a recent statement, he told of his efforts to secure the repatriation of such children. He wrote:

"In its issue of October 26, 1947, the magazine *Britansky Soyuznik (British Ally)*, organ of the Press Attaché of the British Embassy in Moscow, published a statement attempting to refute the facts set forth in the note of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR on June 28, 1947, concerning the obstacles created by the British authorities to the repatriation of 120 children of Soviet parents, children who are now in the British zone of occupation in Germany.

"The statement asserts that the Soviet authorities had made no demands for the return of these children prior to their note of June 28, 1947, that investigation made established that there were about 70 and not 120 children, that the Soviet accusation to the effect that the children were being compelled to forget the Russian language was unjust, and that the members of the Soviet repatriation mission are free to visit the children's homes at any time.

"In connection with this statement I, who am directly connected with the repatriation of Soviet children, wish to make public the following facts:

"The question of repatriating the Soviet children carried off to Germany from the Baltic Soviet Republics and now kept in orphanages of the British zone of occupation was repeatedly raised by the Soviet representatives long before the official note was handed to the British Ambassador in Moscow on June 28, 1947.

"More than 18 months ago I personally conducted negotiations for the return of the children with Lieutenant Colonel Fogarty, head of the prisoners of war and displaced persons department of Schleswig-Holstein, with Major Milworth of the air force and Captain Ramage. They assured me that the requisite commissions would be set up and that repatriation would be accelerated. The date of our negotiations and their contents were recorded in official documents. In addition, documents drawn up by the UNRRA representative, Miss Morris, and containing information about the Soviet children were signed by myself in September and October, 1946, and were submitted to the Control Commission in Germany. More than a year has passed, but the children are still detained by the British authorities.

"As for the number of Soviet children in the province of Schleswig-Holstein alone, I can say the following:

"In the company of Major Stewart, Assistant Chief of the 626th military administrative board of Lubeck, and Mr. Illts, representative of the British Red Cross, I visited a children's home in the town of Klienberg at the end of May, 1947. With the approval of the British authorities the directors of the home refused to give me the names of the children in the institution. On that day there were 122 children in the place, offspring of citizens of the Baltic Soviet Republics.

"I managed to get a list of the 'orphans' in the home of the hamlet of Haffkrug. There were 16 Soviet children in this institution, all of them eligible for repatriation.

"There were more than 60 Soviet children in a home in the hamlet of Rolschdorf. In addition, there is a children's hospital in the town of Schlutup near Lubeck and a children's home in Lubeck itself, in the Mesen Kaserne, where there are about 100 children, many of them Soviet.

"In Schleswig-Holstein alone, therefore, there are far more Soviet children eligible for repatriation than the figure published by the *Britansky Soyuznik*.

"The British authorities in every way delayed the repatriation of the four Soviet children, Victor Mukhammedov, Vladimir Mazharov, Nikolai Gurtovoy and Victor Rakhvalov, mentioned in the Soviet note of June 28, and in this instance even resorted to deliberate lies.

"When at the end of August the Soviet representative, Major General Yurkin, raised the question of repatriating these children before the di-

rectorate of the Control Council for Displaced Persons and Prisoners of War, the British representative, Thicknesse, requested the Soviet Major General to remove the question from the agenda since the children had already been turned over to a Soviet liaison officer. Actually, however, the children were delivered only a few days later.

"Even after the letters of the mothers demanding the return of their children have appeared in the Soviet press, the British authorities continue to hamper their repatriation. On September 9, the controller of the Displaced Persons Department, Lieutenant Colonel Davis, refused to discuss the repatriation of the children, suggesting that the matter be taken up with higher authorities.

"According to the British statement on the repatriation of the Soviet children, the British authorities, before permitting the repatriation of the children, must convince themselves that these children really have parents or relatives in the country in question. If one were to believe the *Britansky Soyuznik*, repatriation is never refused if incontrovertible proof is offered. The following will show whether or not this is true.

"A letter from the former children's home nurse, Irena Filippova, published in the Soviet press, mentioned the name of Rosa Briedis, employed as a nurse in the children's home in Rolschdorf. Yevdokia Serdiukova, a Soviet woman whose son is in that home, wrote a letter to Rosa Briedis and begged that her child be returned. The letter was delivered to Rosa Briedis by the Soviet officer, Captain Chekrygin, in the presence of the British Red Cross representative, Mr. Illts. Despite the fact that nurse Briedis confirmed the fact that Serdiukova's son, eight-year-old Yuri Serdiukov, was in the Rolschdorf home, the British military authorities continue to keep him there.

"A few days ago the Soviet citizen Afanasiev sent our repatriation mission a photo of his son Eugene. From this photo I at once recognized Eugene Afanasiev, an inmate of the children's home of Haffkrug. The boy, in the presence of a commission, confirmed the fact that his father was a Soviet Army man. Pointing to my tunic he said that his father wore a uniform just like it. Despite the decision of the commission, set up to define nationality and determine the possibility of repatriating the children, Eugene Afanasiev has not yet been transferred to the Soviet representative.

"The Soviet children are being compelled to forget not only the Russian language, but their Soviet homeland as well. Asked what he knew about the Soviet Union, 15-year-old Vladimir Prokofiev, who lived in Minsk before the war, replied: 'Nothing. No one tells me anything about the Soviet Union here.'

"Let us see what the 'right to visit the children's asylums at any time' is in practice. According to the rules, a children's home may be visited only under the conditions which prevail in the displaced persons camp, i.e., only one officer accompanied by an interpreter may enter by special permission in the presence of a British representative and convoyed by a tommy-gunner (instructions on visits to displaced persons and refugees by Soviet liaison officers. Mr. UDP/58346, January 21, 1947, Paragraph 3, Articles 'b' and 'd').

"Following their instructions, the British officials continue to dispose of the Soviet children, to keep them from their mothers and make them forget about their native land. But the Soviet people will never rest until all of the Soviet children have been returned to their country."

Sholokhov's New Work

THE well-known Soviet novelist, Mikhail Sholokhov, made a brief visit to Moscow recently to complete arrangements for the publication of his new novel, *They Fought for Their Country*. It will appear serially in the magazine *Novy Mir* (New World) in the early part of 1948.

The author, who is 42, sturdy and broad-shouldered and of average height, lives in his native Cossack village of Veshenskaya. There, in an old two-story cottage on the bank of the River Don, he wrote his world-famed books, *The Silent Don* (a two-volume work, consisting of the novels, *And Quiet Flows the Don* and *The Don Flows Home to Sea*) and *Virgin Soil Upturned*. Millions of copies of these works have been sold in the Soviet Union, and *The Silent Don* has been translated into nearly all the languages in the world.

Mikhail Sholokhov is a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, and a Stalin Prize winner.

"Some foreign newspapers have misrepresented the reason for my 'silence'," Sholokhov remarked to correspondents. "A writer has no right to hurry over his work. And I have always been slow. It took me years to write *And Quiet Flows the Don*. Conditions permit me to work scrupulously over every page of my manuscript."

The Soviet writer is not as a rule tied by agreements with publishers. Everything is left to his honor and sense of duty. The reader does not hurry him, and he strives to produce something really good in as short a time as possible.

"The two years that have elapsed since the great historical event, the past war," Sholokhov continued, "are a comparatively short time. I'm still working on *They Fought for Their Country*, a novel begun during the war. Extracts have been published in the Soviet press. The theme is the heroism of the Soviet people in the defense of their country against fascism. The characters are soldiers and officers of the Soviet Army. The action takes place both at the front and in the rear.

"My object is to write a book worthy of the victory of my people in the struggle against fascism.

"During the battle of Stalingrad, the front followed the course of the Don about ten yards from my home at Veshenskaya. The walls of my cottage still bear traces of mortar fire, like the buildings in Moscow and Leningrad, which carry the scars of air bombardment and shell fire. Working in faraway Veshenskaya, I do not feel cut off from the capital. The Soviet writer is always at the fore in the struggle for peace and democracy. The important thing is spiritual unity, for which distance has no significance. The spiritual unity of the Soviet people is the leading theme of my new novel."

In Memoriam—Solomon Mikhoels

By Sergei Obraztsov

Solomon Mikhailovich Mikhoels, noted actor and director of the State Jewish Theater in Moscow, died January 13 at the age of 58. People's Artist of the USSR and a Stalin Prize winner, Mikhoels was for 30 years associated with the Moscow Jewish Theater, and was noted for his productions and character portrayals of great world classics and the works of Jewish writers. As Chairman of the Jewish Anti-Fascist Committee, Mikhoels was active in the international struggle against fascism. In behalf of this struggle, Mikhoels toured the United States and other countries in 1943.

MIKHOELS has gone from us. It is dreadful to write the words, hard to utter them, and still harder to understand them.

The life of a man who was himself the very embodiment of life has ceased. It was an ardent, full-blooded, strong life, swift-flowing and beautiful, like a river.

Mikhoels was complex, yet monolithic. He had the romantic wrathfulness of a fighter, the wisdom of a philosopher, lyrical tenderness and optimistic humor. All these merged in one—in an integral, inimitable alloy.

By profession he was an actor and producer, but his profession never became all-sufficing to him, nor could he have attained the peaks of that profession had he not been keenly conscious of its ultimate lofty goal.

The theme of the struggle for the dignity of man underlay every role that he interpreted.

He possessed to perfection the power of expression in word and gesture. He was musical in his every movement, and his very presence on the stage afforded enjoyment to the audience. This was not merely esthetic enjoyment of an actor's "skill." The slightest scene, the simplest little song interpreted by Mikhoels was transformed into something large and significant, for there was nothing either in his art or in his life into which he did not put the whole of himself or that he regarded as an insignificant trifle.

And the audience that enjoyed his superb acting in *King Lear* came to see *Tevye the Milkman*, to feel once more the emotions that Mikhoels imparted to them from the stage.

SOLOMON MIKHOELS

Mikhoels was chosen by the actors of the Moscow Jewish Theater as their producer and art director. And he proved a true guide. Not only because he was a talented actor, producer and master of theatrical form; and not because he could impart his own rich culture to his actors—but because at each rehearsal and at each meeting with the actors, he spoke of art as a medium for the dissemination of definite ideas, as a strong and powerful instrument, as a weapon, and not as a beautiful trinket.

The great theme of love and wrath sounded in the plays that he staged—love for those who hold man within them; wrath clothed in sarcasm and raised to the pitch of struggle against all that is brutal, evil, anti-human.

But if Mikhoels regarded each role and each production as an expression of social consciousness, it followed naturally that he could not confine himself to the medium of art alone.

He devoted himself to his work in the Jewish Anti-Fascist Committee as wholeheartedly as to the theater.

He loved his own people and knew them; he loved their language, their magnificent literature, their songs and music, their national rituals and the tragic pathos of their history. But this love was not sentimental affection for "the patriarchal," a literary love of style. It was an active, positive love, expressing itself in struggle against reactionary moods, against chauvinism, against the fog of archaic mysticism—striving toward a new and brighter life for the people to whom he belonged.

During the war, Mikhoels made wrathful speeches in the United States, in Canada, in Mexico and Britain.

Addressing the Jews of the whole world, he said: "In our free country, a new, proud generation has grown up, a generation that has assimilated the great and progressive ideas of humanity. A generation that has inherited the greatest cultural treasures of their own people, as well as of all mankind. A generation that has understood with its whole being the significance of the words, 'native country,' that has become the country of all the nationalities peopling it. Such a generation knows no fear! Such a generation cannot feel persecuted!"

In these few short phrases, Mikhoels expressed his love for his country, his Soviet country. For above all and before all, Mikhoels was a citizen of the Soviet Union. He knew and loved Russian culture to a no smaller degree than any Russian. He had brilliant mastery not only of the Russian tongue but also of the finest shades of thought and meaning in this language. He knew and loved Russian science, Russian art, literature, music and painting.

He was a People's Artist of the Soviet Union, and was loved ardently by all who had ever seen him as an actor on the stage or heard him as a fiery orator.

His life was a happy one, because it was filled to the last moment with striving for the happiness of proud man, for the great ideas of communism.

May the memory of that fine artist and citizen, Solomon Mikhailovich Mikhoels, endure forever among us and serve as an example to us.

HOUSING. An apartment house for employees of the Minsk auto plant.

The Byelorussian SSR

By N. Y. Natalevich

Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Byelorussian SSR

THE Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic owes its existence to Lenin and Stalin. During the Civil War (1918-1920) they organized our people's fight against the interventionists who wanted to strangle the young Soviet Republic. They originated and carried out the policy of equality of the nations and friendly collaboration between the peoples inhabiting the former Russian Empire.

Thanks entirely to the October Socialist Revolution, the Byelorussian people for the first time in their history established their own sovereign state and voluntarily entered, on an equal footing with the other Soviet republics, the multi-national Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Aided by the great Russian people, the Byelorussian people were able to overcome their age-old backwardness in a short period. During the years of Soviet power Byelorussia's national economy and culture reached a high level of development. Byelorussia became a republic of industry and collective farming.

During the war against the German fascists Byelorussia was converted into an arena of bitter struggle against the Hitlerite invaders. The Byelorussian people made a great contribution toward the common cause of the defeat of the fascist aggressor. This led to Byelorussia's international recognition as an equal member of the United Nations.

Prior to the Great October Revolution Byelorussia was a backward agricultural borderland of tsarist Russia, possessing only a small handicrafts industry. Now it has a highly developed industry, whose gross output in 1940 was 23 times greater than in 1913, while the production of electric power has grown 120-fold. New branches of industry hitherto unknown to Byelorussia have been created—metalworking, machine building, chemicals and others.

Agriculture has also achieved great successes. On the eve of the Second World War Byelorussia had 11 thousand collective farms and 337 machine and tractor stations. In a short time crop acreage of the collective farms increased by more than one million acres. The wheat acreage increased five times, potato acreage doubled, and that of industrial crops increased 2.5 times. The productivity of agriculture grew year by year.

Byelorussian culture, national in form and socialist in content, developed along with the national economy. This was promoted by the Soviet Government's policy of national equality.

The treacherous invasion of the German fascists interrupted the peaceful creative labor of the Byelorussian people. Byelorussia was one of the first Soviet Republics to suffer the invasion of the German hordes. The occupationists destroyed factories and plants, institutions of culture and science, shipped material and cultural treasures to Germany. They destroyed large cities and razed thousands of villages, leaving millions homeless. The damage inflicted by the Hitlerites upon the Republic's national economy amounted to 75,000,000,000 rubles.

The savage terror of the cruel enemy could not break the will of the Soviet people. More than one million Byelorussians fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army against the Germans. In the enemy rear the Byelorussian people conducted guerrilla warfare on a scale unparalleled in history. Three hundred and forty thousand Byelorussian partisans destroyed the enemy's garrisons, damaged his communications, blew up bridges and stores, wrecked military trains. Everyone who could hold arms rose against the occupationists. More than 150 thousand boys, girls and women fought in the ranks of the partisans.

For their selfless fight in the enemy's rear 89 thousand Byelorussian partisans have been awarded orders and medals of the Soviet Union. Two hundred and forty Byelorussians have received the highest military award—the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Soviet Byelorussia's new postwar Five-Year Plan envisages not only the restoration of the prewar level of industry and agriculture, but also considerable further development.

Almost 7,000,000,000 rubles will be invested in the course of these five years in capital construction—more than in all three preceding Five-Year Plans.

Toward the end of the current Five-Year Plan the gross production of

Byelorussian industry will be 16 per cent higher than before the war.

Crop acreage will reach 13 million acres, and the gross grain harvest will exceed the prewar level. The cattle herds and the productivity of livestock husbandry will also show considerable growth.

Some 670 thousand acres of marshes will be drained.

The country's electric power base will also undergo further development. The capacity of the power stations will be 2.2 times higher than in 1940.

Large sums are allotted for the reconstruction of schools, colleges, scientific, cultural and educational institutions.

The working people of Byelorussia have already achieved no small success in fulfillment of the Plan. More than six thousand industrial enterprises are again functioning, including enterprises of national importance—machine and tool works, a radio plant, an agricultural machinery plant, woodworking and flax processing enterprises, paper, textile and knitted goods factories. Power stations have been restored in all the large cities and in many district centers. Their capacity is approaching the prewar level.

Machine and tractor stations and collective farms have also been restored. Thousands of tractors, trucks, harvester combines, threshers, sowing machines and cultivators are in service. The collective farms are successfully restoring their herds of cattle, horses, sheep and goats.

The Government is devoting particular attention and care to the material welfare of the collective and individual farmers. In the course of two years the State has helped them acquire more than half a million head of cattle for their personal use.

The work of the majority of the Republic's scientific and educational institutions — the Byelorussian Academy of Sciences and scientific research institutes, the State University, 25 other higher schools—has been completely restored. In the current school year about one and one half million pupils are studying in the Republic's 11,465 city and village secondary and elementary schools.

The State Academic and the national opera and dramatic theaters, the Conservatory, the Dramatic Institute, studios, musical schools and other cultural institutions have also resumed their activities.

Two hundred and one newspapers and magazines are published in the Republic, most of them in the Byelorussian language. Byelorussian writers, playwrights and actors have achieved outstanding successes in the postwar years.

The Government of the Republic is devoting great attention to housing construction and the improvement of the housing conditions of the working people. More than four million square feet of living space have been constructed in the cities. In the rural districts more than 280 thousand peasant houses had been built and reconstructed by August 1, 1947.

To facilitate the housing reconstruction program, the State has granted collective and individual farmers more than 306 million rubles in long-term loans on favorable conditions, 440 million cubic feet of timber, and some four million square feet of glass. Moreover, the Government of the USSR has allotted 30 million rubles toward the construction of houses for especially needy families.

The western regions, reunited eight years ago in a single Byelorussian State, are the object of the Soviet Government's special care; it is taking measures toward the speedy elimination of the economic backwardness of these regions.

FARMING. Much fruit is grown in Byelorussia.

Soviet power has freed the people of the western regions from poverty, from national oppression and from the feudal-landlord yoke. Soviet power has granted them all the sacred rights embodied in the Stalin Constitution. Schools and institutions of higher learning have been opened in the western regions, newspapers and theaters have appeared. There are no more landless peasants in the villages of the western regions. The material welfare of the peasants of these regions is growing daily. They are taking an active part in public and state life, their political consciousness and cultural level are growing. They are selflessly working for the rehabilitation of their economy, destroyed by the occupationists.

The large cities of Byelorussia—Gomel, Mogilev, Vitebsk, Polotsk—are rising from ruins and ashes. The capital of the Republic, Minsk, has become unrecognizable during the short period since its liberation.

The city's large enterprises have begun working again. New factories have been constructed—a bicycle plant, the Chkalov tool works, the first shops of the textile mills. Streets and whole blocks are being beautified and rebuilt in accordance with the general plan of reconstruction of the capital.

Dozens of large industrial enterprises were built and began working in 1947. A tractor plant and an automobile plant, to be the largest in the country, are nearing completion.

The scope of the working people's creative labor is vividly illustrated by the steady growth of industrial output, the volume of which in 1947 exceeded the 1946 figure by 65 per cent.

Workers of agriculture in the past year gathered a bumper harvest of grain and industrial crops.

As the new year—the third year of the current Five-Year Plan—gets under way, the Byelorussian people proudly look back at their path of struggle and victory. They are confident that the terrible aftermath of war will soon be a matter of the past, and that Soviet Byelorussia will achieve new and further development of its socialist economy and culture.

LUMBERING. A log jam on a Karelian river. The Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic is one of the great lumbering areas of the world.

The Life of Soviet Timber Workers

By S. Zabolotsky

KARELIAN pine is world renowned. This valuable tree predominates in the vast forests of the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic. Timber is the basis of its economy, its major branch of industry. In Soviet times the timber industry of the Karelo-Finnish Republic was developed extensively. By the beginning of the Second World War lumber production had increased more than eightfold as compared with 1913.

Karelian lumber camps are continually being equipped with the most up-to-date machinery, and numerous special railways and roads have been built for the transportation of lumber. On the eve of the war, mechanization of timber transportation in the Karelian Republic had increased more than 27-fold as compared with 1933. Lumber production is gradually becoming a completely mechanized industry. Mobile electric power stations and numerous mechanisms of all kinds have been introduced, lightening labor and increasing productivity.

The living and working conditions of the lumber workers have changed immensely since the days of tsardom. *Economic Description of the Olonets Territory,* a book published in 1910, gives a vivid description of the living conditions of the lumber workers of those days:

"The peasants take to timber felling as soon as the fall sets in. If the forest is far from the village, a 'camp' is set up, consisting of log cabins, half underground without stoves or chimneys, provided with a hearth on which food is cooked. The cabins are usually about 14 feet in length and width and a little more than seven feet in height, each housing 25 to 30 persons. Here they all sleep, dry their clothes and cook their food. . . . Some workers live in the forest, in huts of fir twigs."

Old-timers note the striking contrast between these conditions of the pre-revolutionary past and the modern Soviet lumber workers' settlements. These settlements have well built two-story dwellings, clubs, schools, dining halls, bath houses, kindergartens and creches, well appointed, provided with electric light and radio receiving sets.

In the kindergartens and creches the younger children receive nourishing breakfasts and dinners and are cared for by experienced teachers. The older children attend school, where instruction is conducted in their native tongue

As one looks at these schools, scattered amidst the forests of this most northerly of the Soviet Republics, one finds it hard to believe that in tsarist times this was a land of almost complete illiteracy. In those days none could even dream of schools for lumber workers' children.

In the evenings Soviet lumber workers fill the clubs where they see new films, listen to lectures, attend study circles. Many of the workers have become active participants in amateur art activities and perform at club concerts.

In the Soviet Union the pay of lumber workers is based on the progressive piecework system. If in the course of half a month the worker's output exceeds 12 daily norms (quotas), he receives for the output above these norms 50 to 100 per cent more than the base rate of pay. In addition, premiums ranging from 50 to 150 per cent of the basic wages are paid to lumber workers who exceed their season's quota of output. Consequently, every lumber worker who raises the productivity of his labor and thereby helps the fulfillment of state plans at the same time increases his earnings. Socialist emulation in fulfilling and topping the plans for cutting and transporting timber has developed widely in Karelia.

While output of lumber is increasing year by year, the forestry experts of the Republic are properly organizing the exploitation of forests to avoid depletion. Soviet authorities have put an end to the rapacious cutting down of forests which today is still characteristic of some countries.

In the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Republic devastating forest fires have long been unknown. Many airplanes guard forests against conflagrations, dropping fire-extinguishing bombs wherever the outbreak of fire is reported.

The forest air service of the Republic carries out other tasks in addition to fire-fighting. Planes survey rivers along which Karelian lumber is transported, they supervise timber rafting, they deliver urgently needed cargoes to distant lumber enterprises, and make photographic surveys of vast forest areas. The aerial photographs enable specialists to determine the extent of timber reserves, the kinds of trees growing on a given sector and their age and quality, and also to map lumber transportation roads.

Northern Agriculture

By A. Khrapal

THE Far North of the USSR stretches over an area of almost four million square miles, a territory larger than the United States, Great Britain, France, Belgium and Japan taken together.

Before the October Revolution the Far North was the most backward of the outskirts of tsarist Russia. Under Soviet power the region has entirely changed. It has a developing industry and highways. The population is steadily increasing. Factory settlements and towns have risen in formerly barren territories.

Prior to the October Revolution farming existed only in the southern regions of the Far North: Sakhalin, the central regions of Yakutia, Narym and Pechora. In the majority of the regions the population did not engage in agriculture.

Since the establishment of Soviet power agriculture in the Far North has developed by leaps and bounds. In the past 20 years the sowing area increased six times, potato plots 36 times.

Farming is developing not only in the previously assimilated areas but also in regions farther north.

Agriculture has penetrated as far north as the basin of the river Anadyr, the Chukotka national area, Khatanga, situated at 72 degrees northern latitude, Norylsk and Dudinka (nearly 70 degrees northern latitude), and Naryan-Mar located near the northeastern coast of the European sector of the USSR.

All these regions cultivate potato crops and a variety of other vegetables —cabbage, cauliflower, turnips, radishes, carrots and so on. Early-ripening vegetables are grown on a small scale even on the Arctic Sea coast. Grain cultivation is also being pushed northward.

In some regions in the Far North record crops are grown. In 1936, the Stalin Collective Farm (Viluysk region, Yakut ASSR) reaped more than 11.7 tons of barley to the hectare.* The Molot collective farm cropped 13.5 tons of potatoes to the hectare.

State farms situated in the upper reaches of the Kolyma are reaping better crops year after year. They have reaped an average of 2.4 tons of cabbage to the hectare for many years now and increased the sowing area ten times in the past twelve years. The dairy and vegetable state farm in the Taimyr national area, where climatic conditions are exceptionally severe, crops an average of 2-2.5 tons of vegetables to the hectare. The yields of some varieties on the experimental plots is often as high as 60 tons to the hectare.

Some of the regions of the Far North grow enough vegetables to cover their needs and some—further south —provide their own grain.

The development of the huge territories in the Far North was begun on the initiative of Lenin and Stalin soon after the October Revolution. Hundreds of farm experts traversed the country to study the soil.

In 1923 Academician Eikhfeld established an experimental station at Khibini, Kola Peninsula. There a thorough study of the soil was begun and experiments started. Now dozens of scientific research institutions scattered in various parts of the Far North are carrying on the same work.

The pre-revolutionary peasant with his small household and primitive implements could not bend the grim nature of the Far North. He could not on any big scale clear the ground of tree stumps, dry the swamps, etc. The application of scientific achievements in agriculture became possible only after the introduction of collective farming, organized on a large scale and on socialist principles. Supplied with tractors and other machines the collective and state farms are successfully developing agriculture in the Far North.

The current Five-Year Plan provides for a further increase in the sowing area by approximately 18 per cent. In the newly developing agricultural areas this increase will be much greater; in certain instances, the sowing area will be doubled. This will considerably improve the living standard of the population in the Far North.

*Metric tons—2,204 lbs.; 1 hectare=2.471 acres

"THE CARAVAN." The Turkmenian Dance Ensemble presents the life of the people of this Eastern republic with skill and humor. This dance is a comic one of the tribulations of a camel-driver.

ECCENTRIC DANCE. "The Hunter and the Leopard," performed by two dancers of the Ensemble.

Turkmen Dancers

"DANCE OF THE COTTON PLANT." In another mood, dancers of the Ensemble do a lyric dance of the growing cotton, the "white gold" of Turkmenia. This Ensemble was organized from among young workers and peasants.

FOLK THEME. A Turkmenian dancer portrays a tea vendor in this gaily costumed dance.

Puppeteers' School

By Tatiana Lebedeva

Among the theatrical schools of Moscow there is one which is exceptionally interesting. This institution, training directors and artists for puppet theaters, is the only one of its kind in the Soviet Union.

Puppet shows are very popular among Soviet children. The puppet theaters of the Soviet Union are doing a great job of education, not limiting themselves to entertaining performances alone. Easily accessible to young imaginations, this theatrical form exercises profound influence on young audiences. Puppet shows, however, are attended with equal enjoyment by the adults.

There are more than 60 puppet theaters in the Soviet Union today, and their network is steadily growing. Amateur child puppeteers in the elementary and secondary schools stage historical and travel plays, helping their classmates to learn their history and geography lessons.

The technique of the puppeteer is complex, and requires great skill and knowledge. The work of the artist in the puppet theater is as important as that of the director and the actor. The artist must display great ingenuity; the success of a puppet production often depends on his decorations.

The puppeteers' school was established at one of the largest puppet theaters in the Soviet Union, the State Puppet Theater directed by Sergei Obraztsov. The director takes an active part in the work of the school, where he instructs a class in "the work of the director with the artist."

The school has two departments: the postgraduate directors' department, for sufficiently qualified young directors engaged chiefly in the provinces; and the department for artist-producers. The training period is two years, during which the student attends lectures on general educational and specialized topics. At the same time he studies the methods of creating the puppet actors and the decorations. The first-year examinations call for an independent puppet production in a work of the student's own composition.

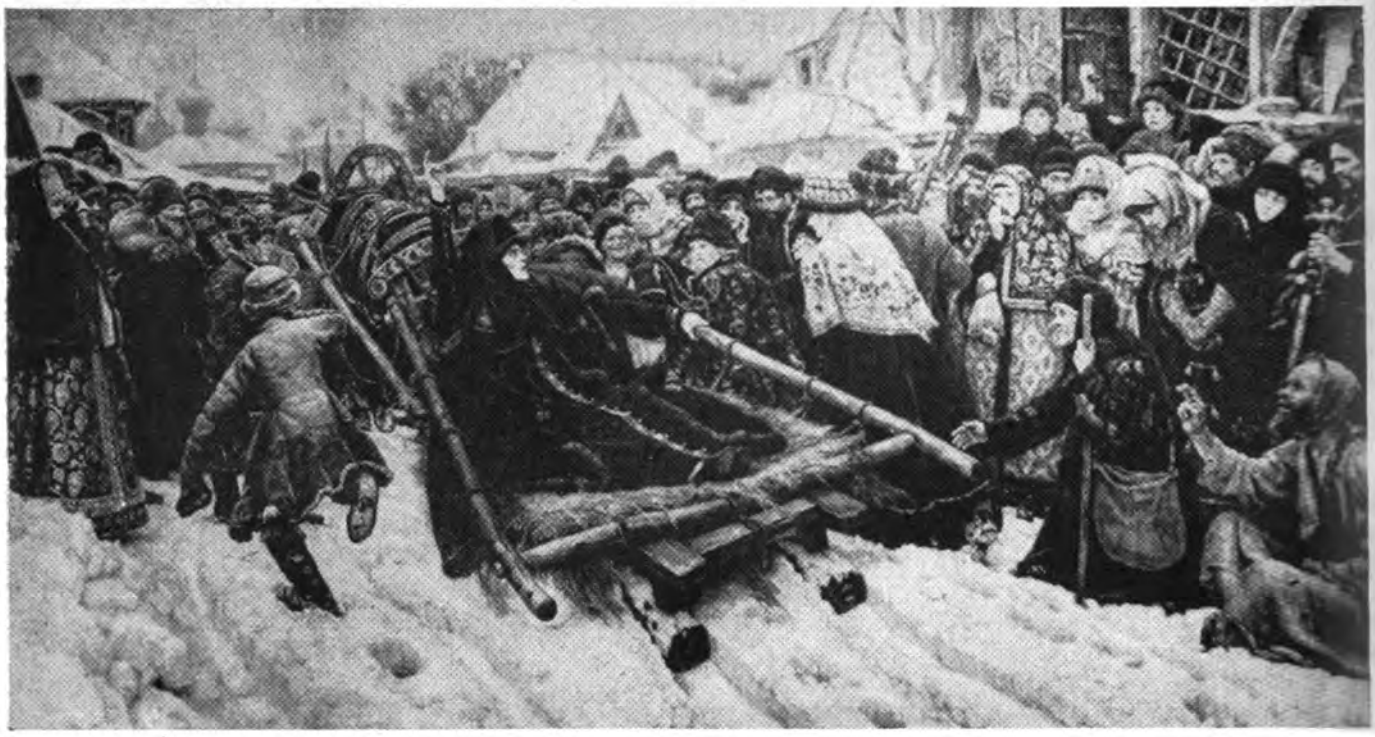
The department for artist-producers includes the following subjects: painting, drawing, history of art, history of the theater, history of Eastern culture, the general history of material culture, the types and forms of puppet theaters in history and ethnography, the production of puppet shows, descriptive geometry, plastic anatomy, modeling, light effects, the process of puppet making, wood carving, and general political subjects. The prospective artist-producer in addition must learn decorative painting, dramaturgy and the work of director and artist. The number of students in the art department may reach 40.

PUPPETEERS AT WORK. Ludmila Kuzmina and her doll-making class.

VILLAINY AFOOT. Puppets for a Grimm fairy tale and a Pushkin story pose together.

The puppet-making class is taught by the well-known puppeteer-artist, Ludmila Kuzmina. "The class which I teach," she said, "the processes of making the dolls, is the most advanced class of the puppet school, since it summarizes all the knowledge gained by the student who must now produce sketches and costumes for dolls independently. He must also learn to make the dolls he sketches. For this he must not only command a thorough knowledge of the culture and epoch to which the doll and costume in question belongs, but he must also be skilled in wood-carving, the handling of papier-maché, and painting. He must also know the mechanisms connected with the movement of the dolls and, finally, he must be able to sew the costumes."

The graduate of the puppeteers' school is faced with bright prospects, as are all specialists graduating from Soviet schools. The popularity of puppet shows and the demand for skilled puppeteers is unlimited.



"BOYARINYA MOROZOVA." Surikov's painting, dated 1887, of Morozova, banished for opposing reforms in the Church.

"MENSHIKOV AT BEREZOV." Menshikov, a prominent figure during the reign of Peter I, was banished with his famil to Berezov.

Vassili Surikov, Russian Painter

By M. Joffe

THE hundredth anniversary of the birth of Vassili Surikov, a Russian artist whose historical paintings are famous, was marked by the Soviet people on January 24. His name has been mentioned by Joseph Stalin in association with the names of some of the most prominent Russians.

Surikov was born in Krasnoyarsk and was a Siberian Cossack. His ancestors went to Siberia from the Don River country in the 15th century. The tradition of this heroic and liberty-loving people was preserved in the Surikov family, and undoubtedly had a very marked influence on the artist's development.

In 1869 he entered the Academy of Arts at St. Petersburg. He was graduated, a brilliant and promising student, five years later, and went to live in Moscow—the center of the Russian people's life, as he put it.

The power and originality of his talent were displayed in his first large picture, *The Morning of the Execution of the Streltsi,* which he sent in 1881 to the ninth exhibition of the group of progressive realists known as the Peredvizhniks. The choice and treatment of the historical subject, its composition and pictorial arrangement, showed Surikov as an innovator. When his *Boyarinya Morozova* appeared at an exhibition in 1887, it aroused much comment in the press and made his name as a master of the historical subject.

Episodes from the distant past live again in his canvases as dramatic conflicts in which the masses play the leading role. The artist reveals the inner truth of events, the people in action, thereby representing psychological character with greater depth. The spectator himself becomes the participant, swept away by the strength of the imagery.

The best traits of the Russian people —strength of character, clear-headedness, will-power, courage and staunchness—found striking expression in Surikov's imagery. As a critic said: "Surikov has raised the artist's calling to the level of a national cause, because

SURIKOV. A bust of the painter by Sergei Konenkov.

he did not paint the archeological objects of history, but human souls."

He was a consistent and stern realist, untiring in his study of and attention to actuality. He drew nothing except from nature, and collected the material for his pictures for years. At the same time, he was fundamentally opposed to photographic copying of nature, and considered that kind of exactitude repellent. In reflecting actual life, his imagery was inspired by the creative thought and poetic feeling of the artist.

His exceptional ability in composition and the sparkling brilliance of his pictorial gifts were always subordinated to the interpretation of the idea of the painting. For this reason his large canvases, with their color and sense of light, their innumerable figures, each of which has its own character and individual features, impress one with their amazing unity and integrity of design.

In addition to his large historical canvases, Surikov painted many superb portraits and water-colors. They are the pride of the largest galleries and art museums in the USSR.

Surikov died in March, 1916. His profoundly thoughtful, progressive and truly national creative talent played a considerable part in the development of the Russian realistic school of painting and continues to have a beneficial influence on contemporary Soviet art.

This realism has become in recent years the dominant trend in Soviet art. It has produced a school of painters whose work deals with historical and heroic themes, and with typical scenes of Soviet life. This trend was particularly marked during and since the recent war, when many paintings were done recording the feats of Soviet military men and civilians in the struggle against the aggressor armies.

"EXECUTION OF THE STRELTSI." The Streltsi mutinied in 1698 against the innovations of Tsar Peter I.

Soviet Ski Stations

By Alexei Arzhanov

MILLIONS of Soviet boys and girls take up skiing in the Soviet Union, participate in various meets or spend their leisure time in winter skiing across the fields and through forests outside of the towns where they live.

As many as 754 thousand members of skiing sections of sports clubs in the Russian SFSR alone practice regularly throughout the winter season. Nearly six million persons entered the cross-country skiing races held jointly by the trade unions and youth organizations in the beginning of 1947.

In the 30 years since the Revolution, nine thousand ski stations have been set up in the USSR, each of which can accommodate from one hundred to three thousand persons. In addition, skis, ski shoes, suits and other equipment can be hired at each of the six hundred stadiums functioning throughout the country. Construction of ski stations continues, and their number will be considerably increased in the course of the current Five-Year Plan.

One of the principal aims of the Soviet sports movement is to draw the greatest number of people possible into all the sports and games promoted on the territory of the USSR. Therefore, skiing, like all other sports, is accessible to every Soviet citizen.

The ski stations have fixed rates for hiring skis and other equipment. One can hire a pair of skis for the whole day at a cost of only two rubles. The rates for hiring ski shoes and suits are also nominal. Sports societies issue skiing equipment free of charge to their members.

As many as 250 thousand Muscovites indulge in regular ski practice in various sections of sports clubs. The biggest ski station in the Soviet capital belongs to the athletes of the Central Soviet Army House and is situated in Sokolniki Park. Moscow skiers call this picturesque area the "Russian Switzerland." This ski station serves three thousand persons at one time.

Another favorite spot of the capital's skiers is at the other end of the city, in the Lenin Hills, situated next to the Central Park of Culture and Rest. Competitions in ski-jumping and slalom are conducted here. The ski-jump in the Lenin Hills is one of the best in the country.

There are several well-equipped skiing centers in the suburbs of Moscow. Skiers usually leave the city Saturday evening, spend the night at the hostels in the woods and set out on long trips on their skis the following morning.

One of the finest skiing centers was established in the Uktuss Hills outside of Sverdlovsk in the Urals a few years before the outbreak of the Second World War. The favorable climate, beautiful surroundings and the long winter here make it an ideal locale for the national skiing championship contests. The nation's top-ranking skiers and thousands of spectators assemble in the Uktuss Hills in February or March every year to participate in and watch the USSR title contests. It has become a tradition to award the winner of the women's skiing crown the title of "Mistress of Uktuss Hills." Lyubov Kulikova, a noted skier, who held this title for several winters, was killed in action while serving with a partisan detachment in the recent war. Zoya Bolotova, another outstanding skier, was the "Mistress of Uktuss Hills" until last winter, when she relinquished the title and the national crown to Anastasya Plotnikova, a young skier employed at a Urals machine building plant.

SKIING. Sports-lovers at Kazan.

Another popular winter sports center is Bakuriani, in the mountains of Soviet Georgia, which was expanded and reconstructed in the past year. Major skiing competitions will be held here this season.

Stadiums, athletic fields and ski stations are functioning and more are being opened in provincial towns as well as in the larger cities of the USSR. First-class skating rinks have been opened in Gorky and Kirov, east of Moscow. Even beyond the Arctic Circle, on the Kamchatka Peninsula and on Sakhalin Island, dozens of stadiums, ski stations, ice rinks, and other winter sports facilities have been set up. A ski-jump tower where 260-foot jumps are possible has been erected near Krasnoyarsk in Siberia. This ski-jump tower is the largest in the USSR.

The ski stations suffered heavily at the hands of the German occupationists. Practically all the sports facilities in Byelorussia and the Karelo-Finnish Republic were demolished, and the majority of alpine camps in the Caucasus were destroyed. Restoration work got under way on a large scale in 1946. Pargolovo (in the suburbs of Leningrad) and scores of other skiing centers have been completely restored. Within the next few years the pre-war number of Soviet stadiums, ski stations, and other facilities will be exceeded. The number of athletes taking up skiing, track and field sports, gymnastics and other sports is steadily growing.

Notes on Soviet Life

MORE than one and one half million workers, engineers and office employees spent their vacations and received medical treatment at trade union rest homes and sanatoriums in 1947. In the course of the year the trade unions of the USSR opened 120 new health resorts, including Dolossy, one of the finest in the Crimea, and a sanatorium for the miners of the Cheremkhovo coal region (Siberia). Within the next few years sanatoriums and rest homes of the Soviet trade unions will accommodate 450 thousand persons at one time. Three million vacationers will rest and receive medical treatment at trade union resorts during the coming year.

★

Agricultural correspondence courses in the USSR are training specialists in 19 branches of agronomy, animal husbandry, irrigation and other aspects of agriculture. The courses are given by the All-Union Agricultural Institute and 44 other agricultural higher schools of the country. At present nearly six thousand students are taking the correspondence courses offered by these institutions. Some two hundred specialists completed correspondence courses in the past two years.

★

The Lenin Library in Minsk, destroyed by the Germans, has been restored. One of the largest libraries in the Soviet Union, it possesses two million volumes.

★

Films accompanying popular science lectures given at the Polytechnic Museum in Moscow are shown in daylight. Cinema apparatus for daylight film screening has been designed by the Soviet inventor, R. Novitsky. Films shown in daylight are just as bright and clear as those shown in darkened rooms.

★

Publication of the 66-volume Large Soviet Encyclopedia has been completed. Containing 65 thousand articles on various subjects, it is one of the largest encyclopedias in the world.

In connection with the 24th anniversary of Lenin's death this month, the Ministry of Communications of the USSR has issued a new series of three postage stamps. One has a portrait of Lenin, and two show Lenin's tomb.

★

Before the western regions of the Ukraine were reunited with the Soviet Ukrainian Republic, practically the whole population of these regions was illiterate. Functioning in these regions today are 7,430 elementary and secondary schools (attended by 1,500,000 children), 112 specialized technical high schools and 24 higher schools. The first university of the Transcarpathian Ukraine has been opened in Uzhgorod.

★

By decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Marshal of the Soviet Union Ivan Konev has been awarded the Order of Lenin, on the occasion of his 50th birthday, in recognition of his outstanding services to the State and the Armed Forces of the USSR.

Several major chess contests have been scheduled for Soviet players in 1948, including the 16th USSR championship contest, and the team championship contest of the Central Council of Soviet Trade Unions to be held in Leningrad at the end of the year. A tournament featuring teams of the Russian SFSR and the Republics of Georgia, Azerbaijan and Armenia will be held in Erevan in the autumn. At about the same time, 76 teams representing the regions, territories and Autonomous Republics of the Russian SFSR will contend for the RSFSR championship title. A chess cup has been established for the victorious team in the contest of six Autonomous Republics—Tataria, Chuvashia, Udmurtia, Mordovia, Bashkiria and the Mari Republic. As in 1947, the USSR Committee for Physical Culture and Sports is organizing a series of radio chess matches between major Soviet cities.

★

The collective and state farms of the Georgian SSR exceeded their quota of tea leaf deliveries by 5,000 tons.

Moscow Radio Broadcasts in English January 28—February 8

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from January 28 to February 8 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M., on 6.11, 7.36, 9.54, 9.57, 11.72, 15.17 and 17.77 megacycles

A daily evening program—one and one half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:50 P.M. on 5.96, 7.30, 7.36, 9.50, 9.78, 11.72, 11.88 and 15.23 megacycles.

Two news bulletins are given on the evening programs, at 6:20 and 7:30 P.M.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Program for American youth — Wednesday, January 28.

Soviet trade unions — Thursday, January 29.

Culture and science—Fridays, January 30 and February 6.

Weekly news review, sports review and replies to letters from listeners—Saturdays, January 31 and February 7.

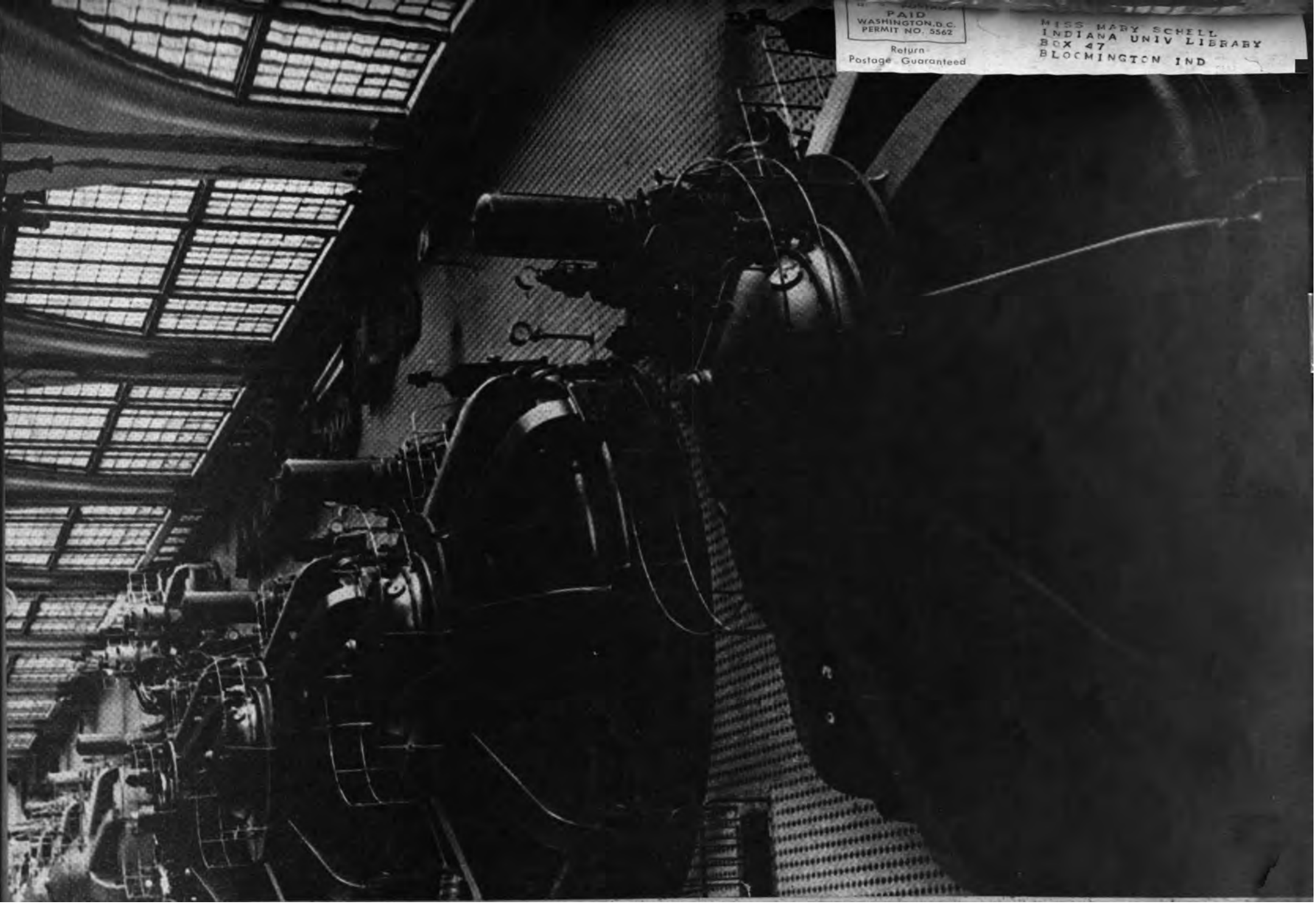
One-hour concerts—Sundays, February 1 and 8.

Program on the fifth anniversary of the German rout at Stalingrad—Monday, February 2.

Soviet economy — Tuesday, February 3.

Program for farmers—Wednesday, February 4.

Program on Soviet children—Thursday, February 5.



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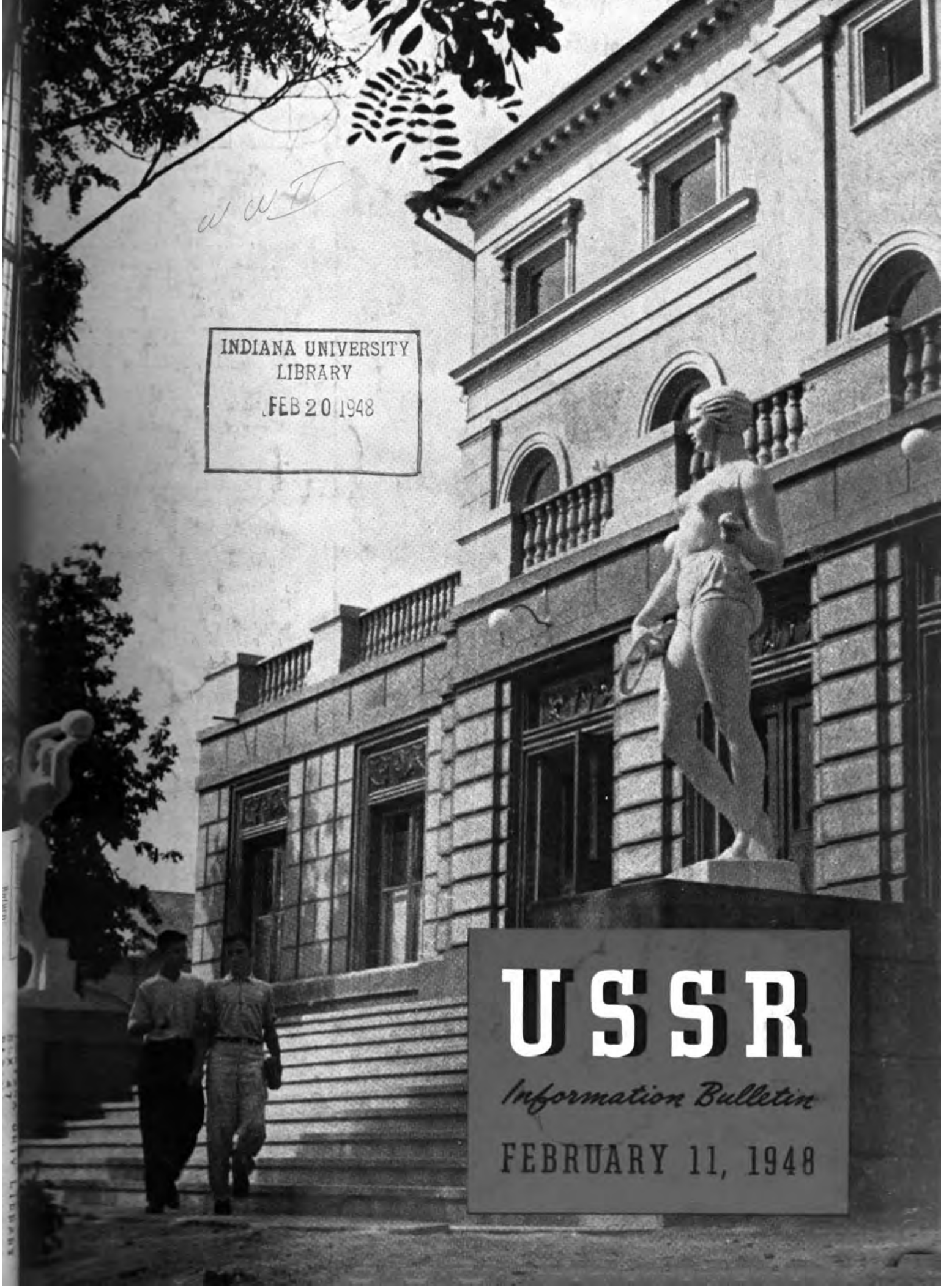

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Information Bulletin

FEBRUARY 11, 1948

USSR

INFORMATION BULLETIN

VOLUME VIII ★ NUMBER 3

FEBRUARY 11, 1948

Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 for six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

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POET'S TOMB. (Left) Mausoleum at the grave of Nizami, the great Azerbaijan poet, who lived 800 years ago. FRONT COVER. Prewar Stalingrad. The fifth anniversary of the victory there was marked February 2, 1948. BACK COVER. During the battle of Stalingrad.

THE BATTLE. Fighting among the ruins of the Red October factory.

The Great Victory Of Stalingrad

By Col. N. Denisov

FIVE years ago (February 2, 1943) the great battle of Stalingrad ended, after raging for nearly six months. The Soviet Army routed the Sixth and the Fourth Hitler armies commanded by Field Marshal von Paulus, who surrendered.

The Stalingrad battle, still fresh in our memories, played a vital part in determining the course of the struggle against Nazism.

For all peace-loving peoples Stalingrad is the symbol of matchless courage, stubbornness and unbounded faith in the justice of one's cause. Stalingrad is a model of the military skill and mastery of the soldiers, officers and generals of the Soviet Army. The Stalingrad battle was the turning point, which predetermined the defeat of the Hitler armies on the Soviet-German front—the chief theater of World War II. "Stalingrad," as Joseph Stalin said, "marked the beginning of the decline of the German-fascist army. It is common knowledge that the Germans never recovered from the Stalingrad slaughter."

The struggle for Stalingrad began in the summer of 1942.

Two hundred and forty Hitler divisions, that is more than 70 per cent of the enemy forces, were massed on the Soviet-German front. The striking groups of the Hitler army were assigned the task of capturing Moscow. Taking into account the experience of the first year's action against the USSR when the Hitler divisions sustained a crushing defeat at the gates of Moscow, the German General Staff elaborated a new plan: after developing an attack in the southwesterly direction, to break through to the Volga, split the western part of the USSR in two, and then, by a sharp turn northward, to deliver a blow against the capital from the rear. The key point of the Volga attack was Stalingrad—an important industrial center in the lower reaches of the great Russian river. Hitler hurled a powerful force against Stalingrad—the Sixth Army which had previously seen action in Belgium, France, Yugoslavia and Greece, and the Fourth Tank Army. The thirty-six infantry and tank divisions were supported by the Fourth Air Fleet under General Richthofen and by from 1,500 to 2,000 guns.

The general situation in the European theater in 1942 was favorable for the German plans. "There was no second front against Hitler Germany then," writes *Red Star*, "although there were more than four million men under arms in Britain and Canada and over two million in the United States—forces quite adequate to start operations on the European continent." But those forces were not set in motion at the time.

In that complicated and difficult situation, the Soviet Supreme Commander-in-Chief, Generalissimo Stalin, displayed extraordinary insight into the aims of the Germans and his brilliant leadership ensured victory beneath the walls of Stalingrad.

Military historians divide the Stalingrad operation into four major stages, each of which saw the collapse of the plans of the German High Command.

The first phase—the defense of Stalingrad (on the distant approaches and in the city itself)—which continued for 16 weeks, was the longest. Soviet infantrymen, sappers, artillerymen, pilots, marines and tankists, defended the city with unequalled heroism and stubbornness. "Not one step back! There is no land for us beyond the Volga," said the Soviet soldiers. Fighting raged in the city streets and squares, in the houses and basements. Hitler planned to take Stalingrad on July 25. July, August and then September passed, October was drawing to an end, the Volga bulwark remained invincible.

Nothing in the annals of history can compare with the stubborn and successful defense of Stalingrad that continued for so long a time against superior enemy forces. The Stalingrad defenders met and repulsed up to 250 assaults, they waged at least a thousand air battles in the city sky. Their fighting spirit, their faith in victory was unshakable. When the fighting in Stalingrad had reached the highest point, the Stalingrad defenders addressed a letter to Generalissimo Stalin, Supreme Commander-in-Chief.

"We are writing to you," began the letter, "amid the roar of constant gunfire, the whirr of bomber engines, raging fires on the steep bank of the great Russian Volga; we are writing to tell

you, and through you the Soviet people, that we are strong in spirit, that our will is firm as never before, that we have not tired of striking the enemy. Our decision is—to stand to the death at the walls of Stalingrad!

". . . We understand, that at the approaches to Stalingrad we are not fighting for Stalingrad alone! Here in Stalingrad we are defending our homeland, defending everything that is dear to us and without which we cannot live. Here in Stalingrad the fate of the country is being decided. Here in Stalingrad the question is being solved of whether the Soviet people shall be free or not."

The Stalingraders did not let the enemy pass. By their courageous defense of the city they gained time for the preparation of a decisive counter offensive.

The second stage of the battle was the devastating counterblow. This attack, executed on plans conceived by Generalissimo Stalin, was a model of unrivalled strategy and ingenious leadership.

The blow was planned in two directions: northwest and south of Stalingrad.

On November 19 (Artillery Day, celebrated annually on this day, was instituted to commemorate this great offensive), Soviet guns began hammering the enemy positions on the said sectors. Then began the huge pincer drive aiming to envelop the German group occupying a tremendous territory. The pincers closed more than 30 miles west of Stalingrad; ten days after the offensive, 22 enemy divisions fully equipped for battle were encircled on a theater of 579 square miles, pierced by artillery fire. This unexampled and dashing maneuver resulted in the encirclement of a powerful enemy force abundantly supplied with war equipment.

REBUILDING. K. Natalich, a concrete worker during the rebuilding of the Stalingrad tractor plant. He came from Chelyabinsk to help.

"PAVLOV HOUSE." Guards soldiers under Sergeant Pavlov beat off attacks in this house for 58 days.

The third phase of the battle—during the month of December and the first half of January—was the stage when the Soviet troops consolidated their initial success. They organized an impenetrable air blockade of the German group of three hundred thousand troops; they repelled every German attempt to relieve the Paulus army from outside; they developed the offensive, shifting the line of the front by from 37 to 186 miles from Stalingrad. The Paulus army found itself in the rear of the Soviet troops.

Then came the end. The Germans rejected the proposal to capitulate. On the morning of January 10, five thousand Soviet guns and mortars began pounding the enemy. Gradually tightening the ring, the Soviet troops sliced up the enemy group and forced it to capitulate. More than ninety-one thousand Germans were taken prisoner and tremendous booty was captured—thousands of guns and mortars, tanks, and nearly a thousand aircraft.

The victory near Stalingrad was the starting point for the general winter offensive of the Soviet Army on all sectors from Leningrad to the Cau-

casus, in the course of which (before the capitulation of the Paulus army) 102 German divisions were liquidated. The elimination of the enemy group before Stalingrad determined to a very substantial degree the further development of the Second World War.

The significance of the Stalingrad victory extended far beyond the bounds of the Soviet-German front. The victory of the Soviet Army at Stalingrad opened the way for the British and American troops to success in the battle of North Africa, which brought about the collapse of fascist Italy.

The entire world had to admit that through Stalingrad lay the road not only to Tunis but to the final defeat of Hitler Germany.

The Stalingrad victory was won not only by soldiers who fought at Stalingrad. It was the handiwork of millions of Soviet people far in the rear, rallied and organized by the party of Lenin and Stalin, to put all their efforts into the struggle against the imperialist aggressors, for freedom and independence of the land of socialism. The last shot had hardly been fired at Stalingrad when the entire country, amid the hardships of the still-continuing war, set to work to restore the legendary city, the city at whose walls lay buried the schemes of conquest of the imperialist Nazi robbers.

In his message congratulating Stalin and the Soviet people on the brilliant Stalingrad victory, the late President Roosevelt wrote: "The 162 days of epic battle for the city which has forever honored your name, and the decisive result of which all Americans are celebrating today, will remain one of the proudest chapters in this war of the peoples united against Nazism and its emulators. The commanders and the fighters of your armies at the front and the men and women who have supported them in factory and field have combined not only to cover with glory their country's arms but to inspire by their example fresh determination among all the united nations to bend every energy to bring about the final defeat and unconditional surrender of the common enemy."

Izvestia in an article titled *Stalingrad Today* reports on what has been accomplished as a result of five years of strenuous effort. A new Stalingrad is rising from the ashes and ruins. The Red October iron and steel plant is all but completely reconstructed. The tractor plant was fully restored some time ago and scores of tractors are rolling off its conveyor belt every day. The first ships have been launched on the Stalingrad shipyards. Dozens of other plants have been revived. About 27 thousand buildings have been restored or newly built. Telephone, street car services, water supply and sewer systems are functioning again. Seventy-two schools, 34 hospitals and 30 clubs have reopened.

STALINGRAD REBUILT. October Street in the heroic city on the Volga.

The new Stalingrad will be a different city with its central sections entirely reconstructed. The general plan calls for new blocks of magnificent buildings, new streets and avenues. A boulevard lined with trees and granite embankments, decorated with fountains and sculptured groups of heroes of the battle of Stalingrad will run along the Volga.

"That's what Stalingrad is going to be, and soon, too!" concludes *Izvestia*. "More than a billion rubles have already been invested in Stalingrad's municipal services and industries. The increasing efforts of builders and the vast assistance which the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government are rendering Stalingraders are a sure guarantee that the general plan for the reconstruction of the city which bears the name of great Stalin will be translated into reality."

The success of the Soviet Army at Stalingrad shows the superiority of the Soviet, the Stalin strategy. The Stalingrad operation carried out on the plans and under the leadership of Generalissimo Stalin will go down in the annals of the history of war as one of the most brilliant achievements of military science.

Pravda, in an article titled "The Great Victory at the Walls of Stalingrad" emphasizes that the Stalingrad battle was a great landmark in the history of the art of war, the triumph and assertion of a new Soviet military art, the most outstanding victory in the history of great wars. "The brilliant strategical plan of encircling and smashing the Germans at Stalingrad," it writes, "is a remarkable example of seeing through the designs of an adversary and of scientific foresight in a highly complicated and changing situation."

"In the minds of the democratic peoples of the world," writes *Pravda,* "the name of Stalingrad is associated with victory over the sinister forces of fascism, with the great liberation struggle of the Soviet people and all freedom-loving peoples which led to the defeat of Hitler Germany and imperialist Japan."

30 Years of the Soviet Ukraine—A Tribute by V. M. Molotov

The thirtieth anniversary of the establishment of Soviet power in the Ukraine was celebrated throughout the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on January 25.

V. M. Molotov, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the USSR, was the principal speaker at a jubilee session of the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian SSR held on January 24, the eve of the anniversary, at the capital of the Republic, Kiev. His tribute to the people of the Soviet Ukraine was frequently interrupted by cheers and applause and was accorded a rising ovation at its close. He said:

GREETING. Molotov is presented with the traditional loaf of bread, in a Ukrainian ceremony of welcome.

CELEBRANTS. Citizens of Kiev celebrate 30 years of Soviet power.

COMRADES: On this thirtieth anniversary of the Soviet Ukraine permit me on behalf of the Soviet Government, of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party and of Comrade Stalin personally to convey to you, and through you to all the workers, collective farmers, intellectuals and all working people of the Ukraine and to their vanguard, the Bolsheviks of the Ukraine, fraternal greetings and wishes for further successes.

The thirtieth anniversary of Soviet power in the Ukraine is a significant date for the Ukrainian people and for all the peoples of the Soviet Union. This anniversary is also of great international importance. The Great October Socialist Revolution freed the peoples of the old Russia from the fetters of capitalist slavery. It opened to the peoples of the world the road to communism, the road to a free, happy life.

Following the Russian people, the Ukrainian people were the first to take this road.

The special historical feature in this case was that the Ukrainian people, having taken the Soviet road, at last achieved the realization of their age-old dream by creating a national Ukrainian State of their own, and so ushering in a new and truly glorious epoch in their history. In this way a truly popular, socialist State—the Soviet Ukraine—came into being under the star of Soviet power and joined the closely knit family of Soviet peoples.

The 30 years' history of the Soviet Ukraine has been filled with the persistent struggle of the Ukrainian people for consolidation of Soviet power and at the same time for economic and cultural revival. The Ukrainian people have borne many sacrifices to defend Soviet power in their homeland, and to repel the offensive of their internal class enemies from the camp of the Whiteguards and bourgeois nationalists, as well as their external enemies. Directly after the establishment of Soviet power, the Ukraine was occupied by the forces of German imperialism, which found its flunkeys among bourgeois Ukrainian elements. It is also well known that in the early years of Soviet power in the Ukraine the Anglo-French Entente made numerous attempts at armed intervention. And lastly, during the Great Patriotic War, the Ukrainian people lived through the hard years of German occupation accompanied by unparalleled violence and plunder.

UKRAINE STEEL. Part of the huge Zaporazhstal works, now rebuilt.

We all remember that the Ukraine is that part of the Soviet Union which suffered most and made the heaviest sacrifices in the years of the German fascist invasion. This imposes upon the entire Soviet Union the obligation to show special attention and concern for the rehabilitation and further development of economic and cultural life in the Ukraine after the war. We have no doubt, however, that the Ukrainian people's ability for rapid rehabilitation is great, indeed inexhaustible, and that the assistance daily rendered by the Soviet Union to the Ukraine will yield great and positive results.

For centuries the Ukrainian people lived divided into parts, chained by Russian tsarism and the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, deprived of the chance of free national development. For centuries they lived under a foreign yoke as a semi-colony. It was only the October Revolution in Russia that cleared the ground for a regeneration of the Ukrainian people, who founded their own Soviet State and took a prominent place within the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

That moment marked the beginning of the years and decades of the national revival of the Ukrainian people. This revival found mighty support in the Soviet power in the Ukraine and in the leadership of the Bolshevik Party. Lenin and Stalin unfurled a banner under which blossomed the strength of the Ukrainian people and of the Soviet Ukraine.

The Soviet Ukraine now stands in the front rank of the Soviet Republics of our country. Soviet industry here is now being reconstructed and is making rapid progress. The Donets basin, with its powerful coal-mining, metallurgical, chemical and engineering industries, as well as other industrial centers of the Ukraine, holds a place of importance in the industry of the entire Soviet Union. The whole world knows that the Ukraine is the birthplace of the famous Stakhanov movement. In these present days the movement for fulfillment of the post-war Stalin Five-Year Plan ahead of time, for realization of the Five-Year Plan within four years, is growing here, as everywhere in the Soviet country.

The collective farms and state farms of the Ukraine have taken an outstanding place in the agriculture of our country. The development of collective farming in the Ukraine, and the famous movement of peasant women who achieved bumper harvests of sugar-beet exceeding 50 tons per hectare,* as well as many other facts, testify to the great achievements of the Ukrainian collective farms. Everyone rejoices in the fact that the Ukrainian collective farms are rapidly restoring their husbandry after the grave damage they sustained in the years of the ruthless German occupation.

*Metric tons—2,204 lbs.; 1 hectare = 2.471 acres

DONBAS COAL. Lidievka colliery's shafts. This mine is in the rich Ukrainian Donbas.

It is of special importance that the working people in the western part of the Ukraine, who only in recent years joined the ranks of the builders of socialism, should enjoy proper support from the advanced districts of the Ukraine and from the entire Soviet Union.

It was only under Soviet power that the Ukrainian national culture obtained broad opportunities for free development and became a truly popular, socialist culture. Ukrainian science and arts are successfully overcoming anti-popular bourgeois influences, and are gaining ever wider recognition among the peoples of the Soviet Union and beyond its borders.

The Ukrainian people lived through years of grave trials caused by the barbaric invasion of German fascism, and fought selflessly in the ranks of the Soviet Army and on the labor front for victory over Hitler Germany. The guerrilla movement in the Ukraine gained fame by heroic exploits and many successes. This is a matter of pride for the whole of the Soviet Union.

The great difficulties and trials of our Patriotic War were a test of the firmness of the moral and political unity of the Ukrainian people, of their loyalty to the Soviet State, and of the Bolshevik devotion of the Ukrainian Communists to principle. Now we know that the Ukrainian people and their vanguard—the Bolsheviks of the Ukraine — passed through all these trials with flying colors. The masses of the Ukrainian people and the splendid Ukrainian youth are imbued with Soviet patriotism more deeply than ever before.

Centuries passed while the Ukrainian people remained disunited. Their dream of reunion seemed hopeless. However, when the Soviet Union gained strength and was able to present the Ukrainian people's claim to the formation of a Soviet State for all Ukrainians, the Ukrainians' dream of national reunion came true.

The Soviet Ukraine now unites all Ukrainian territories, including the Western Ukrainian lands which previously formed part of Polish territory, the Transcarpathian Ukraine which belonged to Czechoslovakia and Northern Bukovina which belonged to Romania.

All Ukrainian territories have been united with the assistance of the Soviet Union, and the population of the present-day Ukraine practically equals the populations of the largest European states.

It must not be forgotten that important changes have also taken place in states bordering on the Ukraine. Whereas formerly states with reactionary semi-fascist regimes lay west and south of the Ukraine, now all along the frontier of the Ukraine, where she does not border on other Soviet Republics, there lie states in which a new, democratic regime, a regime of popular democracy, has asserted itself. Thus, favorable conditions have been created for the consolidation of friendly relations with neighboring states.

All this proves that we are celebrating the thirtieth anniversary of the Soviet Ukraine in days which are significant for the Ukrainian people as well as for the whole of the Soviet Union.

The Ukrainian people and all other peoples of the Soviet Union may be proud of all these achievements of the Soviet Ukraine, regarding them as the result of their common struggle, of their joint efforts. The Ukrainian people have achieved these successes thanks to the mighty friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union, thanks to the support which the peoples of the Soviet Union have rendered and continue to render to the Ukraine and to one another. The Lenin-Stalin principles of national policy which lie at the basis of this friendship of the peoples have borne splendid fruit in the achievements of the Soviet Ukraine.

These achievements, as also those of the other peoples of the USSR, became possible thanks to the socialist foundations of the Soviet State created by the October Revolution. Only Soviet power and the growing international prestige of the Soviet Union made it possible to effect that of which the Ukrainians, in the persons of their finest representatives, the revolutionary fighters and heralds of the progressive aspirations of their people, had dreamed for so long.

Soviet power has made it possible to achieve within a short time that which could not have been attained before capitalism was overthrown in our country, and before the international prestige of our socialist State had gained considerable strength. In this we see a great victory for the ideas of Lenin and Stalin, the ideas of the Bolshevik Party, the ideas of Communism.

MASTER FARMER. Agrippina Parmuzina, master beet grower, shown with admiring village children, has been named a Hero of Socialist Labor.

Lenin laid the foundations of Soviet power in the Ukraine. Under Comrade Stalin's guidance our Party achieved successes in the Ukraine which inspire the Ukrainian people to self-denying labor and to fresh glorious achievements, of which the Soviet Union is proud. All this shows that the Soviet Ukraine is on a true and reliable road. More important is the fact that now the broad masses of the Ukrainian people are already well aware of this.

The Ukraine has not yet healed the wounds of war. She is still facing many complex and difficult tasks in rehabilitation and further development of her national economy, as well as in the development of socialist national culture and Soviet education of the working people. Nevertheless, hitherto unprecedented opportunities for furthering the material and spiritual forces of the people are opened to her.

The peoples of the Soviet Union are united by a single plan for the development and further strengthening of their Motherland. This plan is the pledge of success in the further general progress of the peoples of the Soviet Union, ensured by all-round utilization of the modern achievements of science and technology.

We feel confident of our internal strength as the basis of further successes and as a reliable bulwark of the independence of our Motherland. We know that this confidence rests on the firm, unshakable foundation which secured our victories and achievements in the past. Our Party and Comrade Stalin teach us that the freed forces of the Soviet peoples can perform miracles, overcome all difficulties in their path and advance toward more and more new victories.

Our peace-loving peoples strive to secure firm and lasting peace and to ensure the security of the nations. This is the fundamental task of the Stalin foreign policy of the Soviet Union.

Permit me to express confidence that the workers, collective farmers, intellectuals and all working people of the Ukraine fully share and solidly support these internal and foreign policies of the Soviet Government and the Bolshevik Party.

Permit me to wish fresh and even more glorious successes to the Ukrainian people, its Communist vanguard and all non-Party Bolsheviks of the Ukraine.

Long live the Soviet Ukraine!

Long live the Ukrainian people and its vanguard—the Communist Party of the Ukraine! Long live the Soviet Union and the great Party of Lenin and Stalin! Under the guidance of the great Stalin, forward, to new victories!

LENINGRAD. Part of the beautiful and heroic city on the Neva, photographed from the Winter Palace.

Leningrad, the Hero City

By Vissarion Sayanov

On January 27, special meetings were held in Leningrad to celebrate the fourth anniversary of the great Soviet military victory which, on January 27, 1944, crowned the 900-day Battle of Leningrad.

Lieutenant General Bogatkin, in a report made at a special meeting of the Leningrad City Soviet, recalled that the Stalin plan to rout the Germans in the Battle of Leningrad was carried through under Zhdanov's guidance.

Now Leningrad is successfully healing the wounds of war. New thoroughfares and splendid buildings have been built there. On the shore of the Gulf of Finland and in the other environs of Leningrad through which the first line of the defenses ran not so long ago, large parks commemorating the victory have been built. Leningrad, one of the most beautiful cities in the world, is becoming still more beautiful.

Many generations of architects have created the inimitable ensembles of Leningrad buildings. In the days of war we did all we could to save the historical monuments, to preserve the beauty of Leningrad.

How fantastic did the palaces and museums look in those days! Smolny was excellently camouflaged against air raids. In the winter, when blizzards were sweeping snowdrifts through the streets and blocks of ice were cumbering the squares, the building of Smolny, covered with ice-coated nets, looked like a huge sailing vessel struggling with the raging storm in the darkness of the Arctic night.

All the world knows of Leningrad's sufferings at the time of the blockade. Authentic documents and relics of those unforgettable days collected in the Defense Museum make a great impression on the many visitors.

On the walls of the museum hang pictures and drawings by artists who lived in the besieged city. The painters tried to preserve for history each detail of what they had lived through, of the everyday life of the city which reflected the spiritual greatness of its citizens.

But perhaps the most moving document of those times is the diary of the city which the workers of one of the Leningrad museums kept. Although only a few years have passed since then, on turning the leaves of the diary one is seized with the same feeling as when reading the pages of the ancient Russian chronicles. The chronicler of a few years ago was a warrior in the besieged city. When one of the authors of the diary died of hunger, his place was taken by another who was later killed by a German shell fragment. A

third chronicler took up the task, and on dying handed over the cherished work to a fourth.

If you had before you a relief plan of Leningrad and of the front line of its defense in the days of the siege, you would gain a clear idea of the favorable position which the Germans then held. The systematic artillery bombardment by the Germans was facilitated by the fact that they had at their disposal excellent observation points made by nature itself.

And yet the Germans failed to destroy Leningrad! The great skill of the Leningrad artillerymen will go down in history as a remarkable example of warfare. They invariably emerged victorious in their fierce duels with the German artillerymen.

The spiritual beauty of the Leningraders was revealed in those heroic days in all its grandeur, and the Leningrad women, in particular, covered themselves with unfading glory.

Every man who left for the front was replaced by a woman, and there was no trade, however difficult and however dangerous, which the woman of Leningrad did not take up without hesitation. Dressed in a padded jacket, men's boots and a dark shawl, you would find her in all places where selfless labor was required.

Leningrad factories worked under fire, and when shells burst in factories the workers did not stop working for a single moment. That was why Leningrad was called a frontal city. Ages will pass but the star of Leningrad will shine as brightly as ever.

I was in Leningrad and on the Leningrad front from the first days of the war to the time when the German and Finnish troops, under the mighty blows of Marshal Govorov's army, were rolling back far from our city. And later when I, as a correspondent of Soviet newspapers, sat in the Palace of Justice in Nuremberg and saw how the face of the bandit Goering twitched whenever Leningrad was mentioned, I realized still more clearly the greatness of the feat performed by the city in stemming the onslaught of the German hordes.

Leningrad remains as wonderful today in peace as it was in the days of the blockade. Whoever attentively observes the Leningraders at work is invariably struck by their inexhaustible energy, by their will for creative work.

I was walking recently through the principal thoroughfare of the city with a friend who also lived through the whole epic of the siege from beginning to end.

On one of the buildings we noticed a Roll of Honor. It contains scores of portraits of young and old men, of elderly women and girls in their teens who are laboring most selflessly for the rehabilitation of the city.

On the upper floor of a building under reconstruction we noticed a man in a cap and white apron. We saw how dexterously he was laying bricks, and the wall was rapidly growing before our eyes.

"Look," said my friend, "this bricklayer is Alexei Kulikov, one of the most celebrated Leningraders of today."

My friend was right. Leningrad is proud of Kulikov. To understand what labor means in a socialist society, let us become acquainted with this ordinary Russian worker.

Kulikov comes of a family of bricklayers and followed in his father's footsteps.

Kulikov has introduced many innovations in this seemingly simple work which opened a new chapter in the history of the building trades. This rank-and-file bricklayer boldly overthrew the old standards and organized his work in a manner that speeded the pace of all the restoration work of builders.

The Soviet Government awarded Kulikov a Stalin Prize, a reward which places him in the company of the most outstanding scientists, writers, artists and other celebrities. Building workers from all parts of the Soviet Union come to Leningrad to learn Kulikov's methods that they may introduce them in the remotest cities of the country.

Great was the city in war; it is equally great in peaceful labor. In the great postwar Five-Year Plan of the USSR, Leningrad, the beloved city of the Soviet people, is given a place of honor.

The war has taught people to see and to understand life more profoundly, to work still more selflessly. It has also aroused in the people a great yearning for culture and knowledge. The lecture halls of Leningrad are now no less crowded than the theaters and motion picture houses. Old and young listen with rapt attention to lectures.

STREET SCENE. The Alexandria Column on Dvortzovaya Square in Leningrad, viewed through arches of the General Staff Headquarters Building.

State Plan Report

The State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR has issued an annual report, covering execution of the State Plan for rehabilitation and development of the national economy in 1947.

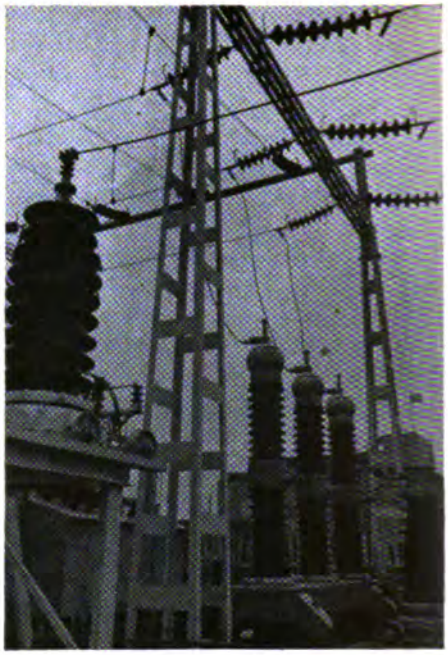
The text of the report, some of the major points of which were discussed in an article by S. Gurovich published in the USSR INFORMATION BULLETIN *for January 28, 1948, follows:*

IN 1947 the Soviet people, rehabilitating and developing the national economy of the USSR, attained and surpassed targets set for the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan. The work of industry, agriculture and transport, the volume of capital construction and retail trade, the training of specialists, and cultural construction work in the USSR in 1947—the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—are characterized by the following figures:

1. The 1947 plan for gross industrial output was carried out by various Ministries as follows:

	PER CENT
Iron and Steel Industry	101
Non-Ferrous Metal Industry	107
Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas	100
Coal Industry of the Western Areas	95
Oil Industry of the Southern and Western Areas	106
Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas	107
Electric Power Stations	101
Chemical Industry	114
Electrical Industry	108
Communications Equipment Industry	112
Heavy Engineering Industry	105
Automobile and Tractor Industry	98
Machine Tool Industry	106
Machine and Instrument Making Industry	107
Building and Road Building Machinery Industry	115
Transport Machinery Industry	94
Agricultural Machinery Industry	100
Building Materials Industry	101
Timber Industry	96
Pulp and Paper Industry	98
Rubber Industry	107
Textile Industry	103
Light Industry	106
Fishing Industry of Western Areas	104
Fishing Industry of Eastern Areas	96
Meat and Dairy Industry	107
Food Industry	109
Gustatory Products Industry	113
Local and Local-Fuel Industry of the Union Republics	111

PRIDE OF ACHIEVEMENT. A worker at the Stalingrad tractor plant, which five years ago was razed by the Germans, drives a finished machine from the plant.



POWER. Sub-station of the Kegum hydroelectric station, Latvian SSR.

The 1947 Plan for gross output of the entire industry of the USSR was fulfilled by 103.5 per cent. The plan for gross industrial output in the first two years of the Five-Year Plan, in 1946 and 1947, was fulfilled by 100 per cent.

2. The following percentage increases in production of the most important commodities were registered in 1947 as compared with 1946:

	PER CENT
Cast iron	14
Steel	9
Rolled Iron	15
Copper	9
Zinc	16
Lead	26
Coal	12
Oil	19
Benzine	36
Kerosene oil	25
Natural gas	22
Electrical power	15
Railway locomotives	177
Trolley buses	209
Automobiles	30
Ball bearings	34
Steam turbines	157
Electric motors below 100 kw. capacity	52
Electric motors above 100 kw. capacity	39

Special and complex metal cutting lathes	30
Spinning machinery	163
Tractors	109
Agricultural machinery	106
Mineral fertilizers (superphosphate nitric and potassium)	35
Synthetic dyes	44
Automobile tires	49
Hauling of timber	26
Paper	25
Cement	40
Slate	39
Window glass	19
Soft roofing materials	28
Cotton fabrics	33
Woolens	33
Leather footwear	40
Rubber footwear	68
Butter	12
Vegetable oil	24
Fish	28
Sugar	110
Soap	28

In 1947 the gross output of the entire industry of the USSR increased by 22 per cent over that of 1946, including an increase of 33 per cent in the output of the textile and light industries.

Throughout 1947 the rate of increase in industrial production grew steadily. The increase in production in comparison with the corresponding quarters of 1946 amounted in the first quarter to 12 per cent, in the second quarter to 18 per cent, in the third quarter to 26 per cent, and in the fourth quarter to 30 per cent.

In the fourth quarter of 1947 industrial output reached the average quarterly level of the prewar year of 1940.

3. In 1947 the gross production of rural economy increased by 32 per cent as compared with 1946, while agricultural production increased by 48 per cent. The gross harvest of industrial and grain crops increased in 1947 as compared with 1946 as follows:

	PER CENT
Grain crops	58
Cotton	21
Potatoes	30
Sugar-beet	190
Sunflower seeds	79
Flax fiber	29
Hemp fiber	78

In 1947 the harvest yield of grain crops reached the prewar level.

In 1947 the area of autumn sowings for the harvest of 1948 exceeded that of the autumn sowings of 1946 by three and a half million hectares.* The area of fallow plowed in 1947 for the 1948 harvest exceeded by eight million hectares that of 1946. The amount of work performed by tractors in 1947 exceeded by 29 per cent that of 1946. The plan of tractor work in spring plowing, cultivation of soil before sowing, sowing of spring crops, plowing of fallow and sowing of autumn crops was exceeded. The amount of work per tractor increased by 21 per cent over that of 1946.

LOCOMOTIVES. These are "L" locomotives, designed by L. Lebedyansky.

4. The freight turnover on the railways increased in 1947 as compared with 1946. The average daily loading on the railways was 10 per cent above the 1946 average, including: coal, 11 per cent; iron and steel, 13 per cent; oil, 18 per cent; timber, 13 per cent; cement, 150 per cent.

The amount of freight carried along the inland waterways increased in 1947 by 23 per cent as compared with 1946. The inland waterways fleet fulfilled the annual freight transport plan by 102 per cent.

The amount of freight transported by the merchant marine increased by 15 per cent as compared with 1946. The merchant marine fulfilled the 1947 freight transport plan by 108 per cent.

5. The total volume of capital construction in the national economy during 1947 exceeded that of 1946 by 10 per cent, including: coal industry, 9 per cent; electric power stations, 4 per cent; light and food industries, 30 per cent; and transport, 8 per cent. In 1946 and 1947 some 1,900 state enterprises were built or restored and put into commission.

In 1947 state enterprises, institutions and local Soviets newly built or restored about 9,000,000 square meters of living floor space. In addition, individual citizens, using savings earned by their own labor, built houses in towns and workers' settlements totalling 4,000,000 square meters of floor space.

6. Retail turnover in State and cooperative trade in 1947 exceeded that of 1946 by 17 per cent (in comparable prices). The volume of co-operative trade in towns amounted to 22,400 million rubles. In the fourth quarter of 1947 the volume of co-operative trade in towns was nearly double that of the first quarter of the same year.

On the basis of the progress in industry and agriculture, rationing of food and manufactured goods was abolished in 1947, the high commercial prices were abolished, and a changeover to trade at uniform state prices and a reduction of ration prices of bread and cereals were effected.

Thanks to the reduction of state retail prices alone, the working people of

*One hectare = 2.471 acres

the Soviet Union will receive in the course of the year a net gain exceeding 57,000 million rubles. In connection with the preparations for the abolition of rationing and the beginning of open trade at uniform prices, in 1947 state and co-operative organizations opened 55 thousand new stores, stalls and booths.

7. In the course of 1947 the number of industrial and office workers employed in the national economy of the USSR increased by nearly 1,200,000. Most of the industrial branches attained the target set by the 1947 State Plan for raising the productivity of labor. The labor productivity of industrial workers increased in 1947 by 13 per cent as against 1946. The total of wages and salaries of industrial and office workers employed in the national economy increased in 1947 by 23 per cent as compared with 1946.

In 1947 the vocational, railway and factory apprenticeship schools graduated 790 thousand young skilled workers. By means of individual and team apprenticeship and training at courses, 2,200,000 new skilled workers were trained in industry in 1947, and 3,200,000 industrial workers improved their skill.

Attendance at elementary and secondary schools increased by 860 thousand over that of 1946; the number of students in technical and other secondary special schools increased in the course of the year by 36 thousand; and enrollments at institutions of higher education increased by 56 thousand. The number of medical institutions, sanatoriums, rest homes and creches increased in 1947.

8. In 1947 investments in capital construction for the economic rehabilitation of districts which had been occupied by the enemy exceeded 18,000 million rubles, decentralized capital investments not included. The gross industrial output in the districts which had experienced enemy occupation increased in 1947 by 33 per cent as compared with 1946; output of cast iron increased by 30 per cent; rolled iron by 35 per cent; coal output in the Donets Basin by 19 per cent; electric power output by 35 per cent; cement by 48 per cent; sugar by 123 per cent.

In the districts which had been occupied by the Germans, more than 5,000,000 square meters of living floor space were built or restored in towns, and 370 thousand dwelling houses were built in rural localities in 1947.

9. Execution of the industrial production plan in the Union Republics is illustrated by the following figures showing the percentage by which the 1947 plan for gross industrial output was fulfilled:

	Per cent
Russian Federation	106
Ukraine	99
Byelorussia	102
Uzbekistan	104
Kazakhstan	104
Georgia	110
Azerbaijan	106
Lithuania	102
Moldavia	109
Latvia	117
Kirghizia	109
Tajikistan	112
Armenia	107
Turkmenia	106
Estonia	113
Karelo-Finnish Republic	86

10. At the end of 1947 a currency reform, of enormous significance for the consolidation and further development of socialist economy, was carried out in the USSR. As a result of the currency reform the purchasing power of the ruble has considerably risen, the old currency has been withdrawn from circulation and a new currency possessing full value has been put into circulation.

The execution of the 1947 State Plan was accompanied by nation-wide socialist emulation. A popular movement for execution of the Five-Year Plan within four years or for execution of the Five-Year Plan ahead of time is developing widely at industrial enterprises and construction sites of the USSR upon the initiative of the working people of Leningrad.

State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR

MACHINE BUILDING. A giant hoist reducer wheel made in the rebuilt Novo-Kramatorsk works.

What the "Matrosov Movement" Is

By Vassili Matrosov,
Stalin Prize Winner
(Cutter at "Paris Commune" Shoe Factory in Moscow)

I SHALL always retain a kindly remembrance of 1947—the second year of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan. In that year I realized my ambition of introducing Stakhanov methods of work in all sections of my factory. Having verified the efficiency of my method of leather cutting and my new arrangement of the work bench, I became convinced that their adoption would enable all workers to increase the productivity of their labor. I submitted my scheme to a production conference, where it was discussed from all angles and approved by the factory management. The result was that a plan of teaching workers these methods was elaborated for every shop.

The realization of my plan confirmed my calculations. The effect obtained was tremendous, and the factory greatly accelerated its fulfilment of production plans.

In our country every valuable innovation in one factory rapidly spreads to all the others. That was also the case with my proposal. It was not only in the shoe industry that it was adopted, but also in textile, metallurgy, engineering, rubber and other industries. I get letters from workers, engineers, factory directors in all parts of the country, asking me to tell them about my method and to advise them how they could apply it. Many Soviet newspapers have been writing about the development of the "Matrosov" movement.

Personally, I fulfilled in 1947 almost half of my current Five-Year Plan. All the workers in my factory have likewise achieved considerable successes.

The Soviet Government has expressed its high appreciation of my work by awarding me the Stalin Prize.

Another important event in my life took place in 1947. The workers of the Soviet capital elected me a member of the Moscow City Soviet. When I was nominated, I could not help remembering my early life. I recalled my boyhood in the village; I remembered my father—an illiterate, landless peasant burdened with a big family, my brothers working as laborers for the village rich, our wretched hut and hopeless poverty. That was before the Revolution. My father died before he could see the new life.

MATROSOV. His greater productivity through labor-saving methods has made him famous.

I thought how the condition of the people had changed during the 30 years of Soviet power, what wide vistas had opened before them, what a straight and clear road to a bright future is shown to the people by the Communist Party. Here am I—a rank-and-file worker—living in a well-furnished apartment with all conveniences, my family has everything it needs and in the factory I enjoy the respect of all. Why? Because, as my comrades tell me, I do my work well and have manifested intelligent and valuable initiative. It seems to me, however, that what I have done can be done by every Soviet worker. I know that each additional hundred pairs of shoes produced will help to meet the growing demand of the population of the Soviet Union whose prosperity and consequent buying-power rises steadily day by day.

When I agreed to stand for the Moscow Soviet I made up my mind that, if elected, I would take an active part in its work, in protecting the interests of my constituents. Our capital is continuing to improve, following the Stalin general plan: new dwelling-houses and public buildings, schools and clubs are being erected, new sections of the Moscow subway are being built, gas is installed in old houses, trees are planted along the streets; in short, much is being done to improve the living conditions of Moscow citizens. Care for the everyday needs and well-being of the people in the Soviet Union is the major work of public office. That is how I look upon my duties in the Moscow Soviet.

The new year of 1948 will mean to the whole Soviet people a year of further effort in repairing the ravages of war, in fulfilling the postwar Five-Year Plan, which the people have resolved to complete in four years.

The Structure of the Soviet State—No. 1

The Supreme Soviet Of the USSR

By Professor A. Denisov

THE Supreme Soviet of the USSR is the highest state body in the Soviet Union. Its structure is calculated to give expression to the many nationalities inhabiting the country. The peoples of the USSR have a number of common interests due to their similar social systems, community of purpose and methods of achieving that purpose. In addition to this each nationality has its own specific national interests.

The Supreme Soviet consists of two Chambers—the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. The former is elected by universal suffrage by secret ballot for a period of four years, one deputy representing a constituency of 300 thousand people. This Chamber represents the common interests of all the people of the Soviet Union.

The second Chamber, the Soviet of Nationalities, is elected by citizens of Union and autonomous republics under the same conditions as above, except that every Union (constituent) Republic sends 25 deputies, every Autonomous Republic 11 deputies, every Autonomous Region five deputies and every National Area one deputy. The Soviet of Nationalities represents the specific national interests of the Soviet peoples.

Both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet enjoy equal rights. The two Chambers are elected for the same period, enjoy the same measure of legislative initiative and equal rights in enacting laws. A law is only valid when it has been passed by both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR elects its Presidium at a joint sitting of the two Chambers; the Presidium consists of the President, sixteen Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, and 15 members. At a joint sitting of the two Chambers the Supreme Soviet also appoints the Council of Ministers, the Government of the USSR.

Each Chamber elects its own chairman and two vice-chairmen. Joint meetings of the two Chambers are presided over alternately by the chairman of each of the two Chambers. Regular sessions of the Supreme Soviet are called twice a year and extraordinary sessions are called when necessary by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet or on demand by any constituent republic.

In the event of disagreement between the two Chambers the matter is handed over to a conciliation commission in

THE MANDATE. Voters—the primary source of authority—cast their ballots.

GRAND KREMLIN PALACE. The Supreme Soviet of the USSR meets in this building, where once the tsars of Russia were crowned.

which both Chambers have parity. If this commission does not come to an agreement or if its decision fails to satisfy one of the Chambers, the matter is re-examined. If no agreement can be reached after the second reading the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet dissolves the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and orders new elections.

The Supreme Soviet examines and determines the basic principles of foreign policy and foreign trade, decides questions concerning state security and questions of war and peace.

Within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Soviet are such questions as the mutual relations between the USSR and the constituent republics, the confirmation of changes in borders between the republics, the formation of new regions and territories and new autonomous republics within constituent republics and the acceptance of new republics into the USSR.

The Supreme Soviet gives general direction to all economic and cultural life in the USSR. It confirms the national economic plan and the budget. The Supreme Soviet has legislative power and possesses the prerogative of amnesty and reprieve.

For the examination and drafting of bills the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities maintain permanent commissions—the Legislative Proposal Commission, the Foreign Affairs Commission and the Budget Commission.

Budget drafts are brought before the Supreme Soviet for examination and confirmation, but are subject to a preliminary examination by the budget commissions of the two Chambers.

A deputy to the Supreme Soviet has the right to address questions to any Minister and to the Council of Ministers of the USSR; an answer must be submitted within three days to the Chamber from which the question came. The deputies are granted special immunity and cannot be tried by a court or placed under arrest without the permission of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR or of the Presidium between sessions.

The deputy is an elected person who has the confidence of the people. Wherever he may work he always tries to carry out the mandate given him by the people. The deputy is obliged to report to his constituents on his work, to listen to their needs and problems.

SOVIET OF THE UNION. The Chamber of the Soviet parliament—the Supreme Soviet—represents the people as a whole.

SOVIET OF NATIONALITIES. This Chamber represents the special national interests of the multi-national people.

Here are a few figures on the composition of the Supreme Soviet. The deputies of the Supreme Soviet consist of nearly 40 per cent workers, about 30 per cent intellectuals and more than 25 per cent peasants.

Nearly three hundred women were elected members of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, a fact which demonstrates the tremendous political growth of Soviet women as a result of their having equal rights with men.

The elections to the Supreme Soviet are general: all citizens of the USSR who have reached the age of 18, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, creed, education, domicile, racial origin, property status or past activities have the right to elect with the exception of the mentally deficient and those deprived of their franchise by a court of justice. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet must be at least 23 years old.

The elections to the Supreme Soviet are equal: every citizen has one vote and all citizens take part in the elections on an equal footing. Women have the same right to elect and be elected as men. Citizens serving in the armed forces of the USSR have the right to elect and be elected on equal terms with all other citizens.

Elections to the Supreme Soviet are direct: elections to all Soviets, beginning with the village or town Soviet right up to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, are carried out on the basis of direct, secret ballot.

Financing Industry

By S. Gurovich, M.Sc., and Assistant Professor E. Mitelman

On being put into operation, every Soviet enterprise belonging to the State receives from the latter the necessary fixed capital and working capital. Later on, every year, when approving the annual production plan (which includes the estimates on net production costs and profits) the financial plan of the enterprise is also approved. This plan provides for the sums of money necessary for the normal work of the enterprise.

In the Soviet Union, the system of financing enterprises is subordinated to the one aim of assisting every enterprise to fulfill the state plans of production and, simultaneously, stimulating it to fulfill these plans with minimum production costs and within the shortest possible periods. The receipts from the sale of its products at prices fixed by the State form the source from which the enterprise covers all the planned production costs, pays the turnover tax, the tax on profits and, lastly, obtains also the means necessary for the expansion of production.

The amount of its own circulating capital provided to a state enterprise is limited to the minimum of material values necessary for the fulfillment of production plans. For other requirements in connection with the needs of production and the conditions of sale of the finished goods, the enterprise obtains the necessary funds by loans. These loans are granted in the form of short-term credits by the State Bank of the USSR.

In the USSR commercial credits between economic organizations, i.e., the sale of goods to each other on credit, is prohibited by law. Instead of this there is a direct system of bank credit. The State Bank allows short-term credits to economic organizations for the purchase of commodities. The result of this is that every enterprise and every economic organization has only two kinds of financial resources necessary for carrying out its plan of production and sale of commodities, namely, its own means and the credits of the State Bank.

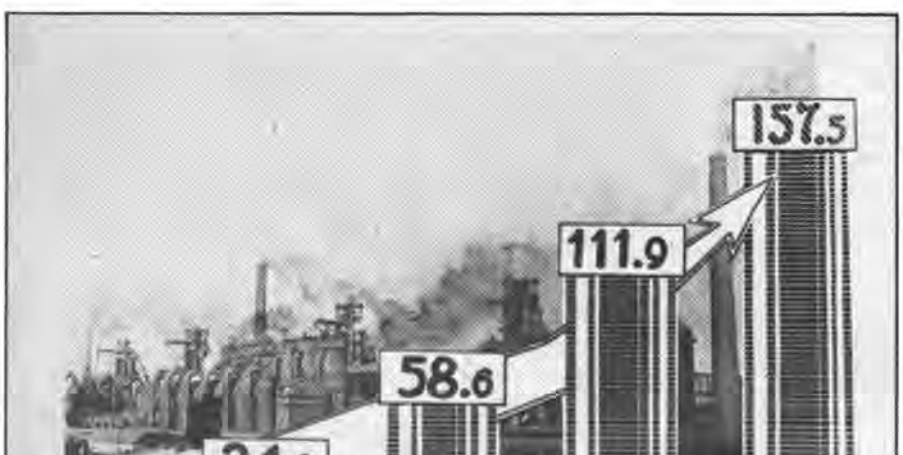
The existence of the two sources for financing enterprises is inherent in the very nature of planned Soviet economy.

Short-term bank credits are granted for strictly defined purposes and for fixed periods: for the accumulation of seasonal reserve stocks of raw and other material, fuel, semi-manufactured goods and finished articles, for financing the transportation of commodities and for certain other temporary needs arising in the course of production and distribution. The commodities and other material values belonging to the enterprise serve as security for the credit allowed to the debtor. For such credit the enterprise pays the bank a fixed rate of interest.

Every industrial enterprise has its current account in the branches or offices of the State Bank. All moneys received for the sale of goods as well as loans granted by the bank are paid into this account. Withdrawals from this account to cover necessary expenditures and for repayment of loans are effected by written orders of the director of the enterprise or by persons authorized by him by a special power of attorney. The bank allows its client a fixed rate of interest on the sums kept on current account. It should be noted that the State Bank, by always knowing and controlling the condition of the circulating capital of industrial enterprises, is able to direct its credit policy with a view to stimulating an acceleration in the turnover of these funds.

If the financial condition of the enterprise is unstable, the bank may discontinue crediting it until its position improves and the finances of the enterprise are brought into a condition as provided for by the plan. A proper organization of the business of an enterprise presupposes not only the recouping of the means spent on production, but also the making of profits, i.e., accumulations of money as a result of selling the goods produced by the enterprise. But production in socialist society proceeds from the interests of the consumer and of the national economy as a whole. When, therefore, the State fixes prices of the commodities produced by its enterprises, these prices are so established that the enterprises may most advantageously produce only goods of high quality in accordance with the standards fixed by the State for almost all industrial commodities. Prices of goods are fixed per unit of production of full value. Divergence from standards in the direction of deterioration of quality leads to extremely disadvantageous consequences for production.

Under the conditions of socialist economy, the only way in which a



INVESTMENT. Centralized capital investment in industry, in units of 1,000,000,000 rubles.

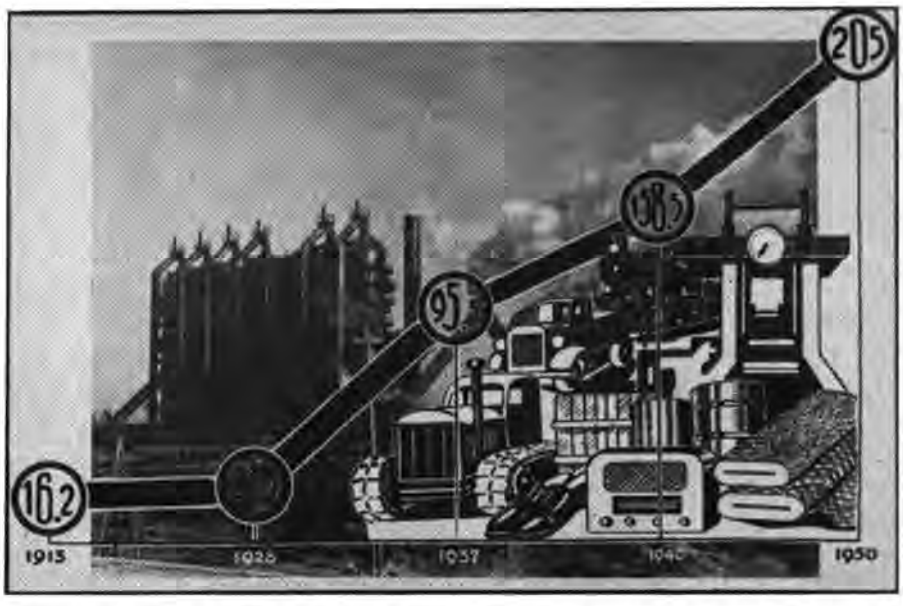
industrial enterprise can make a profit as fixed by plan is by fulfillment of the production plan for the quality and quantity of the goods it produces, for net production costs and so on. Achievement of better financial results than those laid down in the plan is possible only by exceeding the plan of production, by raising the quality of the goods produced and lowering net production costs.

In the socialist society of the USSR, where there is no exploitation of man by man, where the laboring people know that they are working for themselves and their class, incentives to increasing labor productivity and to a conscientious attitude toward material values have been created such as are otherwise unattainable. It suffices to point out that labor productivity in Soviet industry increased by more than 3.5 times in the period from 1928 to 1940, and in the postwar Five-Year Plan period (1946-1950) it is scheduled to surpass the prewar level by 36 per cent.

Let us give a few figures showing the pace of the fall in net production costs in Soviet industry and giving an idea of what this reduction in costs means. Between 1926 and 1929 the fall in net costs of industrial production effected a saving for the Soviet State of more than 7,000,000,000 rubles. These funds were utilized for expanding industry. Industrialization of the country made further progress. During the period of the Second Five-Year Plan (1933-1937) the rise in labor productivity and the reduction in expenditure of raw material, fuel and other expenditures along with a simultaneous improvement in quality of the products, effected for the Soviet State a saving of nearly 19,000,000,000 rubles.

The process of decline in net production costs did not cease even during the war. Notwithstanding additional expenditures owing to the circumstances of wartime, the savings effected as a result of lowering net production costs exceeded 50,000,000,000 rubles which was almost equivalent to six months' expenditure for war needs by the Soviet State.

During the period of the first postwar Five-Year Plan, reduction in the expenses of production by improving the work of industry is to provide the Soviet State with a saving of about 120,000,000,000 rubles. To understand the meaning of the magnitude of this figure one may note that during the five postwar years the Soviet State will invest 157,500,000,000 rubles in industry. This amount will provide the means for restoring and building anew 5,900 major enterprises (a figure that does not include small factories) as well as for carrying out a number of other important capital projects for the rehabilitation and further development of Soviet industrial production, which by October 1947 had already attained the prewar level and which by 1950 is expected to surpass that level by 48 per cent. Every Soviet industrial enterprise actively participates in creating the accumulations necessary for these purposes.



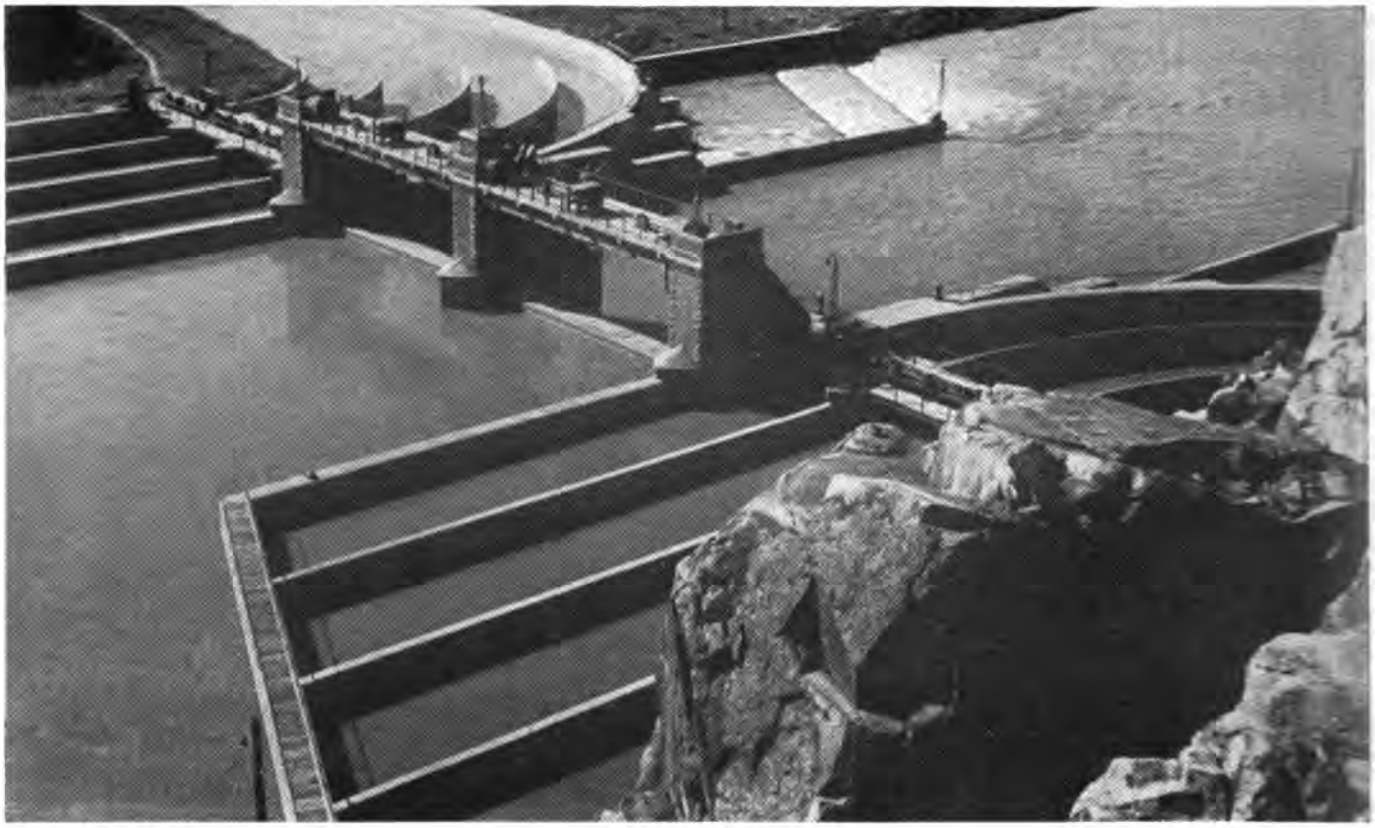
PRODUCTION. Growth of industrial output, in units of 1,000,000,000 rubles in stable prices.

Part of the accumulated means in industry is, immediately after the sale of the products, handed over in the form of the tax on turnover to the treasury of the owner of the enterprise—the State. In this way a firmly guaranteed source of state revenue is created on which the entire budget of the Soviet State rests, a budget that grows with the growth of material production. In 1947 more than 80 per cent of the revenue of the state budget of the USSR was made up of these accumulations of the national economy.

The other part of the funds constituting the difference between the net production costs and the amount realized from the sale of the products less the sum paid in the turnover tax, forms the profit of the enterprise. From that profit a certain proportion is also paid over in taxes to the state budget, and the balance is used for replenishing the circulating capital of the enterprise and for additional capital investments. If the cost of capital work fixed by the plan exceeds the accumulation of the enterprise, the difference is made up by allocations from the state budget, the sums being paid to the enterprise by the Industrial Bank, which is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Finance of the USSR.

Part of the profit—from two to ten per cent of the profit foreseen by the plan and from 25 to 75 per cent of the profit made above plan—is credited to the fund of the director of the enterprise and by agreement with the local trade union committee, is spent mainly on premium pay for factory and office workers of the enterprise, on improving the cultural and social services for them, on providing them with passes to sanatoriums and rest homes, on repairing and building dwelling houses for factory and office workers, on grants of aid to needy workers, and so on.

The foregoing facts show the sources whence the Soviet State draws such colossal amounts as are spent for the steady expansion of the national economy. These sources, as we see, are inexhaustible.



WATERING THE DESERT. A dam on the Chu river in the Kirghiz SSR. Irrigation canals branch from it.

Land from the Desert

By Victor Kossov
Deputy Minister of Agriculture of the USSR

EXTENSIVE work is under way in the Soviet Union for draining swamplands and for the irrigation of desert areas, in order to carry out large-scale agricultural projects. During the years of Soviet power, 12,355,000 acres of land have been wrested from deserts and marshes.

The industrial successes of the Soviet Union and the development of agricultural science have enabled it to wage a systematic and persistent fight against swamps and deserts, to reclaim land which for centuries had lain untouched by the husbandman. Drainage and irrigation in our country have long since ceased to be the private concern of individual farmers; they have become large-scale public undertakings. The Soviet Government spends enormous sums every year for drainage and irrigation works, supplies the construction sites with machinery and equipment and trains special engineering and technical personnel. As a result, it is possible to carry on work on large tracts simultaneously and to transform large marsh and desert areas into fertile fields every year. During but one Five-Year Plan period, from 1928 to 1932, the irrigated area was nearly doubled and nearly a billion rubles were spent for this purpose.

Reclamation and irrigation works developed still more extensively during the Second Five-Year Plan period, from 1933 to 1937, when expenditures for the irrigation of land in Central Asia amounted to nearly a billion rubles.

Some of the largest construction projects were completed in Central Asia during the Second Five-Year Plan. The Vakhsh irrigation system and the Bolshoi Gisar Canal, watering more than 123 thousand acres, were built there. Today the Vakhsh Valley is one of the richest and most fertile areas of the USSR, with vast plantations of Egyptian cotton. The Chu irrigation system in Kirghizia and a number of huge constructions in other republics were completed in the same period.

In Uzbekistan, the 168-mile Bolshoi Ferghana Canal was built, at the initiative of the collective farmers, in the unprecedentedly short period of 45 days. Scores of thousands of collective farmers took part in this colossal public construction.

The irrigation of desert lands wrought radical changes in the life of the population of the Central Asian republics. The Kazakhs and Turkmenians gave up their nomad life and settled on the land. Everything possible was done to help them raise rich harvests of grain and industrial crops.

Important irrigation works have also been carried on during the years of Soviet power in the Transcaucasus. Here the irrigated area was increased nearly seven-fold and planted to grapes and cotton.

The arid steppe lands in the southwestern part of the USSR—in the Ukraine, the Kuban, and the Stavropol regions, also came in for large irrigation improvements, which have made it possible to obtain high harvests under any meteorological conditions.

Further irrigation and reclamation

projects are planned for the postwar period. Between 1946 and 1950, the irrigated area will be increased by 1,692,635 acres and an additional 1,519,665 acres will be drained.

In Uzbekistan, work has been completed on the Katta-Kurgan reservoir in Kazakhstan, on the Kasansi reservoir, and in Turkmenia on the huge Kzyl-Orda dam. The Tedjen reservoir is nearing completion, and work is under way for the irrigation of the Kura-Arax lowlands in the Samgor Valley, Georgia. The great Nevinnomyssk Canal, recently opened in the Kuban, irrigates hundreds of thousands of acres of land. The Karagat system, the first irrigation construction in Moldavia, will soon be put into operation.

Scores of thousands of acres of land have been drained in the Colchis marshlands in the Transcaucasus. For centuries these subtropical swamps had been breeding-places for all sorts of diseases. These swamps are now fertile gardens, vineyards and orchards. Drainage works in Colchis will be completed in the next few years.

Equally extensive is the reclamation work carried out in Byelorussia and the Ukraine, where hundreds of thousands of acres of swamplands have been drained. Byelorussia, in particular, had a great many swamps. The drained peat bogs have proved to be very rich soil which yields abundant crops of all kinds.

Large-scale draining of swamps commenced in Byelorussia before the war. Nearly half of all the collective farmers in the Republic took part in this work. In 1940, 172,970 acres of swamps were drained and 297 miles of new canals were built.

The German invaders savagely destroyed all the hydrotechnical constructions, once more converting the fertile fields into swamplands. Since the war ended, scores of thousands of acres of swamplands have again been drained in the Republic. Within the next ten years the Byelorussian collective farmers will get an additional 247 thousand acres of arable land. Extensive drainage work is planned in the Polessia lowlands which stretch over an immense area.

Irrigation and melioration works in the USSR are being built on an ever-increasing scale. Soviet people are transforming the swamps and deserts into fertile fields and flowering gardens.

NORTH CAUCASUS. Main dam of the Malo-Kabardian irrigation system, in the Kabardian Autonomous Republic.

On a Tajik Collective Farm

By Kara Bogazov

RAKHIM BAIKUZIYEV, chairman of the Bolshevik collective farm in the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic, is a busy man. Driving up from the fields early in the evening he finds at the office of the farm a line of brigade and group leaders and collective farmers waiting for him.

The chairman takes his seat at his writing-table and first of all deals with the current business of the day. The warehouseman reports on the quantity of rice, currants, milk and other produce received from the brigades. The bookkeeper then reports on the financial affairs of the collective farm, whose operations run into more than a million rubles a year. The chairman listens to them attentively, inspects the vouchers, checks, consignment notes, and so on, and then issues his orders for the following day. After these current reports he turns to the members of the collective farm.

When I visited the farm one of my most interesting talks was with the woman collective farmer Gulbar Azimova who had gathered from her section of the vineyard nine tons of grapes per hectare*. On presenting her with the For Valorous Labor Medal, the chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Tajik SSR exhorted the collective farmers present at the ceremony to follow her example of devotion to the common cause. Azimova placed her experience at the service of her fellow collective farmers, and in 1947 many of them achieved equally good crop yields. Labor on the collective farm has become not only a means of material gain, but also a matter of creative endeavor. The farmers are emulating each other, all striving to work more and better, for they find that the growth of the collective wealth ensures their well-being.

With a touch of pride the chairman took me round the farm and showed me the village. In the past it was called Jar-Kurgan, which means "a dwelling pit." The name fitted the place before the Revolution, for the peasants then lived in mud huts. The collective farmers have now discarded this offensive name, and the village is now called Bolshevik. Nothing remains of the old, either in the external or internal life of the village.

The fine new dwelling-houses have gardens attached to them. The streets and homes are lit by electricity. Beautiful buildings of the school, the club, and offices of the collective farm stand in the center of the village.

All this is the result of the collective labor of the peasants. The granaries and warehouses of the collective farm are filled with produce and various goods. The collective farmers are leading a prosperous life.

The concern of the Soviet State for the welfare of the collective farmers is to be noted everywhere. When the

*One hectare = 2.471 acres

PASTORAL SCENE. A Tajik girl examines fruit-tree blossoms in spring on the grounds of a collective farm.

farmers speak of joyous labor they attach a deep meaning to these words. Labor is becoming lighter year by year, for ever more new machines are working on the collective farm fields. Before the Revolution the only implements the peasant had to cultivate his narrow strip of land were the wooden plow and the hoe; today tractors and intricate agricultural machines of all sorts are working on the fields.

"I can best show you what collective labor has done for us, by using statistics," said Baikuziyev. "Figures are more convincing than words."

He then told me that the crop yields of the vineyards had increased from seven tons per hectare in 1945 to eight tons in 1946 and nine tons in 1947. In 1950 the Five-Year Plan calls for a crop yield of more than ten tons of grapes per hectare. In 1945 the average harvest of wheat was nine-tenths of a ton per hectare. The figure increased to one ton in 1946 and 1.1 tons in 1947. The number of sheep is annually increasing by one thousand head and the number of horses by 60.

The income of the collective farmers is growing. In 1945 a collective farmer received for each work-day (a measure of labor on collective farms) 50 rubles in cash, three kilograms of grain, four hundred grams of currants and two hundred grams of butter. In 1947 these receipts increased by 50 per cent. There is not a collective farmer's family which in 1947 received less than 10 thousand rubles in cash, 1.5 tons of grain and various other products.

On the Bolshevik Collective Farm, 3,706 acres are under grain and more than 294 acres under vineyards. The collective farm has more than 10 thousand sheep, two hundred cows, 420 horses and much other livestock. All this rich economy has been created by collective labor on a spot where once upon a time were poverty-stricken, petty individual farms, where the land was considered infertile.

This new life has taken deep root and blossomed forth on the ancient lands of Tajikistan. Its creators, ordinary Soviet farmers, have become bearers of an advanced culture, recognized masters of agriculture.

The changes that have taken place in Jar-Kurgan of old may now be found in all the villages of Soviet Tajikistan.

AFTER WORK. The public tea room maintained by a Tajik farm. The old national forms in menu and customs are retained.

LITERARY CIRCLE. These small wards of a Moscow children's home listen to a teacher read a story.

Wards of the Soviet State

By Eugenia Yakhnina

Moscow Children's Home No. 22 recently celebrated an interesting event: a birthday party of seven children in the Home. No less interesting were the guests: they were men and women in different walks of life, brought up by this Home.

After dinner a concert was given in which both professional artists and members of the children's amateur art circles in the Home appeared. During intermission Anna Ladoshkina, director of the Children's Home, introduced us to the guests. The story of each of them is a striking illustration of the results of the care for orphans in the Soviet Union.

Here was the young poet Alexander Filatov, wearing the multi-colored ribbons of several Soviet decorations. A participant in the Great Patriotic War, he was recently demobilized from the Army.

At the party Filatov met the painter Alexander Sagai, his former playmate in the Children's Home. Sagai is now working on his second picture: *Stalin's Vow at the Bier of Lenin*. Sagai tells his little friends of his first years in the Home, of Maxim Gorky who had visited it on several occasions.

Filatov and Sagai are no exceptions. The Children's Home has reared many engineers, airmen, teachers, geodesists, technicians. Nina Rabinovich was graduated this year from the western department of the philological faculty of the Moscow University. Her diploma thesis on the subject of Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* was recognized as an original, outstanding work. Vera Makarova who has been awarded a Stalin Scholarship, is now a fifth-year student of the Automobile Road Institute. Nadia Gubarova is a second-year student of the Leningrad Conservatory. Her love and gratitude for those who brought her up is expressed in her first composition—a song which she dedicated to the Children's Home.

Anna Ladoshkina, the director of the Home, was herself a fosterling of t State. In her early girlhood she b came interested in pedagogical wor She wanted to teach children, especial orphans like herself. After finishing secondary school and being graduat from a pedagogical college, she taug in Moscow schools and childre homes. Subsequently she was appoint director of the Home.

The former fosterlings of the Ho are closely bound up with it. Th often come there for advice from th former teachers and guardians—p sons who devote much time to t public work of bringing up orpha Those of the orphans who leave M cow maintain a regular correspond with the director of the Home, w whom they share their joys sorrows.

In the Soviet Union every car taken of children who have lost t parents. Children's Homes in USSR are known as first-rate edu tional institutions.

EASTERN CHILDREN. Orphan children of Stalinabad, Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic, out for a walk.

BED TIME. Moscow war orphans of Home No. 22. Children of parents killed or missing in the war are tenderly cared for.

STUDENT. Olga Shmyreva, ward of an orphan home, at school.

How Soviet Lawyers Are Qualified

By Prof. Mikhail Isayev, LL.D.

James A. Howard, a student of the School of Law at Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, has asked for information as to the educational requirements for practicing law in the Soviet Union. The article by Professor M. Isayev is an answer to that question.

In it, Professor Isayev outlines the broad opportunity offered aspirants to the legal profession, and the various methods of supervised study and of practical experience which are considered qualifications for legal practice.

Of particular interest is his description of the equal opportunity offered students of the law. As in all other fields in Soviet society, equal opportunity, without reference to sex, nationality, racial origin, or similar matters, is the law and the practice.

In the USSR any citizen, irrespective of nationality or race, may qualify for the legal profession. All discrimination on account of nationality or race in any field of endeavor is a punishable offense under the Soviet Constitution. Nor can property status, social origin, or sex be an obstacle to the practicing of law. Women in the USSR have the same rights as men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activities. Women in the USSR can therefore join the legal profession on the same footing as men. There are no restrictions as regards the age of candidates for the profession. But, considering the term of education and practical work, the age at which candidates qualify as lawyers is generally not less than 22 or 23 years.

The Regulations for the Advocates' Profession, confirmed by the Soviet Government on August 16, 1939, stipulate that the normal requirement for joining the profession is a completed legal education, acquired either at law institutes (colleges) or at the law faculties of universities. The course of study in the former covers four years and in the latter four and a half years. The courses include a thorough study of the general theory of law and the state, Soviet constitutional law and the constitutional law of other countries, Roman and civil law, criminal, civil and criminal procedure, forensic medicine and psychiatry, administrative and labor laws, international law, and similar subjects. The courses also include political economy and historical materialism, as well as the study of one foreign language—French, English or German. The students listen to lectures and attend seminars at which hypothetical and real cases are discussed, prepare papers and take part in their discussion. They get credits for seminar work, and take examinations. The student who has completed the entire course of study must pass examinations in several major subjects before a special government committee. Before his graduation the student must do two or three months' practical work in a court or a State Attorney's (Procurator's) office.

In view of the thorough schooling received by law students, graduates of law institutes and law faculties are immediately admitted to the legal profession. Established procedure, however, requires that young men and women who have just been graduated should work for from three to six months as clerks under an experienced lawyer who familiarizes them with methods of procedure. They study actual cases, draw up legal documents, and the like, and are paid salaries by the Lawyers' Association, or the Collegium of Advocates, as it is called in the Soviet Union.

Persons with only secondary legal education may also qualify as lawyers, if they have held the posts of judge, procurator or jurisconsult for at least one year, or if they have had one year of practical work in a legal advice bureau.

Persons with no legal education may qualify as lawyers if they have held the post of judge, procurator, jurisconsult or investigating magistrate for at least three years. As a rule, such persons, while already engaged in legal practice, take special correspondence courses.

All the lawyers in a region or territory form an association known as the Collegium of Advocates. City Collegiums of Advocates exist in Moscow and Leningrad. According to the Regulations, the Collegium of Advocates is "a voluntary association of persons engaged in legal activity." All questions of the organization and activities of the Collegiums are decided by their general membership meetings and presidiums. The presidium is elected at a general membership meeting for a term of two years. It accepts new members, exercises control over the activities of members, examines cases of offenses against the ethical code of the profession, and imposes penalties. The extreme penalty it can impose is expulsion from the Collegium.

Legal advice bureaus are set up in towns and large localities to give legal assistance to the population. Every lawyer is attached to such a bureau. Legal advice in the Soviet Union is furnished free of charge in suits for alimony and for compensation for bodily injury during work, and in filing applications and other papers on behalf of soldiers and sailors. All sorts of oral information and advice is also furnished to citizens free of charge.

The legal advice bureaus also provide practical work as clerks to law school graduates seeking to qualify as lawyers. It is the duty of the manager of the bureau to see that such clerks get the proper practice. The clerk, on the other hand, must strictly abide by the rules of the bureau.

After the completion of the required term the manager of the legal advice bureau submits to the Presidium of the Collegium of Advocates a report on the clerk's work and his conclusions as to whether he may be recommended for membership in the Collegium.

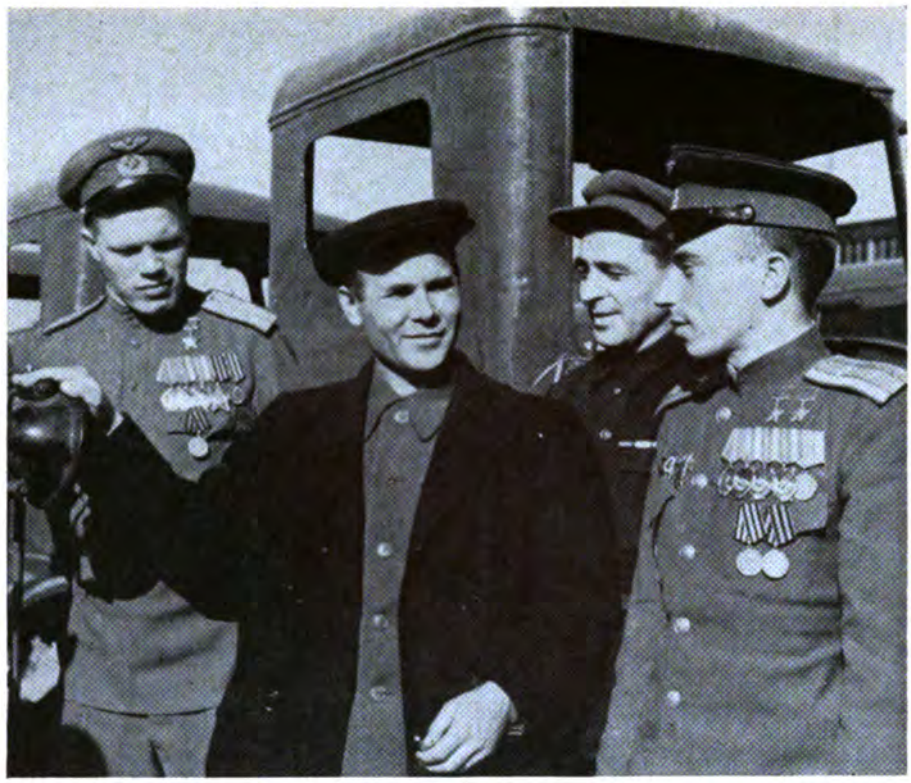
Once in three months the Presidium calls a joint meeting of clerks and the lawyers in charge, which is in the nature of a production conference to exchange experience. It is also the duty of the Presidium to organize special courses and to hold theoretical conferences to enable clerks to obtain additional political and theoretical knowledge and, in general, to raise their cultural standards.

Stalingrad

Stalingrad, where the tide of war turned against the invading Nazi armies and the drive began which ended in Berlin, will remain forever a symbol of the selfless bravery and endurance of a people fighting for its freedom and that of the peoples of the world against the bestial principles which the Nazis embodied.

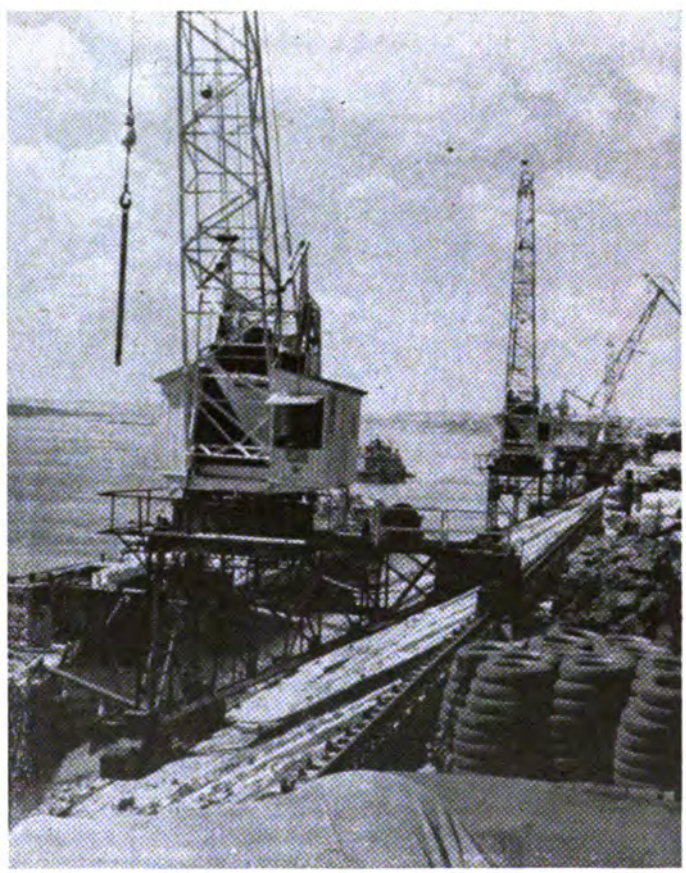
Stalingrad was so badly damaged, where every house had been a battleground, that some suggested that it be abandoned and rebuilt elsewhere.

But to the Soviet people the ruined city had become sacred. It is being rebuilt; its industry hums again; and in its rebirth it is to be more beautiful and larger than it was before the war. There are still ruins at Stalingrad, but there are also new schools and houses, parks and factories, and spirit of pride and confidence.



DEFENDERS. Twice Hero of the Soviet Union Guards Major Beda and Hero of the Soviet Union Guards Lieutenant Apraksin, who defended Stalingrad, visit its rebuilt tractor plant.

RUINS. Stalingrad after the battle was over.



STALINGRAD PORT. It is a busy port on the Volga.

"ROAD TO VICTORY." Scene of the play given by the company of the Vakhtangov Theater.

"THE TURNING POINT." Scene from the popular motion picture which depicted the story of Stalingrad.

The Stalingrad Theme in Art

By Nikolai Volkov

FIVE years have passed since the Soviet Army dealt the Nazi armies at Stalingrad their death blow. The Soviet science of war, created by the genius of Stalin, showed its undoubted superiority over the outworn and reactionary strategy of the German militarists. Since that time the word "Stalingrad" has been sacred among progressive people the world over.

This theme resounds in Yuri Shaporin's monumental oratorio *The Tale of the Battle for the Russian Land,* in Constantine Simonov's novel *Days and Nights,* in Victor Nekrassov's and Vasily Grossman's works, and in many others.

Stalingrad is also a theme prominent in stage and screen plays. One of the first Stalingrad plays was Yuri Chepurin's *Men of Stalingrad,* written by an officer who took part in the great battle for the Volga stronghold. This play was produced by the Central Red Army Theater and was the first attempt, though it was immature from the dramatic standpoint, it is true, to reproduce direct impressions of the magnificent story of the battle and the courage of the defenders of the hero city. The huge stage of this theater and the facilities which it possesses for depicting gigantic scenes enabled it to reproduce the atmosphere of the famous battle with considerable success.

In 1947 the Moscow Art Theater and the Moscow Theater of Drama held their first performances of Stalingrad plays almost simultaneously on the occasion of the celebrations held in connection with the Thirtieth Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. The Art Theater produced Simonov's *Days and Nights.* Despite the difficulty of bringing the rich content of this book to the stage the producer has succeeded in making the main ideological line stand out in clear relief. On the small scale of a single battalion defending one of the sectors of the Stalingrad defenses we have presented to us a picture of ordinary Russian officers and men, those who defended the city of undying fame. In this grim and difficult situation where every street and every house was defended with great tenacity, the heroes are shown as men who dearly love the country for whose sake they fought this unbelievably stubborn battle.

The play *Days and Nights* is a great achievement for the Art Theater; the theater has succeeded in producing a compositionally and scenically integrated play that is full of heroic romanticism. The producer is Mikhail Kedrov, one of the pupils of the great Stanislavsky and a People's Artist of the Russian SFSR; his production is distinguished by unusual harmony. The whole troupe works together in a manner well beyond the common run, each part being carefully integrated into the whole. The result is that the onlooker does not have his mind centered on any one of the men of Stalingrad as an individual but on the Stalingrad epic as a whole. One gets a profound conception of the devoted patriotism of Soviet people of various characters, temperaments and experiences, which in those grave days united them in one tremendous effort to defend the city.

At the Moscow Theater of Drama we saw the play *Great Days,* written by Nikolai Virta on the basis of his long scenario for the film *Battle of Stalingrad.* Virta's scenario is important because it is based on exact documentary data and his personal meetings with the leaders of the defense of Stalingrad: the playwright shows the plan of the great battle that was developed and implemented under the direct guidance of Supreme Commander-in-Chief Stalin. The scenario is being filmed by Vladimir Petrov at the Mossfilm Studio. It is being done on a tremendous scale with the participation of huge formations of infantry, tanks and aircraft. Petrov has the work well under way and by the thirtieth anniversary of the Soviet Army on February 23, 1948, Part One of this great film will be shown in our cinemas.

The material used in the scenario also enabled Virta to write a variant for the legitimate stage. This is the play *Great Days* now running at the Moscow Theater of Drama. Nikolai Okhlopkov, the producer, and the artist Pyotr Williams (this was Williams' last work before he died a short time ago) have reproduced the real atmosphere of the battle, showing how the Soviet troops, hard pressed by the enemy, defended literally every inch of soil. The chief interest in the play, however, is concentrated on the scenes depicting Generalissimo Stalin. In his simple and modestly furnished study in the Kremlin, working together with his closest aides — among whom the figure of Vyacheslav Molotov is outstanding — Stalin decides the most intricate strategic problems. In time, movement and action, the playwright has succeeded in showing how the plan for the rout of the Germans at Stalingrad came into being and was developed, how the masterly plan for the encircling and destruction of the Nazi armies matured. Stalin fathomed all the enemy's plans and dealt hammer blows at the German divisions striving to strengthen their positions on the banks of the Volga in order to cut off Moscow from the south and enable the German armies to attack the Soviet capital from the rear.

The figure of the great Stalin, near and dear to many millions of people, is re-created by the actor Lev Sverdlin; there is inspired and artistic boldness, great tact and nobility in his acting.

Another successful role in the play is that of Vyacheslav Molotov, played by Maxim Strauckh. The artist has not only achieved a great physical likeness but he also reveals the spiritual wealth, the brilliant mind and wise statesmanship of one of the greatest figures in the Soviet Government.

The Stalingrad theme, of course, has not yet been exhausted. Novelists, playwrights, the theater, the cinema, painters and musicians will return to it again and again. The farther the Stalingrad of 1942-43 recedes into the past the clearer and more obvious will its immortality be.

New Documentary Films

By Mikhail Dolgopolov

Two new documentary films which are having a huge success in the cinemas of the Soviet capital are *Leningrad* and *The Soviet Ukraine*.

To the Soviet citizen Leningrad is not merely one of the finest and most beautiful cities in the country; it is the symbol of the historic events that have taken place here in the 30 years which have elapsed since the October Revolution of 1917. In that year it was the scene of the overthrow of the bourgeois Provisional Government by the Leningrad workers, sailors and soldiers, under the wise guidance and genius of the leaders, Lenin and Stalin, and of the founding of the Soviet State on the ruins of the old tsarist regime.

More than one film would be needed to tell the whole story of Leningrad in the past three decades. R. Karmen, who produced this film and wrote its scenario, is one of the most experienced Soviet producers of documentary films. He has aimed at a narrative beginning in 1917 and continuing to our own day. He has had to employ various methods of photography, old documentary films from the archives, many rare photographs, paintings and drawings. The scenes in which Vladimir Lenin, photographed during the first days of the October Revolution, appears, are very moving.

The fine architectural ensembles are shown with artistic taste. And besides the old and beautiful buildings created by the architects of old St. Petersburg, we see a great many that are new. Designs for the new structures that will be seen in the city of the near future are shown too.

For several years the working people of Leningrad were under the guidance of Sergei Kirov, a loyal follower of Stalin and one of the fiery tribunes of the revolution. The scenes showing his many-sided activities are remarkably good.

The author of the film has followed the chronological principle in his depiction of Leningrad on the eve of the attack by Hitler's troops. The peak of industrial progress that it had reached on the eve of the catastrophe, the general prosperity and scenes showing the bright and animated faces of the citizens precede those of the grim and heroic days of the blockade; they help to illustrate the unbending will displayed by the Soviet people in repelling the enemy and the tremendous impetus that moved them; they were working at the plants and factories for the needs of a front which lay but a few miles away.

Other interesting scenes are those in which the working people of Leningrad join the People's Guard and those detachments of the anti-aircraft defense which made such splendid efforts to protect the town in the barbarous fascist air-raids. Perhaps some of the best illustrations of the character of the Leningrad people are the scenes in the famous Public Library in Leningrad where, though the reading rooms were totally unheated, readers came to carry on their studies and to prepare their theses. Soviet soldiers going to the front did not forget, before they left, to pay their respects to the grave of Field Marshal Suvorov, one of the greatest military leaders of the Russians. These things are eloquently described in the film *Leningrad;* the city's defense, and the men who directed it, the leaders of the Leningrad Bolsheviks, A. Zhdanov, A. Kuznetsov and Marshal Govorov among them, figure in the scenes.

No matter what part of the city's history is depicted—the historic days of 1917, the Second World War, the splendid things that are being done today and the industrial victories of the Leningrad workers who were the first to fulfill the program for the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, and to appeal to all citizens of the Soviet Union to finish the Five-Year Plan in four years—this film might well have been called *Leningrad's Citizens* and not merely *Leningrad*. Like everything that has been created in the past 30 years and has been defended by Leningrad's sons, the film speaks of the noble moral character of the new man of the epoch of Lenin and Stalin, the man in whom lofty patriotism is combined with supreme devotion to his country and countrymen.

In the film *The Soviet Ukraine* made this year, the enthusiasm of the Ukrainians in their efforts for recovery and rebuilding is seen. As is well known, the fascists wrought terrible havoc in that Republic and the losses

UKRAINE. Newly-built apartment houses in Kiev, the Ukrainian capital.

incurred are immense. The German occupation lasted three years. But the contemptible invaders could not hold the land they had seized; the guerrillas hiding in the woods gave them no peace.

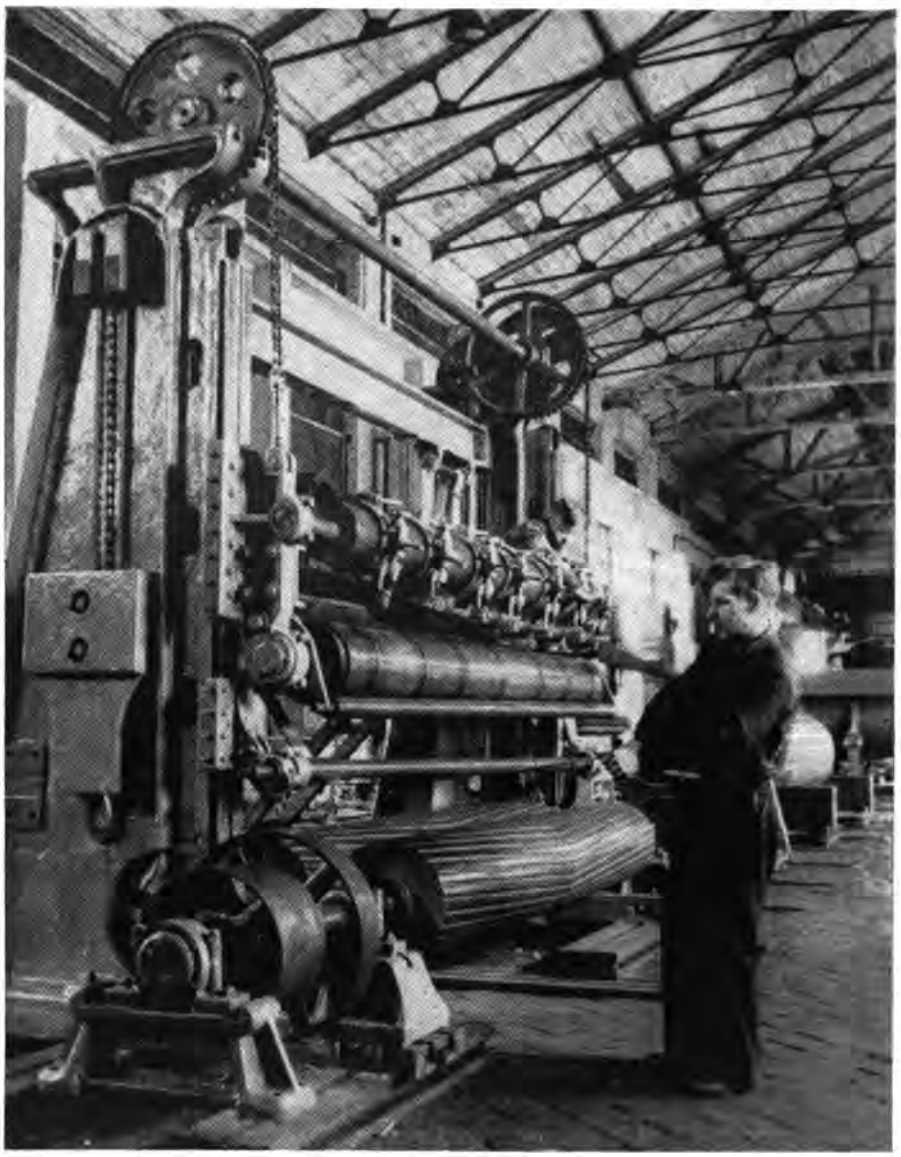
As the towns and villages were liberated, the people, who were eager to get back to their accustomed work, tackled the job of rebuilding the factories and the Dneiper dam, and putting the mines in working order. Young and old signed the pledge made to Stalin to participate in the struggle of labor on the industrial and agricultural fronts.

The Soviet Ukraine is a color film; the landscapes of woodland and field reveal fine artistic feeling and the ability to capture the moods of nature. The pictures taken in the steel works are impressive, the processes are shown from the pouring of the metal to its transformation into various kinds of machinery and parts. Typical workers are shown: Mikhail Kucherin, a steelworker, who perseveringly improved his work and enlarged his technical knowledge; Eugene Pastukhov, a miner who has given his country ten trainloads of coal this year.

The great Ukrainian plants of heavy industry, which rose on the sites of desolation and ruin, are shown in panorama—the Makeyevka, Azovstal, Novo-Kramatorsk, Voroshilovgrad locomotive-construction works; the Kharkov tractor plant and others. The color-photography done underground in the mines gives an idea of the splendid methods of work of the Stakhanovites of the Donetz coalfields.

The photographer shows us harvest-time in the Ukraine. Collective farmers in this Republic have received much aid from the State because last year their land suffered in the drought. This year a far larger area than last year was sown and the Ukrainians reaped a fine harvest.

Pictures of harvesting in the Transcarpathian Ukraine, where the Government provided agricultural machinery and tractors, are shown. The Ukrainians of this part of the Carpathians were formerly backward and very poor; they have made strides since they entered the Soviet Union. In the Kiev and Kharkov regions where the great struggle against the German fascists was carried on only a few years ago, columns of trucks delivered grain to the agricultural centers. When the state deliveries were all made, we saw the loading of country carts with sacks of grain earned by the peasants. The voice of the announcer informed us that more than 2,500,000 persons had moved out of the dugouts in which they sought shelter after their homes were destroyed, into new houses. Thirteen hundred new power-stations have been built in the rural districts to serve the Ukraine's collective farms.



LENINGRAD. The city's machine industry is famous. A paper-shearing machine tool made at the Second Five-Year Plan plant.

Some of the people who took the lead in raising bumper crops—Mark Ozerny, Anna Koshevaya, and Maria Lysenko, all awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor—are seen in the film too. Now that they work according to scientific methods, and with modern farm machinery, these farmers have sufficient scope to carry out their own ideas and to use initiative; they work in a new way, and put all their energy and enthusiasm into it.

The culture of the Ukrainian people is flourishing. All the institutes of the Academy of Sciences have been restored; schools and colleges have been reopened; museums, picture galleries and theaters are thronged. One of the most interesting evidences of the cultural advance in village life is the picture of the performance of *Twelfth Night* given in the open air by a collective farm amateur dramatic circle.

The producers, M. Olutsky and G. Tasin, the operators A. Krichevsky, K. Bogdan and V. Voitenko, have built on the scenario by L. Pervomaisky and A. Kuznetsov a moving and interesting documentary film.

Aram Khachaturian, Soviet Composer

By G. Lvov

THE music of Aram Khachaturian, noted Soviet composer who has been awarded the Stalin Prize on three occasions, is distinguished by clarity of thought, richness of color and a fine range of melody. He works in widely-differing genres with equal success. His two symphonies, concertos for the piano and violin, his vocal-symphonic *Poem of Stalin,* ballet suites and chamber pieces, musical settings for the theater and films have gained him wide popularity in the Soviet Union and abroad.

Among the letters that he receives from all over the Soviet Union there are many from his countrymen in Armenia, where this year he was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Republic. They express appreciation of Khachaturian's music, in which the vivid national coloring of their native Armenia is embodied with spirit and mastery in fine and finished musical canvases.

"I always try to reply to all my correspondents," the composer said, "though my music and public duties leave me very little time for it. I have a great many new ideas that I want to carry out, and I usually work on several new pieces at the same time.

"I recently completed three arias for a soprano voice accompanied by the orchestra," he informed us. "The words are from Armenian folk songs and verses by Armenian classic poets. The theme of all three is love, that brings poetry and beauty into life. In writing them I have tried too (though this is one of my first attempts in vocal music) to show the scope of the voice, its concert range. The arias are different in form but taken as a whole, they are a kind of concerto for the voice, accompanied by the orchestra.

"My new violoncello concerto," the composer continued, "is already familiar to many, for it was played this year by the best 'cellists—Knoussevitski, Shafran, Tsomik and others—at concerts in the Soviet Union and given by our musicians on tour abroad. The Czechoslovak 'cellist Sadlo performed it with success at the Prague Festival."

ARAM KHACHATURIAN.

The first performances of Khachaturian's new symphonic poem, written for the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution, took place in Leningrad, and afterward in Moscow, in December. "My purpose," said the composer, "was to express the joy of victory, the people rejoicing, the optimism of Soviet citizens looking forward confidently to their future. The ideas underlying the poem dictated my range of media." The large symphony orchestra was augmented by an organ and a special group of 15 wind instruments.

The compositions mentioned above are not all that Khachaturian has written recently. His new compositions include a set of 10 pianoforte pieces for children, music for the film adapted from Konstantin Simonov's play *The Russian Question* and music for the play *The Southern Junction* (about the German defeat in the Crimea) now being shown at the Central Soviet Army Theater.

Khachaturian's Second Symphony, written in 1944, is a remarkable piece of work. The composer's originality, melodic gifts, virtuosity of technique, inventiveness in harmony, and richness of orchestration give his music an exceptionally strong appeal. The thoughts expressed in this fresh and emotionally tense music are understandable to most listeners.

The first movement unveils a monumental picture, in which the composer attempts to record the variety and significance of world events. The chime of bells and fanfare of trumpets at the opening sound a warning. The evil forces of fascism are rallying against the country of the working people, ready to attack her freedom and happiness, and at moments dramatic feeling is intensified to the pitch of tragedy. The people fight in defense of the humane ideals trampled in the dust. The summons to stand fast sounds implacable, the great country is mobilizing her forces. The widely national character of the repulse dealt the foe is described with the eloquence and conviction of an impassioned orator.

The finale is overwhelmingly exultant; its theme (expressed by wind instruments against a background of strings) is distinct and broadly developed, foretelling imminent victory. The chiming of the bells is reminiscent of the introduction to the first movement, but now it does not sound sinister and alarming, but joyous and triumphant. The outcome of the war is foreseen: the humane principle has triumphed and is expressed in paeans of joy, pride, love and self-denial.

Khachaturian's Second Symphony is understood as an optimistic composition of a philosophically-generalized type and nature; this new principle in Aram Khachaturian's work is embodied in his symphony to the great victory of the Soviet people. His most recent works, three arias for female voices with orchestra, a triumphal overture dedicated to the 30th anniversary of the Revolution, and a violoncello concerto, are evidence of the deeper understanding of the leading idea in the composer's music.

As Vice-chairman of the Soviet Composers' Union, Khachaturian takes

an active part in the discussion of questions of importance for the progress of Soviet music. "As you can see," the composer said, smiling, "I have an endless amount of work. Now that my symphonic poem has been performed, I shall carry out an idea that I have had in mind for a long time—a ballet called *Spartacus*. The strong and heroic character of Spartacus, who headed the movement of the oppressed for freedom hundreds of years ago, interests me keenly. I also intend to write a concerto for piano and violin with orchestra. From the standpoint of genre the combination of these two instruments in one concerto will be something new. Then, I want to write a violin sonata, a trio and an opera. I have written nothing in this last genre, which is one of the most popular, and I should like to attempt it."

The composer is not the only musical member of the family. His wife, Nina Makarova, is known for many compositions which have been successfully performed at concerts. Some of them she conducts herself. At present she is engaged on an opera about the Soviet girl partisan, Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, which she was asked to compose for the Bolshoi Theater. The composers' son and daughter, brought up in an environment in which love for good music has been cultivated from early childhood, are now making considerable progress with their piano lessons. Khachaturian's nephew, Karen, who was brought up with the family, is a talented composer. At the Prague Festival of Democratic Youth he carried off the first prize.

Aram Khachaturian's interests are many; he plays tennis, and is usually to be found among the spectators at football matches. He is an avid theatergoer and knows the theaters of Moscow, Leningrad and Transcaucasia well. He is, of course, connected with them through his music. In the music that he writes for the theater, it is clear that he is always searching for new paths, new treatments—the expression of something altogether new in art.

In this, he is typical of many Soviet artists in various fields, whose work, though based on thorough schooling and high regard for the classic forms, seeks new and original forms. Through their artistic media, they give expression to the experiences and sentiments of the time in which they live.

Dargomyzhsky's Music

By Mikhail Mirkin

ALEXANDER DARGOMYZHSKY.

ALEXANDER DARGOMYZHSKY, one of the most remarkable of the Russian composers of the nineteenth century, was born 135 years ago, on February 14, 1813. His operas *Russalka* or *The Water-Sprite* and *The Stone Guest*, as well as his many vocal compositions, marked an epoch in the history of Russian music.

From what we know of the composer's biography, his musical talent appeared very early. At eleven he was composing ballades and piano pieces. When he grew up he did not, however, choose music as his profession, but for many years held a post in one of the ministries in St. Petersburg. It was not until he was thirty years of age that he gave up his post in the ministry to devote himself to composing music.

His creative life was a struggle for Russian national art. Like Mikhail Glinka, who preceded him and was the founder of Russian classical music, he realized that true art can be built up solely on a thorough understanding and profound insight into folk art. He made an exhaustive study of Russian folk songs and dances, which later served as the basis of much of his work.

The democratic nature of his compositions was seen in his approach to Russian national songs, and we find that many of his original songs follow the folk song construction. National folk motifs are present in his symphonic compositions, too.

He was the creator in Russia of the dramatic and satiric song, new genres for his time. He was the first to introduce satire, ridiculing hypocrisy and sanctimoniousness, into Russian vocal art. His song *The Worm* is an example of this.

The opera *The Water-Sprite*, which was completed in 1855, was an event in Russian music. This is a musical drama based on the poem by Alexander Pushkin. At times lyrical, at others intensely dramatic, the music has touches of purely national humor.

The Stone Guest was written in the last year of the composer's life and sums up, as it were, his creative work. He was attracted by the idea of writing a musical drama free of operatic conventions. The subject was taken from Pushkin's poem. Dargomyzhsky departed from the traditional forms, the arias, duets and ensembles, and while preserving the verse intact, strove to reveal its deep-lying content. A master of melodic declamation, he has succeeded in merging verse and melody.

Dargomyzhsky's compositions did not gain acknowledgment from aristocratic audiences, but were warmly welcomed by democratic circles.

His works are well known abroad. In the mid-nineteenth century Franz Liszt wrote a brilliant pianoforte transcription of Dargomyzhsky's *Tarantella*. *The Water-Sprite* was performed on opera stages all over the world. The works of Alexander Dargomyzhsky, particularly this opera and most of his songs, though they are nearly a hundred years old, are still performed at Soviet opera houses and concert-halls, and awaken a warm response in the hearts of millions.

Notes on Soviet Life

DARING tissue transplantation operations are being performed at the Central Traumatology and Orthopedics Institute. An example is the recent brilliant operation performed by Professor Mikhelson upon a war invalid with an amputated tongue. Using the method developed by Filatov, the Professor transplanted a skin flap to the place of the amputated tongue. The transplantation was so successful that the patient resumed the power of speech.

Another achievement of plastic surgery is a method developed at the Institute of grafting artificial fingers upon a hand. For this purpose, soft tissues are used, transplanted after Filatov's method with preserved cartilage serving as a firm foundation.

The Institute has developed original artificial limbs for the armless. These limbs enable armless men to execute not only simple movements but even to do fine precision work by means of active artificial fingers.

A stomatological laboratory is conducting interesting work in the grafting of artificial teeth. In accordance with a special method doctors fasten an artificial tooth in the cavity remaining after tooth extraction and establish a strict regime for the patient. Early experiments show that the artificial teeth become firmly implanted in the jaw and function normally.

★

The first section of the Khrami hydroelectric power station has been completed and put into operation. It is situated in the high mountains on the bank of the River Khrami at a distance of about 75 miles from Tbilisi, capital of the Georgian Republic. Before this high mountain power station could be built, highly complicated hydrotechnical work had to be carried out and a network of new roads laid for the delivery of building materials by trucks. The total volume of motor transport work amounted to 35 million ton-kilometers.

At the Khrami hydroelectric power station the biggest dam in the USSR has been erected, made of huge stones and coated with stainless steel. A tunnel, almost four miles in length, has been cut through the mountains. A high-voltage transmission line, along which electric current is already flowing to Tbilisi, has been built under extremely complicated mountain conditions. The Khrami hydroelectric power station will meet the ever growing demands for electricity by industrial and other new constructions of the Georgian Republic.

★

The Soviet Union is celebrating the 100th anniversary of the publication of "The Communist Manifesto" of Marx and Engels this month. A series of special lectures will be given in factories and government offices entitled: "The 100th Anniversary of the Communist Manifesto, the Ideas of the Communist Manifesto Developed in Lenin's and Stalin's Works, the Triumph of Scientific Communism in the USSR."

The main work of rehabilitating the Nazi-ravaged villages is reaching completion. More than 135 thousand new houses for collective farmers and nearly 40 thousand public buildings were erected in the Ukraine in 1947. Electricity is being installed in the rehabilitated villages. On New Year's Eve 25 thousand farm houses were lit by electricity.

Thousands of collective farmers' families in the Kuban greeted the New Year in bright, spacious houses built on the sites of those demolished by the German fascists. Not a single family in this region now lives in a mud hut, as many whose homes were destroyed did for a time. Altogether, 67 thousand new houses for collective farmers, many village clubs, movie theaters, schools and kindergartens have been built in the Kuban.

No longer satisfied with the old type of village dwellings, collective farmers are now building well-appointed many-roomed houses designed by Soviet architects.

Moscow Radio Broadcasts in English February 11—February 23

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from February 11 to February 23 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 6.11, 7.36, 9.54, 9.57, 11.72, 15.17 and 17.77 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:50 P.M. on 5.96, 7.30, 7.36, 9.50, 9.78, 11.72, 11.88 and 15.23 megacycles.

Two news bulletins are given on the evening programs, at 6:20 and 7:30 P.M.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Program for American youth—Wednesday, February 11.

Soviet trade unions—Thursday, February 12.

Culture and science—Fridays, February 13 and 20.

Weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners—Saturdays, February 14 and 21.

Musical program—Sundays, February 15 and 22.

Questions of Soviet economy—Monday and Tuesday, February 16 and 17.

Program for farmers—Wednesday, February 18.

Program on Soviet children—Thursday, February 19.

Thirty and sixty-kopeck stamps showing the storming of the Winter Palace in 1917.

Fifty-kopeck and one-ruble stamps symbolizing the growth of Soviet industrial power.

Sixty-kopeck and two-ruble stamps picturing the rich agriculture of the USSR.

Soviet Union issues new commemorative stamps

A series of six stamps commemorating the 30th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution have been issued by Soviet postal authorities. The values are 30, 50, and 60 kopecks, and one and two rubles.

The 30 and 60-kopeck stamps bear a design depicting the storming of the Winter Palace, and the slogan "All Power to the Soviets!"

The 50-kopeck and one-ruble stamps show furnaces, factory buildings, oil derricks, and a freight train. Above this are the words: "The USSR—a Mighty Industrial Power."

The 60-kopeck and two-ruble stamps have a harvester-combine in the foreground of a field, and a truck loaded with grain. Across the upper part are the words: "The USSR—a Country with Modern Agriculture."

The ornament is in red on all the stamps, the dates 1917-1947 appear, and the words "XXX Years of the Great October Socialist Revolution" provide the basic motif.

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Information Bulletin

FEBRUARY 28, 1948

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MOUNTAIN CLIMBING. Soldiers in training learn to cope with every sort of terrain. Soviet Army men training in the highlands. FRONT COVER. Soldiers at ease in camp find music a favorite recreation. BACK COVER. A mass parachute descent at an aviation festival exhibition.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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FEBRUARY 28, 1948

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of th of So
Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Aver W., W
ington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for ear; $
six months. Checks should be made payable nforma
Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted duced.

30 YEARS OF THE SOVIET ARMED FORCES

Created by the great Lenin to protect our country from attack by foreign aggressors and reared by the Bolshevik Party, the Red Army has traversed a glorious path of development. It has fulfilled with honor its historic mission and is deservedly the beloved offspring of the Soviet people.

—J. V. Stalin, February 23, 1945

J. V. STALIN

It was our great good fortune that in the hard years of war the Red Army and the Soviet people were led forward by the wise and tried leader of the Soviet Union—great Stalin.

The glorious victories of our Army will go down in the history of our country, and in world history, linked with the name of Generalissimo Stalin.

—V. M. Molotov, November 6, 1945

Order of the Day

(No. 5; February 23, 1948)

COMRADES Soldiers and Sailors, Sergeants and Sergeants Major! Comrades Officers, Generals and Admirals!

Thirty years ago, the Soviet Army and Soviet Navy were created by the leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet people, Lenin and Stalin, to defend the gains of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

In the years of their existence, our armed forces traversed a glorious path of struggle. Their entire history is a vivid example of selfless service to the people, the country, the great and invincible cause of Lenin and Stalin.

In the grim years of foreign military intervention and civil war, our Army defeated the combined forces of international and internal counterrevolution and secured for the Soviet people the opportunity to proceed to peaceful socialist construction.

Marshal Nikolai Bulganin, Minister of the Armed Forces of the USSR.

In the years of peaceful socialist construction, the Soviet Army and Soviet Navy vigilantly guarded the work of the Soviet people. Time and again during that period, the foes of the Soviet State encroached upon our state frontiers. But each time our armed forces gave them a crushing rebuff.

The might of the Soviet Army and Soviet Navy was most fully and vividly displayed in the Great Patriotic War against fascist Germany and its allies. In grim single combat, the Soviet armed forces defeated the German fascist army and crushed Hitler Germany. A similar fate overtook imperialist Japan.

The Soviet Army and Soviet Navy emerged victorious because in their fight against the enemy they were backed by the immense strength of the Soviet Socialist State and of our people. From the day our Army was born, the Soviet people have constantly shown their concern for it, lavishing attention and affection upon it, supplying it with everything it needed.

The Soviet armed forces derive their strength from the wise leadership of the Bolshevik Party, the inspiration and organizer of all our victories. The Party's correct economic and military policy in the prewar years prepared all the conditions necessary for the successful prosecution of the relentless and protracted war. In the war years, the Party organized and united the Nation's forces, the Army and Navy, and directed them to the attainment of victory.

Our armed forces emerged victorious because they have experienced and seasoned cadres who have mastered the advanced Soviet science of warfare, cadres fostered and trained by the Bolshevik Party.

From the day our Army, Air Force and Navy were organized, Comrade Stalin has worked tirelessly to consolidate them, to promote their growth and to increase their fighting strength. It is with Comrade Stalin's name that the victories which our armed forces have won are associated.

The peoples of our country are celebrating the Thirtieth Birthday of the armed forces at a time when they are struggling successfully to reach the targets of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan in four years. By their efforts, the Soviet people are expressing their approval of the policy pursued by the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government, their readiness to overcome any difficulties and obstacles on the road to the great goal—communism.

While working successfully to accomplish the grand program of building a communist society, we must not forget that so long as imperialism exists, there remains the danger of an attack upon our country. The situation amidst which we are living compels us to be constantly prepared for battle.

The Soviet Union firmly pursues its peaceful foreign policy; it marches in the van of the progressive forces that are fighting for a stable and lasting democratic peace, for international security. Stalin's just foreign policy has the support of the popular democracies, of the friends of peace and freedom throughout the world. Our armed forces stand guard over this policy.

In the postwar period, our armed forces have made considerable further progress in perfecting their military

and political knowledge. But this must not give rise to any complacency, self-satisfaction and conceit in our ranks. We must spare no strength and effort to perform with honor the tasks set the armed forces.

All the members of the Soviet armed forces must sacredly perform their duty as soldiers, must work hard to improve their military training and be prepared to defend the interests and honor of the Soviet State under any conditions and at any price.

Comrades Soldiers and Sailors, Sergeants and Sergeants Major! Comrades Officers, Generals and Admirals!

Men demobilized from the ranks of the armed forces!

I greet and congratulate you on the Thirtieth Anniversary of the Soviet Army and Soviet Navy!

To mark the Thirtieth Anniversary of the Soviet Army and Soviet Navy, I hereby order:

Today, February 23, a salute of thirty artillery salvos shall be fired in the capital of our country, Moscow, in capitals of the Union Republics, and also in Kaliningrad, Lvov, Khabarovsk, Vladivostok, Port Arthur and in the heroic cities of Leningrad, Stalingrad, Sevastopol and Odessa.

Hail the Thirtieth Anniversary of the Soviet Armed Forces!

Long live our mighty Soviet Homeland!

Long live the heroic Soviet people!

Long live the Soviet Government!

Long live our glorious Communist Party!

Long live the inspiration and organizer of our victories, our leader and teacher, the great Stalin!

N. BULGANIN

Minister of the Armed Forces of the USSR, Marshal of the Soviet Union.

TALIN TANKS. A column of heavy Joseph Stalin tanks, a type of armament which saw much action during the Second World War, during a military parade in Moscow.

HISTORIC SCENE. Lenin and Stalin conferring with Red Guardsmen in Petrograd (now Leningrad) during the Revolution, as depicted by artist P. Vasiliev.

30 Years of Soviet Armed Forces

By I. Krivelyev

THE armed forces of the Soviet Union have a history of only 30 years. But in this short historic period, the Soviet Army has traversed a glorious path and has nobly fulfilled its duty to the country.

The Soviet Union is a peace-loving nation. Aggression against any state or nation is alien to a socialist country. The aim of the armed forces of the Soviet Union has always been to defend the State and to ensure its just interests. And in those 30 years, the Soviet armed forces proved that the socialist State may well rely on them. The Soviet Army and Navy have upheld the integrity and independence of the Soviet State in all the wars that were forced upon it; the Soviet Army routed all the enemies that attacked it, thus showing the entire world the futility of any attempt to gain something at the expense of the Soviet Union.

The 30 years' existence and the victories of the Soviet armed forces have confirmed the truth of what Lenin, the founder of the Soviet State, once said: "A nation can never be conquered when the majority of its workers and peasants have come to know, feel and see that they are defending their own Soviet Government, a government of working people, that they are defending a cause whose victory will secure to themselves and to their children the possibility to benefit from all the achievements of culture, from all the products of human labor."

It really is worth while to give thought to the question: Were the victories gained by the Soviet armed forces against the numerous and powerful armies which attacked our country mere accidents? In the period from 1918 to 1921, the Soviet Army routed the foreign interventionists and White-guard armies of Deniken, Kolchak, Wrangel, Yudenich and others; in 1929, it defeated the Chinese militarists on the Chinese Eastern Railway, the Japanese samurais at Hasan and Khalkhingol, and smashed the White Finns in 1939 and 1940. And finally it achieved its historic victory over Hitler Germany and her satellites. It would of course be absurd to suppose that all this was accidental. Soviet victories have not been won by chance. They are the natural outcome of the Soviet system.

All the wars which the Soviet Union has had to wage were just wars of liberation. Every soldier in the Soviet Army knew that he was fighting not in the interests of capitalists, not for the seizure and plunder of foreign territory, but in the interests of his own people, for his own sake and for the sake of his children and dear ones, for the independence and integrity of his country and for the great gains of the October Socialist Revolution. This explains the unprecedented heroism displayed by the Soviet people on the field of action. The armed forces of the Soviet Union were built and directed by the founders and leaders of the Soviet State, Vladimir Lenin and Joseph Stalin. In the course of the history of the Soviet Army, every soldier and officer knew that the leaders of the Government and the Army were taking them along the right path.

In our day, wars are waged by

people as well as armies. In a war, a country makes strenuous efforts to supply armies in the field with great quantities of arms and ammunition, food and equipment. An army engaged in war can best fulfill its tasks when it enjoys the full support of the country and that is only possible if the aims of the war are vital to the interests of the people.

Such has been the case in all the wars which the Soviet Union has had to wage. The Soviet people know that their Army is fulfilling tasks the solution of which will secure their freedom and independence and enable them to continue building a happy socialist life. That is why they love their Army and support it. And what this means was pointed out by Stalin long before the war. It means that such an army will be most solidly backed by the country and that such an army is invincible. The 30 years' history of the Soviet armed forces gives a vivid picture of how the Soviet Army, inspired by the love and care of its country, directed by the wise and far-sighted strategy of Lenin and Stalin, surmounted all its difficulties and achieved great victories.

In the period of the Civil War, when many interventionist armies and Russian Whiteguards, all well equipped and armed by foreign imperialists, were routed on Soviet territory, the Soviet troops had to fight under much worse conditions than their enemies: Soviet soldiers were ill clad, poorly armed and often hungry. The country was choking under a blockade to which it was subjected by the leaders of international imperialism. And yet, in spite of everything, the Soviet Army triumphed! The fury and the hatred of the imperialists and all their efforts could not break the might of the revolutionary people and their determination to uphold their freedom.

The struggle developed on a much greater scale during the war against the Hitlerite invaders. It was a gigantic battle unprecedented in scale, in the volume of manpower and battle equipment employed, or in bitterness. And in this greatest of world conflicts, victory was again on the side of the Soviet Union and the Soviet Army. The Soviet people feel that their Army made the greatest contribution to the cause of victory over Nazi Germany, although on this thirtieth anniversary of the Soviet armed forces they bare their heads also in memory of the American and other Allied soldiers and officers who fell fighting for the common cause of freedom-loving nations.

By crushing Nazi Germany, the Soviet Army saved civilization and all the peoples of Europe from fascist enslavement. It fulfilled its duty to the Soviet people and to all the working people, ensuring the possibility of their progressive and democratic development.

When, after the defeat of Germany, the time came to end the war in the Far East, the Soviet armed forces played a significant role in this theater too. Faithful to the Allied cause, the Soviet Government decided to intervene, sooner to end the war and help destroy Japanese imperialism. The picked Kwangtung Army, the pride of Japanese imperialism, was defeated in a matter of two weeks. The Soviet armed forces delivered a devastating blow in the rear of Japan. It was a real Second Front for Japan, one which promised her disaster. Soon, Japan capitulated as did fascist Germany four months before.

World War II came to an end and a period of peaceful development commenced. The nations want peace, they want to heal their wounds. But reactionaries are wide awake. They have not laid down their arms. They are carrying on a provocative campaign against the Soviet Union with the aim of starting a new World War. The armed forces of the Soviet Union are guarding the independence, freedom and integrity of the Soviet State; the fighting men of the USSR are unshakable in their determination always to remain faithful, to guard the Soviet borders, as the reliable protector of the interests of the country.

TODAY. The well-trained, battle-steeled troops of the Soviet Army marching in a parade.

LIBERATION. Marshal of the Soviet Union Ivan Konev is greeted by cheering throngs in Prague in May, 1945.

An Army of Liberation

By Professor S. Vishnev

THE part played by the USSR in the international field, its prestige and popularity among all progressive people, have grown immensely since the victory over Hitler Germany.

The matchless courage displayed by the Soviet peoples in the struggle against the invaders won for the Soviet Union the esteem and sympathy of all the peoples of the world. The Stalingrad battle has become throughout the world a symbol of the loftiest patriotism, courage, stubbornness and mass heroism. The heroism of the Soviet people in the defense of Leningrad, Sevastopol and Odessa aroused universal admiration.

The exhausted, starving Leningrad workers turned out weapons for the front until they breathed their last. For many months the heroes of Sevastopol repelled the furious attacks of the enemy. The partisan movement developed on an unprecedented scale.

World public opinion was so greatly impressed by the feats of the Soviet people because their deeds formed such a sharp contrast with the conduct of some of the Western European armies. The strong French fort of Verdun, for example, offered no serious resistance to German troops in 1940; Paris, as we know, was surrendered without a battle, and the powerful British Singapore fortress—the Gibraltar of the Far East—capitulated to the Japanese with actually no resistance either.

The Soviet Army and the Soviet peoples spared neither effort nor their blood in the defense of the country for the sake of victory. The Soviet Union lost more men than Britain and the United States of America taken together. The material damage inflicted on the Soviet Union as a result of the military action and German occupation was extremely heavy.

The working people throughout the world know and value the decisive contribution which the Soviet people made to the common cause of victory.

The international prestige of the Soviet Union did not rise as a result of its war triumphs only. It rose as a result of the great social, economic and cultural achievements which made victory possible.

The ingenious generalship of Generalissimo Stalin and the skillful leadership of the Soviet Marshals and Generals, the superiority of the Soviet battle technique, the consciousness and discipline of the Soviet troops, their humane attitude toward the populations of the enemy countries, consolidated the prestige of the Soviet Union and raised the popularity of the Soviet people.

The Soviet Union bore the brunt of the burden in the struggle against Hitler Germany. When the Soviet Union crushed Nazism it did not only uphold its independence, it saved humanity from Nazi oppression.

This is the historical service the Soviet Army and the Soviet people rendered mankind. The Soviet Army played a leading part in routing Hitler Germany and Japanese militarism; it freed a number of countries, restored their national independence and ensured conditions for their economic and political revival. The Soviet Army rendered a particularly great service to the Slav peoples whom it freed from the German yoke. After stubborn and fierce fighting, Soviet troops cleared Poland of the German invaders, thus ensuring the creation of a democratic Polish State. By a dashing advance south, the Soviet Army freed Bulgaria. It also played an outstanding part in the liberation of Czechoslovakia, in-

MONUMENT. In Belgrade, to Soviet soldiers who died in liberating the city.

cluding its fine capital, Prague. Fighting alongside the peoples of Yugoslavia, the Soviet armies expelled the invaders from this Slav country, which waged a heroic struggle against the German invaders.

The Soviet Army also played a decisive role in the liberation of other countries in Europe. It drove the Germans from Finland, Romania, Hungary and northern Norway and helped to clear Austria of the Germans.

It will be remembered that in the final phase of the war Polish, Romanian, Bulgarian and units of a number of other countries liberated by the Soviet Army fought the invader side by side with Soviet troops.

The peoples of Europe who were liberated by Soviet arms from Nazi enslavement will never forget the feats or sacrifices of the Soviet Army, the army of liberation. Many monuments erected to Soviet soldiers, who fell in battle for Europe, bear evidence to the feelings of gratitude and respect for the Soviet Union and its Army which exist in those liberated countries. Working people of all countries in Europe, and not only those in which the Soviet Army waged its heroic struggle, realize that it was the Soviet Union which freed them from the Nazi yoke.

The Soviet Army did not earn the respect of the liberated countries of Europe by its colossal power alone; it earned that esteem also by its moral qualities, its discipline and its cultural level. Before this, the peoples of Western Europe had a distorted picture of the Soviet people and the Russian soldier, thanks to the lying propaganda of reactionaries. The courage and military skill displayed by the Soviet soldiers in the war, their regard for the peoples of the liberated areas, brought about a complete change in the views of those peoples on the Soviet Union, the Soviet Army and Bolshevism. The Great Patriotic War and the mission of liberation of the Soviet Army produced a profound political impression and changed the outlook of broad masses of European peoples.

The Soviet Army played a similar role in Asia, where it freed Korea and Manchuria from the yoke of Japanese imperialism. In northern Korea, the population hailed the Soviet troops with enthusiasm, and with the help of the Soviet military administration began building up a new democratic Korea.

PRAGUE. Citizens greet the liberating Soviet troops with banners and applause. This scene occurred in the Czechoslovak capital on May 9, 1945, as the city was freed.

Without interfering in the internal affairs of the liberated countries, the Soviet Army guards the integrity of their national independence. It helps to maintain order, to eliminate the remnants of fascist troops and of the reactionary underground. Simultaneously, the Soviet Army assists in the rehabilitation of countries ravaged by war and German occupation.

The Soviet Command planned its operations so as to cause as little damage as possible to the economy of the countries where the battle raged. Measures were also taken to prevent enemy destruction of towns and important industrial targets before retreat. The Soviet Army operation in Silesia is a vivid example of farsightedness and understanding in the solution of strategic problems. This industrial region, extremely important for the restoration of the economy of postwar Poland, was liberated with hardly any damage to its economy, thanks to the brilliant maneuvering of the Soviet troops, carried out on the basis of Stalin's ingenious plan.

The oil regions of Romania and the industrial centers of Czechoslovakia were saved in a similar manner.

The war was still in progress when Soviet troops began helping in the restoration of the economy of the liberated countries; they rebuilt enemy-destroyed bridges, restored railways, radio and telephone communication and helped to restore damaged towns and villages. In many cases the Soviet Army supplied food to the hungry population from its own rations.

The Soviet Army took every care to preserve the cultural and historical structures of other peoples and nations. The Nazi vandals showed an utter contempt for historic and cultural monuments of countries they invaded, but Soviet troops took particular care to safeguard them.

Respect for national and religious feelings of the population in countries where Soviet troops are quartered is a law in the Soviet Army. Everywhere from far-away Korea to the banks of the Elbe, the Soviet soldier upholds the honor and dignity of his country.

The course of operations often forced Soviet units to step onto the territories of Allied countries, but after hostilities ceased, the troops were withdrawn. Soviet troops were evacuated from Norway, Poland, Cezchoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Iran and from the Danish island, Bornholm.

This widespread recognition of the mission of liberation of the Soviet Army, a bulwark of peace, democracy and progress, is a matter of paramount international importance. It raises still higher the prestige of the great socialist State.

BROTHERS-IN-ARMS. In this group of soldiers are many whose nationalities were oppressed under the tsars. Now all are equal. These men defended Leningrad. Among them are Russians, Armenians, Jews, Ukrainians, Kazakhs, Kumiks, and Gypsies.

An Army of National Friendship

By Col. P. Orlov

STALIN, the great leader of the Soviet people, defined the Soviet Army as an army of a new type, as an army based on the fraternity and friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union. Its whole essence, its whole system, is based on the consolidation of the bonds of friendship of the peoples of our country, on the idea of the emancipation of the oppressed peoples, on the idea of the freedom and independence of the socialist republics which form the Soviet Union, said Stalin in one of his speeches.

This is what distinguishes the Soviet Army from the tsarist army and from all the armies of capitalist countries. The tsarist regime pursued the policy of setting one nationality against another, which led to tension and enmity among the peoples. The Great October Socialist Revolution put an end to national oppression and the inequality of the nations which make up the multinational country. It proclaimed the equality and sovereignty of the peoples of Russia and the right of the nations to self-determination; abolished all national privileges, and ensured the free development of all national minorities inhabiting Russia.

In place of the former policy of national oppression and inequality, there arose friendship and fraternity of the peoples. The tsarist army was used as a weapon for the suppression and oppression of the peoples. Therein lay its weakness. The Soviet Army was built to defend the rights of the peoples of Russia, to free them from national oppression. This is a main source of its strength and power.

The policy of national equality, fraternity, and friendship of the peoples, consistently pursued by the Soviet Government since the day of its inauguration, from the beginning rallied the nationalities of Russia to the struggle, and the people gave the Soviet Army—their protector and liberator—every possible support. All the nations of Russia were united in the bitter struggle against the foreign interventionists and the Whiteguards during the Civil War.

"The Revolution would not have triumphed in Russia, and Kolchak and Denikin would not have been crushed if the Russian proletariat had not had the sympathy and support of the oppressed peoples of the former Russian Empire," wrote Stalin in 1924.

During the course of the Civil War the Soviet Army helped the peoples of the Ukraine, Byelorussia, the Transcaucasus and Central Asia to uphold their national independence and to join the family of the Soviet peoples.

Supported by the peoples of Russia

CHUVASH. Ivan Matveyev, an artilleryman.

UZBEK. Faizula Yusupov, a Soviet Army sniper.

the Soviet Army routed the foreign interventionists and the Russian Whiteguards, and emerged victorious from the Civil War, thus upholding the independence and the free existence of the Soviet Republic, and ensuring the conditions which enabled the country to pass over to peaceful construction.

The years of peaceful construction were simultaneously years of growth and consolidation of friendship among the peoples. The friendship of the peoples, reflected in the Stalin Constitution, found a vivid expression in the Soviet Army.

Thanks to the advantages of the socialist system and the growing friendship among the peoples, the Soviet Union was able to solve military problems in a way of which tsarist Russia was incapable. The tsarist government did not dare to call up for military service many nationalities such as the Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Tajiks, Turkmen, Kirghiz, the majority of the Caucasian nationalities and the peoples of the North. It was afraid to arm these peoples it oppressed lest they should use those arms against the regime.

The situation is different in the Soviet Army. The Russians, Kazakhs, Uzbeks and men of other nationalities receive their military training together, and together they defend their country.

In the Soviet Army all enjoy the same rights of promotion; all may rise from the ranks to the position of general or marshal. The decisive factor is not social origin or nationality, but the ability and battle service of the person. At the army officers' schools and military academies representatives of all the nationalities study.

The friendship of the peoples of the USSR was subjected to a severe test in the war against Nazi Germany. The German fascists built their plans of conquering the Soviet Union on the preposterous, preconceived idea of the weakness of the ties binding the Soviet people, and the instability of the Soviet Union and i's Army. They believed that as soon as they stepped on Soviet territory, the nationalities would come to blows and the Soviet Union would collapse like a house of cards. These fascist plans proved groundless. The USSR became a single army camp. The peoples of the Soviet Union rose like one man for the armed struggle against the Nazi invaders. Each nation of the USSR considered the defense of the Soviet Union a sacred duty, a matter of its vital concern and national honor. This was vividly expressed in a message of the Uzbek people to the Uzbek soldiers during the years of the war:

MARI. Guardsman Frol Krasnoperov.

"Your nation is the offspring of the Soviet Union. During the course of the past 25 years, the Russian, the Ukrainian, the Byelorussian, the Azerbaijanian, the Georgian, the Armenian, the Tajik, the Turkman, the Kazakh, the Kirghiz and you have worked day and night to build up our big house, our country and our culture. . .

"The German bandit has now broken into the house of your elder brother the Russian; into the home of your brothers the Byelorussian and the Ukrainian. He brings with him the brown plague, the gallows and the whip, hunger and death. But the house of the Russian is also your house! For the Soviet Union is a friendly family, where, though each lives in his own house, he shares one yard and the household is one and undivided."

The Uzbek people expressed the thoughts of all the nationalities of the Soviet Union, who had taken up arms to fight fascism. Every Red Army unit, every partisan detachment was a single family of soldiers of various nationalities inspired by the one aim: to defeat the foe, to uphold the honor and independence of the country, to help the people of Europe shake off the fascist yoke. Life at the front was replete with instances of remarkable friendship of men of different nationalities. The Soviet people in the rear forged victory in the same spirit of friendly cooperation.

Among Soviet soldiers awarded Orders and medals for military feats there are representatives of all the nationalities and peoples of the USSR. Nearly all the nationalities and peoples are represented in the list of Heroes of the Soviet Union, awarded the coveted title during the war against Nazi Germany.

One of the greatest services the Soviet Army rendered humanity was that in defeating Nazism and Japanese imperialism it not only saved its homeland, its honor and independence, but simultaneously saved Europe from Nazi oppression; helped the peoples of Europe to uphold their freedom and independence; saved world civilization.

In its mission of liberation the Soviet Army demonstrated the advantages of the Stalin ideology of the friendship of the peoples over the bestial race theory of the Nazi ideology. Enjoying the support and love of the peoples of the USSR, inspired by the great ideas of Stalin and Lenin, the Soviet Army is vigilantly guarding the peaceful efforts of the Soviet peoples; it is a tower of strength in the struggle for an enduring and democratic world peace.

Soviet Guards, Pride of the Army

By Lt. Col. G. Kolomiyets

In the Soviet Army there are many fine and brave soldiers, but the pick and the pride of the Army are the Guards. Many Soviet soldiers wear an ornamented badge on the right side of the chest with the inscription "The Guards." They are soldiers of the famed Soviet Guards, who have fearlessly traversed the path of battle. Soviet Guards units first were designated during the battle of Moscow. The units of the Guards covered their colors with unfading glory in the battles for Yelnia, Smolensk and other towns on the approaches to the capital.

In old Russia, soldiers of the tsarist Guards were chosen for their build and soldier-like appearance; the officers for their aristocratic origin and on recommendations of the influential and wealthy.

In the Soviet Army it is entirely different.

Its Guards units were born in the flames of the war against the German invaders, during the most crucial days of the campaign. These Army units, soldiers and officers earned the right to the coveted honor of being named as Guards on the fields of action, for outstanding exploits.

In the grim days of the defense of Moscow in 1941 the Panfilov division particularly distinguished itself.

The battle feats of the division seemed to have become epitomized in the great exploit of its 28 heroes. A position held by a handful of Panfilov Guardsmen was attacked by 50 German tanks. The 28 Soviet soldiers, among whom were Russians, Ukrainians and Kazakhs, waged an unprecedented battle against the monsters, and stood their ground. The cry of Vassili Klochkov: "Russia is great, but retreat we cannot, behind us stands Moscow," re-echoed through the country and became the slogan of the Soviet Guardsmen during those bitter days.

In the great Battle of Moscow one of the first to receive the name of the Guards was the anti-tank artillery regiment under Lieutenant Colonel Yefremenko. This unit was engaged in heavy fighting for two months, during which it knocked out 186 tanks, 11 armored cars and 27 guns.

In the fighting around Stalingrad, the Soviet Guardsmen again displayed their supreme fighting qualities.

The Battle of Stalingrad consolidated the fine traditions of the Soviet Guards and it became a law with them that: "Where the Guards attack, the enemy will yield; where the Guards stand for defense, the enemy will not pass."

The commander of the heroic 62nd Army defending Stalingrad ordered: "Every man must be a stone of the town." The Guardsmen executed the order. Proof of this is the inscription which survives on the granite wall of the pier on the right bank of the Volga: "Here the Guardsmen of Gen. Rodimtsev stood to the death!" They stood and won.

After the epic Battle of Stalingrad, which resulted in the destruction or capture of 330 thousand of Germany's picked troops, the Soviet Army launched a determined offensive aiming to expel the enemy from the country.

This large-scale offensive was headed by regiments and divisions, corps and armies of the Guards.

Great indeed were their efforts and their deeds.

The feat of private Matrosov, who silenced a German machine gun with his body to secure the advance of his unit, was mentioned in a special order by Stalin as an example of great valor and heroism.

Colonel of the Guards Alexander Pokryshkin, wearing three gold stars marking him as thrice a Hero of the Soviet Union, knocked out 59 German

GUARDS OFFICERS. Colonel Alexander Pokryshkin (left) and Major Ivan Kozhedub were top Soviet air aces during the war. Each is thrice a Hero of the Soviet Union.

aircraft during six hundred operational flights.

We may well recall the words of the great Russian patriot and democrat, Belinsky: "Every people has its history, and in its history critical times, which show the strength and the greatness of the spirit of the people; and the greater the people, the greater naturally will be the merits of its history, the more remarkable the tragic greatness of the critical days when it emerges from the crisis with honor and victory."

In the crucial days when the fate of the country hung in the balance, the Soviet Union, its people and its Army rose before the eyes of the world as an army of unequaled heroism, stubbornness and military might.

Throughout the history of wars man has known nothing to compare with the events of the Great Patriotic War. In studying and estimating the part of the soldier in battles, historians generally look for an analogy in the physical and moral qualities of the man in past wars. The Great Patriotic War showed that the old means for estimating the physical and moral qualities of soldiers cannot evaluate the heroism displayed by the Soviet Army, and especially by her units of the Guards on the battlefields.

The enemies of the Soviet peoples and of all progressive mankind—the Hitlerites—feared the Soviet Guards. Their hatred they expressed in their fury. Wounded Soviet Guardsmen captured in action were subjected to terrible torture. The fascist scoundrels crucified Guardsman Yuri Smirnov, and slashed his chest and back with a knife.

In the face of this torture, Yuri Smirnov refused to betray military secrets. The brave Guardsman was posthumously awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

The Guards which have reared such soldiers are invincible.

Where then is the source of the incomparable courage of the Guardsmen? How is one to explain their fine victories? The answer to the question lies in the unbounded loyalty of the Guardsmen to their people and their country, and in their masterly fighting qualities. The age-long struggle of the Russian people for their independence, the heroic past of the Russian people and their Army is the source of the bravery and heroism of the Soviet Guardsmen.

MEMORIAL UNVEILED. Monument to General Vatutin at Kiev.

A General of the Guards

By Emile Braginsky

A MEMORIAL to Army-General Vatutin, who was in command of the First Ukrainian Front, and died a heroic death, was recently unveiled in Kiev, the capital of the Soviet Ukraine. It was designed by the well-known Soviet sculptor, Eugene Vuchetich, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Arts and Stalin Prizewinner, and the architect Yakov Belopolsky.

General Vatutin, who died on April 14, 1944, was mourned throughout the Soviet Union as one of the ablest young Generals of the Army. His loss was particularly felt by the people of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. The liberation of the towns of Belgorod, Kharkov, Akhtyrka, Sumy, Lebedin, Bogodukhov, Lokhvitsa, Piryatin, Lubny, Mirgorod, Romodan and Pereyaslav-Khmelnitsky, as well as the heroic operation which forced the Dnieper south of Kiev, and the liberation of that city, are closely associated with the name of General Vatutin.

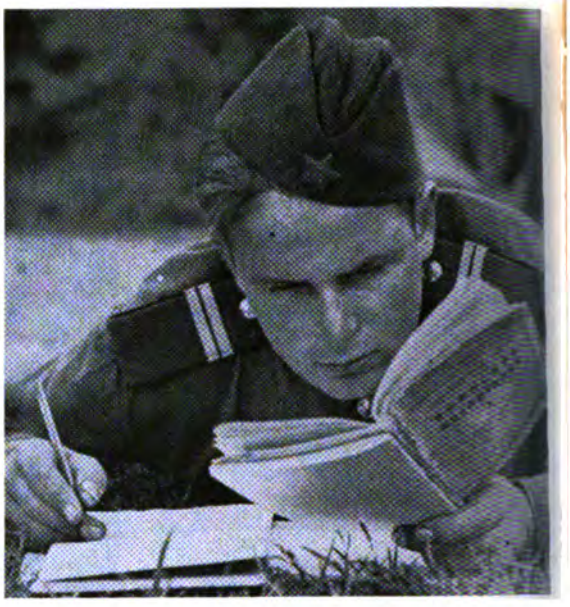
As commander of the troops of the Southwestern Front, he carried out, on November 19, 1942, the brillant breakthrough of the German defense northwest of Stalingrad, and directed the vigorous offensive from Serafimovich, in the Kletskya area to the south. On November 23, Vatutin's troops joined forces with the troops of the Stalingrad Front and closed the ring around the Germans' Stalingrad group.

General Vatutin was born into the family of a peasant living near Kursk in 1901, and rose from this humble beginning to his position of military eminence. His military career began in 1920.

A gallant disciple of Stalin, one of the most talented young leaders of troops, a faithful son of the Bolshevik Party and one of the finest of Army Commanders, General Vatutin was well known not only to the Soviet people but far beyond the borders of the Soviet Union.

ON these pages are pictures of men of the Soviet Armed Forces on parade, at work and at leisure, and engaged in the many recreational and cultural activities which are a part of Soviet military life.

As defenders of the Workers' and Peasants' State against the several invasions of foreign foes, the Soviet Armed Forces are loved and honored by the people of the USSR. To the Army and Navy, with their superb morale and fighting qualities, the Soviet people owe the preservation of their socialist way of life, of the gains of the past 30 years, of the opportunity to build their economy and their standard of living ever higher.



STUDY. A junior sergeant works on an assignment.

CAPTURED BANNERS. Soviet Army units reverse, in token of Germany's defeat, the captured colors of the Nazi armies At the Victory Parade in Moscow, June, 1945.

ARMY JOURNALISTS. Two Soviet privates preparing their unit's wall newspaper.

RMY CAMP. Soldiers of a Guards unit in summer camp.

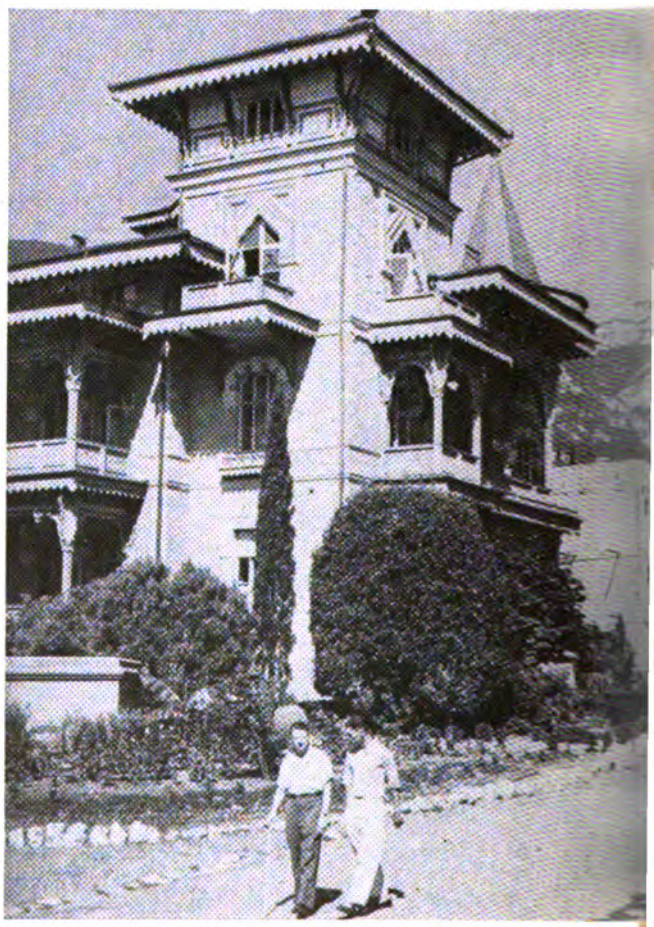
CADETS. Students of the Naval Academy fall in before a parade begins.

ABOARD A CRUISER. Two Army men visit the Navy cruiser "Molotov" of the Soviet Navy's Black Sea Fleet.

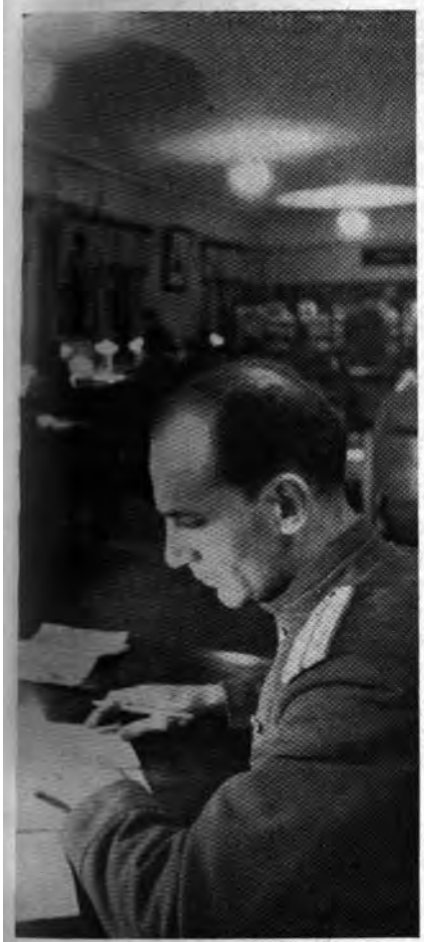
SONG AND DANCE ENSEMBLE. Part of the world-famous Alexandrov Ensemble of the Soviet Army. The dance is a Cossack one.

Army Recreation And Culture

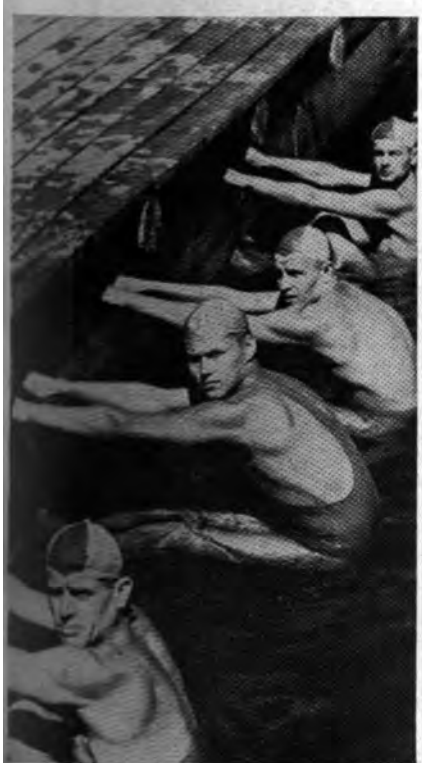
ARMY PLAY. A dramatic group performs on the stage of an Army clubhouse.



SANATORIUM. The Army has many sanatoriums and re homes. This one is on the Crimean coast.



IN MOSCOW. Reading room of the Central House of the Soviet Army.



SPORT. An Army swimming team training for a meet.

RECREATION. Army men and their guests enjoy an evening at the Central House of the Soviet Army.

The Role of Soviet Artillery

Condensed from an Article by Chief Marshal of Artillery N. Voronov

The splendid Soviet Army artillery, which was used with such tremendous effect against the Nazi armies during the Second World War, has been sometimes called the Soviet "God of War." In this article, Chief Marshal Voronov traces the feats and the history of this branch of military science in the Soviet Army and in pre-Revolutionary Russia.

On the eve of the Revolution, tsarist Russia had approximately 14 thousand guns. But few fell into the hands of the people, who had risen up in arms. Most of them were seized by the Whiteguards and by the German interventionists in 1918.

But the Red Guardsmen picked up what gun parts they could find and, despite difficulty of the task, assembled and used them effectively. Later, hundreds of guns were captured in battle from the enemies of the Revolution.

By the spring of 1919 the revolutionary armed forces had more than 1,600 guns. But skilled men were scarce to handle even this limited number of guns.

But our young artillery officers soon learned to fight in the Suvorov* way, not with numbers but with skill. And they got the better of all: Yudenich, Denikin, Wrangel, Kolchak, the German, Japanese, British, American, French and Greek interventionists.

During this bitter struggle our undaunted artillerymen devised new battle tactics. This new art of artillery warfare was developed by Stalin. It was he who, forming a powerful artillery group, at the crucial moment in the defense of Tsaritsin took the enemy by surprise. This principle of Stalin's, of surprising the enemy with massed artillery fire on the decisive sector at the crucial hour, which must be faultlessly determined, is now the rule in the Soviet Army.

Tsaritsin in the Civil War, Stalingrad in the Second World War, was the place where Soviet artillery was destined twice to display its superiority in crucial battle. It is an historic coincidence which reflects the heroic spirit of the Stalin epoch.

The incessant cannonade of the guns and mortars at Stalingrad, the pounding of tanks, the machine guns and tommy-guns, did not form an episodic clash. It was a battle which decided the outcome of the war.

Soviet troops assumed the offensive on November 19, 1942. On that day our "God of War" broke into action: on the vital sectors there were as many as three hundred guns and mortars to every kilometer of the front. The sweeping barrage quickly cleared a way for our tanks, infantry and cavalry.

One must witness the concentrated action of the Soviet artillery to imagine its colossal power. More than 146 thousand German dead were buried after the Battle of Stalingrad.

Skill is necessary in battle! The Soviet Army's Berlin triumph is illustrative of this. The plan of the Soviet Supreme Command provided for a crushing attack against a strongly fortified area and the encircling of 45 enemy divisions.

General Weidling, Commander-in-Chief of the Berlin defense zone, threw everything he had into the battle—thousands of guns and tanks, jet planes, mortars, cadets, students of military

(Continued on page 116)

* Alexander Suvorov (1730-1800), one of the greatest Russian military strategists.

ARTILLERY. These self-propelled guns bear on their barrels the artillerymen's record of their victories.

The Position of the Soviet Delegation In the Far Eastern Commission

The following is the text of a statement by Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, issued February 19, 1948 in his capacity as the Representative of the USSR to the Far Eastern Commission, on: "The Position of the Soviet Delegation to the Far Eastern Commission on Some Matters Discussed Recently by the Far Eastern Commission."

RECENTLY, a number of articles concerning the work of the Far Eastern Commission have appeared in the press of the United States.

It is characteristic of these articles that they have incorrectly covered the questions under consideration by the Far Eastern Commission, and that it is particularly the position of the Soviet Delegation that has been presented in the most tendentious and distorted light.

I refer to reports of the discussion by the Far Eastern Commission of the questions set forth in paragraphs 2, 6 and 9 of the FEC draft paper:

"Prohibition of Military Activity in Japan and Disposition of Japanese Military Equipment (FEC-017/17).

In order that the public may be correctly informed on the progress of discussions of these questions by the Far Eastern Commission, the Soviet Delegation states that its position on these questions is as follows:

1. The wording of paragraph 2 in the draft paper, FEC-017/17, was formulated as follows:

"Possession of arms, ammunition and implements of war by any Japanese should be prohibited save that the Supreme Commander may authorize the use:

a. by Japanese civil agencies, for the purpose of maintaining law and order, of rifles and pistols and the necessary ammunition for them and other small arms exclusively used by civil police."

In view of the fact that the term "and other small arms" is rather general and could be interpreted in different ways, the Delegation of the Soviet Union proposed that this term be clarified.

For this purpose the Soviet Delegation suggested that the following be added to paragraph 2*a*:

"In this case the term 'small arms' is understood as arms of non-group use and non-fragmentation or mass effect, carried and used by a single person."

The course of the discussion showed that members of the Far Eastern Commission did not agree to accept this addition proposed by the Soviet Delegation.

In order not to delay the adoption of the whole document, FEC-017/17, the Soviet Delegation subsequently did not insist on the above-mentioned amendment, proposing to attach to the document the following text of its statement:

"The Soviet Delegation understands the term 'and other small arms' in paragraph 2*a* to mean arms of non-group use and non-fragmentation or mass effect, carried and used by a single person."

2. The wording of paragraph 6 in the draft paper was formulated as follows:

"Military equipment seized from the former Japanese armed forces or from members of the Japanese civil populace should after examination be destroyed or scrapped . . ."

The Soviet Delegation, proceeding from the necessity of adopting a precise and clear wording of this paragraph, insisted on the deletion from the above-quoted text of the words "after examination."

However, in view of the fact that some members of the Far Eastern Commission opposed this Soviet proposal, the Soviet Delegation submitted for the consideration of the Far Eastern Commission another amendment in which a six-month period was provided for the destruction of the Japanese military equipment from date of the adoption of this decision.

As was shown in the course of discussion, this amendment of the Soviet Delegation also was not accepted by the Far Eastern Commission. At the meeting on February 5, 1948, the Soviet Delegation again raised the question of deleting from paragraph 6 the words "after examination."

The Soviet Delegation insisted on the deletion of the words "after examination" because more than two years have already passed since the day of the Japanese surrender. According to the opinion of the majority of the FEC members, this period had been sufficient to complete the examination, to destroy and scrap the military equipment seized from former Japanese armed forces as well as from the Japanese civil populace.

Five FEC members voted for this proposal of the Soviet Delegation, three members voted against and three members abstained. Thus, the voting in the FEC showed that the majority shared the Soviet Delegation's point of view on this question.

3. Paragraph 9—on the "destruction of records of military registration of demobilized personnel."

The draft of this paragraph was worded as follows:

"All records of military registration of demobilized personnel from the Army, Navy, Air Forces, gendarmerie and secret police should be confiscated and transferred to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers for subsequent destruction. No further records of this nature should be compiled or maintained by the Japanese."

The Soviet Delegation proposed that the following be added at the end of the first sentence of this paragraph:

". . . within a three to six month period after the adoption by the FEC of this document."

The Soviet Delegation insisted on the adoption of this additional wording for the reason that the demobilization of the former Japanese Army had already been completed and there was no more necessity of keeping such records.

However, in the course of the discussion it became apparent that this amendment of the Soviet Delegation was not acceptable to the other members of the Far Eastern Commission, and the Soviet Delegation, unwilling to delay the adoption of the document on disarmament as a whole, did not

press for its addition to paragraph 9.

4. As is already known from the report by the Associated Press published in the press of the United States on February 12, the Soviet Delegation during the voting on the document *Prohibition of Military Activity in Japan and Disposition of Japanese Military Equipment,* abstained from voting.

The motives of the Soviet Delegation's abstention from voting are set forth in the following statement made by the USSR Representative at the FEC Meeting of February 12:

"Document FEC-017/17, *Prohibition of Military Activity in Japan and Disposition of Japanese Military Equipment,* is of essential importance in the matter of carrying out the demilitarization of Japan. Proceeding from this, the Soviet Delegation during the discussion studied most carefully each paragraph of FEC-017/17 and submitted a number of amendments which improved and clarified provision of this document. It is regretted that the Soviet Delegation's amendments to paragraphs 2, 6, 9, 10 and 13 have not been accepted by the other members of the Commission. As before, the Soviet Delegation considers these amendments very important and reserves the right to return to their consideration again at an appropriate time. However, in order not to prevent the adoption of Document FEC-017/17 the Soviet Delegation will abstain from voting."

Since the purpose of this sta'ement is to give a true picture of only those questions which appeared in the press in distorted form, the Soviet Delegation will not touch on an account of its position on paragraphs 10 and 13, mentioned in the above statement.

5. The Soviet Delegation considers it also necessary to inform the public of the Soviet Delegation's position on the question of the application of Pakistan for membership in the Far Eastern Commission, since this question has also been incorrectly presented in the press.

As is known, Pakistan applied for membership in the Far Eastern Commission. In the course of the discussion of this question at the meeting of the Far Eastern Commission, the United States Representative stated that in the opinion of the United States Government, according to the Terms of Reference of the Far Eastern Commission, admission to membership might be effected by agreement between governments, but such agreement might be attained either through normal channels or by means of communicating appropriate instructions to their representatives on the Far Eastern Commission. The Representative of China raised a general question as to the jurisdiction of the Far Eastern Commission to decide upon the admission of additional members. The Representative of the Netherlands stated that, in his opinion, the consideration of the question of the admission of Pakistan to membership in the Far Eastern Commission, even if the governments should communicate instructions to their representatives, was improper, since, according to paragraph 5 of the Terms of Reference of the Far Eastern Commission, the question of admission of new members should be decided upon by agreement of the appropriate governments, and that he did not consider it possible to discuss the question of admission of Pakistan to membership of the Far Eastern Commision.

In view of the difference of opinions on this question on the part of the Far Eastern Commission's members, the Soviet Representative suggested that the question be not considered at that meeting, in order to give representatives opportunity to ask the views of their governments on Pakistan's application, and after that to decide whether the application of Pakistan should be put on the agenda of the Commission.

This proposal of the Soviet representative was adopted by the Far Eastern Commission unanimously.

It is clear from the above that the reports which have recently appeared in the press incorrectly expound the course of discussion of certain questions in the Far Eastern Commission, and in particular show in a wrong light the position of the Soviet Delegation on a number of questions, which have been mentioned above.

It is natural that such reports, willingly or unwillingly, mislead public opinion. It goes without saying that such reports in no case could contribute to the normal course of the work of the Far Eastern Commission.

Artillery

(Continued from page 114)

colleges, mechanized SS detachments. Asked what he thought of the work of the Soviet artillery, General Weidling, who was himself an artilleryman, replied to his captors:

"It was more than any human being could bear."

In many cases in the past, Russian artillery has proved far superior to that of other countries.

The first cannon in Russia appeared in the reign of Dmitri Donskoi, about 1389. Moscow gunsmiths then made their pieces from iron tubes.

In 1621, Onisim Mikhailov, founder of the Russian science of artillery, described the method of filling projectiles with gunpowder and metal balls, though this innovation is also claimed for nineteenth - century inventors abroad.

Ivan the Terrible introduced regimental artillery half a century ahead of the Swedish armies, who next used it. The howitzer, devised by Count Shuvalov, who called these guns "unicorns," was used for the first time in the history of wars when Russian troops used them in the battle of Kunersdorf in 1759, and again in the siege of Berlin in 1760, when the city capitulated.

A new epoch in gun design began during the second half of the last century, when rifled steel barrels and convenient gun carriages came into general use. Russian scientists and designers again originated much of the theoretical basis and practical design for these improvements, though their work and its results were placed by the tsarist ministers at the service of foreign firms, particularly that of Krupp.

Soviet designers and scientists have continued the Russian tradition of excellence in the field of gun design and artillery design in general. The achievements of Soviet artillery are the best illustration of this.

Stalin's wise prophecy as to the part artillery would play in war, his constant concern for the development of Soviet artillery, decided the outcome of the struggle in our favor. That is how the Soviet artillery came to be the "God of War," the chief striking force of the Soviet Army.

Text of CPSU Decision on Music

The decision of February 10, 1948, of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union on the opera "The Great Friendship," by V. Muradeli.

THE Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union considers that the opera *The Great Friendship* (Music by Vano Muradeli, Libretto by G. Mdivani) produced at the Bolshoi Theatre of the USSR on the Thirtieth Anniversary of the October Revolution is a vicious, inartistic composition both from the standpoint of the music and the subject matter.

The principal shortcomings of the opera lie first of all in the music. The music of this opera is feeble and inexpressive. It does not contain a single memorable melody or aria. It is confused and disharmonious, built on a series of dissonances, on combinations of sound that grate upon the ear. Some lines and scenes with pretensions to melodiousness are suddenly interrupted by discordant noises wholly foreign to the normal hearing and having an oppressive effect on the listeners. No organic connection exists between the musical accompaniment and the development of the action on the stage. The vocal part, the choral, solo and ensemble singing produce a mean impression. As a result of all this, the potentialities of the orchestra and the singers remain unused.

The composer has not employed to advantage the wealth of folk melodies, songs, refrains, dance and folk dance motifs which abound in the creative art of the peoples of the USSR, including those of the peoples of the North Caucasus where the action of the opera is laid.

In the pursuit of a false "originality" in music, the composer, Muradeli, has neglected the best traditions and experience of the classic opera in general and in particular of Russian classic opera, which is distinguished by inner content, richness of melody and breadth of diapason, popularity of character, grace, beauty and clarity of musical form. These characteristics have made Russian opera the best in the world, a musical genre loved by and comprehensible to wide strata of the people.

The plot of the opera, which claims to represent the struggle for the establishment of Soviet power and the friendship of the peoples in the North Caucasus in 1918—1920 is historically false and artificial. The opera creates the false impression that Caucasian peoples, such as the Georgians and Ossetians, were at that time in a state of enmity with the Russian people. This is historically false, since the hinderers of the establishment of friendship among the peoples in the North Caucasus at that time were the Ingushi and Chechen.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union considers that the failure of Muradeli's opera is the result of the formalistic path he has followed, false and detrimental to the creative work of the Soviet composer.

As was shown at the conference of Soviet musicians conducted by the Central Committee of the CPSU, the failure of Muradeli's opera is not an isolated instance but is closely connected with the unsatisfactory state of contemporary Soviet music, with the spread of the formalistic trend among Soviet composers.

As far back as 1936, in connection with the appearance of Dmitri Shostakovich's opera *Lady Macbeth of Mzensk*, the organ of the Central Committee of the CPSU, *Pravda*, subjected to pointed criticism the anti-popular formalistic distortions in his music and exposed the harm and danger of this trend for the future development of Soviet music. *Pravda*, writing at the instance of the Central Committee of the CPSU, formulated clearly the Soviet people's requirements of their composers.

Notwithstanding these warnings, and despite the lines indicated by the Central Committee of the CPSU in its decisions on the magazines *Zvezda* and *Leningrad* and on the film, *The Large Life*, on the repertoire of the dramatic theaters and the measures to improve it, no reorganization took place in Soviet music. The successes of some Soviet composers in the composition of new songs that found recognition and became widespread among the people, and in the composition of music for the cinema, etc., does not change the general picture of the situation.

The position is particularly bad in the field of symphonic and operatic music. The question now concerns composers who follow the formalistic antipopular trend. This found its fullest expression in the work of composers such as Dmitri Shostakovich, Sergei Prokofieff, Aram Khachaturian, Vissarion Shebalin, G. Popov, N. Myaskovsky and others whose compositions represent most strikingly the formalistic distortions and anti-democratic tendencies in music which are alien to the Soviet people and their artistic tastes.

The characteristics of this music are the negation of the basic principles of classic music; the cult of atonality, dissonance and discord supposedly expressive of "progress" and "novelty" in the development of musical form; the renunciation of vital principles of musical composition such as melody; interest in confused, neuropathological combinations that turn music into cacophony, into a chaotic conglomeration of sounds.

This music has a distinct flavor of the contemporary, modernistic, bourgeois music of Europe and America, reflecting the decay of bourgeois culture, the total negation of musical art, its impasse.

An essential sign of the formalistic trend is also the rejection of polyphonic music and singing based upon the simultaneous arrangement and development of a series of independent melodic lines and by interest in monotonous unisonic music and singing, often wordless, which is in itself a transgression against the many-voiced system of music and singing typical of our people, and which leads to the impoverishment and decadence of music.

Despising the best traditions of Russian and Western classical music, rejecting these traditions as supposedly "obsolete," "old-fashioned," and "conservative," regarding with supercilious contempt the composers who strive conscientiously to assimilate and develop the methods of classicial music as adherents of "primitive traditionalism" and of "epigonism," many Soviet composers, in the pursuit of wrongly understood innovations, have diverged

in their compositions from the needs and artistic taste of the Soviet people, retired into the narrow circle of experts and musical gourmands, lowered the high social role of music and narrowed its significance, limiting it to the satisfaction of the perverted tastes of would-be esthetic individualists.

The formalistic trend in Soviet music has bred in a section of Soviet composers a one-sided interest in complex forms of instrumental symphonic music dissociated from the text and a contemptuous attitude to such musical genres as opera, choral music, popular music for small orchestras, for national instruments, vocal ensembles, etc. All this inevitably leads to the sacrificing of the principles of vocal culture and dramatic artistry and to the end that composers will forget how to write for the people, evidence of which is seen in the fact that not a single Soviet opera up to the level of the Russian classics has been written in recent times.

Some Soviet composers are so aloof from the people that an unsound "theory" has arisen among them which interprets the fact that music by many Soviet composers remains incomprehensible to the people, as evidence that the people are not yet sufficiently "mature" to understand their subtle music; that they will only be able to understand it centuries hence and that it is not worthwhile worrying if some compositions fail to appeal to listeners. This thoroughly individualistic, fundamentally anti-popular theory was responsible for some composers and musical critics keeping still further aloof from the people, from the criticism of the Soviet public, and retiring into their shells.

The cultivation of these and similar views inflicts the greatest harm on Soviet musical art. A tolerant attitude to such views indicates the presence among representatives of Soviet musical culture of tendencies alien to it, leading to a blind alley in the development of music, to the end of musical art.

The harmful anti-popular formalistic trend in Soviet music has a detrimental effect too on the training and education of young composers in our conservatories and primarily in the Moscow Conservatory (the Director of which is V. Shebalin) where the formalistic trend is predominant. Respect for the best traditions of Russian and Western musical classics is not inculcated; love for the people's creative art, for democratic musical forms is not fostered. The work of many of the students of the conservatories is a blind imitation of the music of Shostakovich, Prokofieff and others.

The Central Committee of the CPSU finds the state of Soviet musical criticism utterly intolerable. The opponents of Russian realistic music, the adherents of a decadent, formalistic music occupy a leading position among the critics. Each new composition by Prokofieff, Shostakovich, Myaskovsky, Shebalin is pronounced by these critics to be a "new achievement in Soviet music," and they glorify its subjectivism, constructivism, extreme individualism, professional complexity of language; that is, precisely all that should be subjected to criticism. Instead of refuting harmful views and theories alien to the principles of socialist realism, music critics assist in their spread by praising and calling "advanced" those composers who in their work share their own erroneous creative ideas.

Musical criticism has ceased to express the view of Soviet society, the views of the people, and has become the mouthpiece of certain composers. Some music critics, instead of giving objective criticism based on principles, have taken to flattering and fawning because of being on friendly terms with various "leading lights" of music and praise their compositions up to the skies.

All this means that among a certain section of Soviet composers, remains of bourgeois ideology are not yet outlived but are nourished on contemporary, decadent Western European and American music.

THE Central Committee of the CPSU considers that this unfavorable situation in the field of Soviet music arose as a result of that wrong line in Soviet music conducted by the Committee on Arts of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Organizational Committee of the Soviet Composers' Union.

The Committee on Arts of the Council of Ministers of the USSR (of which Khrapchenko is chairman) and the Organizational Committee of the Soviet Composers Union (headed by Khachaturian), instead of developing in Soviet music the realistic trend, the foundations of which are the recognition of the immense progressive role taken by the classic heritage, in particular the traditions of the Russian musical school; the proper use of this heritage and its further development; the combination in music of high content with artistic perfection of musical form; the truth and realistic quality of music, its deep-lying organic connection with the people and their musical and vocal creative art, the high level of professional artistry and at the same time the simplicity and comprehensibility of musical works; instead of this, what they actually did was to encourage a formalistic trend alien to the Soviet people.

The Organizational Committee of the Soviet Composers' Union has become an instrument for a group of composers of the formalistic school, has become the main hotbed of formalistic perversions. There is a damp and mildewish atmosphere about the Organizational Committee; creative discussion is absent.

The heads of this committee and the musicians grouped around them sing the praises of anti-realistic, modernistic compositions undeserving of support, while work that is distinguished by a realistic character, by an effort to continue and to develop the classic heritage, is declared to be second-rate, remains unnoticed and ill-treated. The composers who pride themselves on their spirit as "innovators" and "arch revolutionaries" in music conduct their activities in the Organizational Committee like protagonists of the most backward and mouldy conservatism, showing a supercilious intolerance of the slightest suggestion of criticism.

The Central Committee of the CPSU considers that this situation and an attitude toward the tasks of Soviet music such as are found in the Committee on Arts of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and in the Organizational Committee of the Soviet Composers' Union cannot be tolerated further, inasmuch as they do the utmost harm to the development of Soviet music. During the past few years, the cultural demands and the level of artistic taste of the Soviet people have risen immensely. The Soviet people expect from composers music of high quality and idea content in all genres, in opera, in symphonic music, in song writing, in choral and dance music. In

What Do the Soviet People Require of Us?

By Aram Khachaturian

SOVIET composers were deeply stirred by the decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union on Vano Muradeli's opera, *The Great Friendship*. This timely and very just decision, which expresses the ideas of the Soviet people as a whole, points to the spread of anti-popular, formalistic trends among a certain section of Soviet composers.

I have always considered, and still believe, that music without melody is inacceptable to me. Melody is the foundation of musical composition.

Yet, notwithstanding the fact that I held such a correct and incontrovertible position, I wrote a formalistic composition, my *Symphony Poem*.

The roads to formalism are many. The one which I took led through overemphasis on the technical side, and the ignoring of the naturalness of musical sounds. I endeavored by artificial means to unite simultaneously the eleven-voiced sound of the wind instruments with the voice of an instrument such as the organ.

The attraction which the outward form of sound had for me was detrimental to the expressiveness, clarity and comprehensibility of my music, and its quality suffered. I went to an extreme, and the result was an unnecessary conglomeration of sounds.

As is well known, art can develop successfully only on the basis of the enrichment and flourishing of national elements, and not on their obliteration. The whole history of music speaks of this. It is precisely because of it that the works of the great composers of the past have been brought within reach of all mankind. This may be plainly seen in the example of Russian music; Russian composers created a classic school of music, which, vividly national as it was in character, acquired world-wide fame, and had a great influence on the work of composers in the West.

Instead of developing the realistic trend in my music, and upholding the tradition of Russian music, which is of a popular nature and combines high content, clearness and truth with artistic perfection of musical form, in my most recent composition, the *Symphony Poem*, I followed a formalistic path alien to the Soviet artist.

I have seen an article entitled *Aram Khachaturian, Soviet Composer*, by G. Lvov,* which recently appeared in the Bulletin published by the Soviet Embassy in Washington. This article, which expressed the personal tastes and impressions of the journalist Lvov, contained statements about my compositions with which I cannot agree.

When the article was written, Lvov had not heard—he could not have heard—the performance of my latest work, the *Symphony Poem*, as it was not yet finished. I cannot agree with the overenthusiastic dithyrambic tone of Lvov's article. Praise of this kind, bestowed by certain critics on many works by our composers, has failed to stimulate the development of Soviet music, and has led to contrary results. This is sufficiently, clearly, and justly pointed out in the decision of the Central Committee of the CPSU.

I know that there are some abroad who are attempting to present this decision as a document evidencing a species of "purge" among the composers of the USSR. Such an assertion could come only from those who do not wish or who are unable to understand what is going on in the Soviet Union.

How can there be any question of "purging" when the Central Committee of the CPSU, while pointing out very justly the errors into which a number of Soviet composers have fallen, indicates the path which should lead Soviet musical culture to the creation of work of really high quality and finish, such as may be comprehensible to all people, and also offers full opportunity to the composers named in the decision to participate in this work?

Let us see what this path is.

It is, first and foremost, the acknowledgment of the immense progressive role of the classic heritage. It is rejection of the blind imitation of composers who convert music into cacophony, into a chaotic conglomeration of sounds. It is the endeavor to write music as clearly, truthfully and expressively as it was written by the great Tchaikovsky and Beethoven, Glinka and Verdi, Moussorgsky and Bizet. It means filling music with the high truth of contemporaneity and the noble ideals of the Soviet people. To serve the people is the lofty aim and calling of each progressive artist.

Realizing to the full the mistakes censured by the people, I have a passionate desire to create music which will be understood and will appeal to the hearts of the widest of all audiences—the masses.

I hope that my future work will be evidence that I have rightly understood the beneficial criticism of my great people.

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our country, composers have unlimited creative scope and also conditions are provided so that musical culture may truly flourish.

Soviet composers have an audience such as no composer of the past has ever known. It would be unforgivable not to make use of all these rich possibilities and not to direct all creative efforts along the proper realistic path.

The Central Committee of the CPSU resolves:

1. To condemn the formalistic trend in Soviet music as anti-popular and as leading actually to the destruction of music.

2. To propose to the Administration of Propaganda and Agitation of the Central Committee and the Committee on Arts that they secure the correction of the situation in Soviet music, the liquidation of the shortcomings indicated in the present decision of the Central Committee and that they ensure the development of Soviet music in the direction of realism.

3. To call Soviet composers to the realization of the high demands made upon musical composition by the Soviet people and a clearing away of all that weakens our music and hinders its development; to ensure such an impetus of creative work as will advance Soviet musical culture rapidly and will lead to the creation in every field of music of finished works of high quality, worthy of the Soviet people.

4. To approve the organizational measures of corresponding Party and Soviet organs directed toward the improvement of musical affairs.

* *USSR Information Bulletin*, Feb. 11, 1948, pp. 96-97.

Principles of Trade in the USSR

By S. Gurovich, M. A.
Assistant Professor of Economics

THE USSR is the world's only country in which during the postwar period the problem of consumption is being successfully solved in the interests of all the people. In accordance with the provisions of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the Soviet Union has carried through a currency reform and has abolished rationing. A greater assortment of food and consumers' goods is available for sale in unlimited quantities and at reduced prices. A large number of new shops, restaurants, dining halls and cafes have been opened in all parts of the country.

The basic features of Soviet trade are as follows:

Wholesale and retail trade is conducted on a large scale in the USSR, as in all other countries. The retail distributors include a large number of department stores, special, general purpose and other shops, stalls, counters, etc. Furthermore, in all the Soviet towns and industrial settlements there are markets where the peasants sell their surplus produce.

Although at first glance it may not seem so, trade in the USSR differs fundamentally from that in the capitalist countries. There is no private capitalist trade in the USSR. In the hands of the Soviet State, trade is a powerful instrument for improving the living standards of the people, to whose interests it is completely subordinated.

Soviet trade is trade of a special kind. It is possible only in a socialist society, under conditions of socialist production, when the basic means of production are either state, i.e. public property, or the property of co-operative societies and collective farms.

Trade is a large branch of the Soviet national economy. Its channels take two main forms: the organized and the unorganized markets. The organized market, in turn, consists of state and co-operative trading networks; while the unorganized market consists of collective farm markets.

CLOTHING STORE. A customer inspects knitted blouses.

The largest volume of trade is done by the state organizations, which maintain an enormous chain of wholesale establishments, stores, shops and so on. State retail trade caters mainly to the population of the cities and industrial settlements.

The economic relations between the state producing organizations and enterprises and the state trading organizations and enterprises are regulated by contracts and annual agreements which stipulate the mutual obligations of the producers and distributors.

Co-operative trade is conducted by the consumers' and producers' co-operatives.

The consumers' co-operatives have been catering almost entirely to the rural population, but since the end of 1946 they have been selling on a fairly large scale also in the cities and industrial settlements. The Soviet consumers' co-operatives are among the largest mass organizations in the USSR—they are voluntary public organizations based on broad democratic principles. The basic unit of the co-operatives is the society, the activities of which are governed by rules adopted at a general membership meeting. The funds of the society are derived from the initiation fees and shares paid by the members in installments. Its capital is subsequently increased through successful economic activities. To increase its working capital the co-operative may borrow from the State Bank of the USSR, which grants short-term credits at a small rate of interest.

The Soviet State does everything possible to facilitate the development of the consumers' co-operatives and encourages "competition" between the state and co-operative trading enterprises, inasmuch as it helps to improve the service.

The consumers' co-operatives purchase the necessary commodities from industry, and agricultural products from the collective farms and collective farmers. In addition to these, the

co-operatives themselves produce a fairly varied assortment of commodities designed mainly to satisfy the demand of the peasantry. The co-operatives maintain thousands of small enterprises for this purpose.

A fairly large trading network is also maintained by the producers' co-operatives. Several million working people are engaged in the numerous co-operative shops producing mainly consumers' goods. The means of production are collectively owned.

The producers' co-operatives sell their products wholesale to various trading organizations, or distribute them through their own stores.

The antagonism and tendency on the part of the strong to crush the weak which is characteristic of capitalism does not exist in the Soviet State. Quite the contrary is the case: the Soviet State assists in the development of the industrial co-operatives by providing equipment, raw materials, credits, etc. This is explained by the existence of a planned socialist economy which allocates a proper place to each economic factor and regulates the development of the national economy as a whole in the interests of all the people.

The activities of state and cooperative trade are planned by the State. Each state or co-operative trading enterprise, regardless of the volume of trade done, operates on the basis of a plan which is part of the national trade plan. The trade plan is in its turn an organic part of the general economic plan approved by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and covering a period of five years. On the basis of the general plan, the Council of Ministers of the USSR concretizes the annual trade plans drafted, as is the Five-Year Plan, by the State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, with the cooperation of the Ministry of Trade of the USSR, the Tsentrosoyuz (Central Union of Consumers' Co-operative Societies) and other institutions.

The bulk of the commodities reaches the consumer through the state and cooperative trading network, which constitutes an organized market. An idea of the role played by the organized market may be gleaned from the fact that before the war (1940) the state and cooperative systems accounted for more than 80 per cent of the national volume of retail trade. This, furthermore, indicates the fact that the bulk of the commodities is available to the consumers at prices fixed by the State, or by the co-operative organizations. The prices in the co-operative shops usually correspond to the state prices inasmuch as the state regulates the entire economic life of the country. Thus the state and co-operative prices are in full accord with the Soviet state policy of furthering economic progress and securing a steady improvement in living standards.

CONFECTIONERY. A suburban store on the outskirts of Moscow.

It is perfectly obvious, therefore, that no room exists in the USSR for the spontaneous fluctuation of prices or for speculative boosting of prices by monopolies.

The collective farm market, constituting the unorganized market, is based upon the free sale by farms or individual farmers of surplus produce.

The successful development of agriculture under the prewar Five-Year Plans brought about a marked increase in agricultural production (two, three and more times the former volume). This was a direct result of the establishment of collective farming. Most of the collective farms, collective farmers and individual peasant households have a surplus of marketable produce left after completing state deliveries. They are free to dispose of this surplus at their own discretion. They may sell it to the co-operatives or other clients right in the village, or directly to the consumers on the market.

The growth of trade on the collective farm markets is in the interests of the Soviet State, for it helps to meet all the demands of the population. That is why the State assists in the development of collective farm market trade, building and equipping city markets at its own expense, supplying the necessary transportation and other facilities. The management of the markets is responsible for the sanitation facilities and for the provision of various services for the collective farmers.

The prices on the collective farm markets are not planned, or fixed by the State, but are determined at the given moment, i.e., the seller has the right to name his own price. Unlike the practice prevailing in state and co-operative trade, the market prices are regulated by the law of supply and demand.

This, of course, does not mean that the unorganized market is entirely immune to the influence of the State. Inasmuch as the bulk of the commodities reaches the population through the organized market, i.e., through the channels governed by the state plan, the Soviet State is in a position to exert economic influence upon the prices prevailing on the unorganized market, which under the circumstances unquestionably plays a subordinated role. As production increases, releasing more commodities for sale on the organized market, the Soviet State reduces the prices, and this in turn leads to a drop in prices on the unorganized (collective farm) market.

The forms assumed by Soviet trade necessarily varied somewhat during the Second World War.

Under the prewar Five-Year Plans, the USSR effected a several-fold increase in the production of consumers' goods, and the systematic growth of the incomes of the population brought about a steady increase in their purchasing capacity. This was reflected in the growing volume of Soviet trade. The retail trade done by the state and cooperative organizations increased 4.6 times between 1928 (the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan) and 1941, exceeding 75,000 million rubles in value (in comparative prices).

An extensive chain of trading establishments was set up by that time, and their efficiency was steadily rising. Recognizing that tastes and demands can never be identical, Soviet trade organizations have actively assisted in widening the assortment and in improving the quality of consumers' goods supplied by industry with a view to meeting the growing public demand.

The gains already achieved and his estimate of future prospects led J. V. Stalin to declare, as far back as at the end of the First Five-Year Plan period, that the Soviet worker wants to live so as to have all his material and cultural needs satisfied in respect to food, housing conditions, cultural and all other requirements. "He has a right to this, and it is our duty to secure these conditions for him," stressed J. V. Stalin in his address to the conference of business executives held on June 23, 1931. This brief statement gives a clear idea of the aims of the Soviet State.

It is not difficult to imagine what a scope public consumption and, consequently, the volume of Soviet trade, would have attained had not the peaceful labor of the Soviet people been interrupted by the treacherous invasion of Hitler Germany.

The war necessitated the conversion of the national economy to war production, and the methods of trade had to be changed accordingly. Rationing was introduced. The rations were differentiated so as to ensure the highest level of consumption for workers in the decisive war industries, for expectant and nursing mothers, blood donors, scientists, writers and art workers.

The USSR was the world's only country where the State ensured a normal living standard to the people by retaining the old peacetime prices on the goods rationed during the war.

Nevertheless, the considerable decline in the production of consumers' goods in wartime affected the unorganized market. The disproportion between supply and demand led to a rise in prices on the collective farm market; as compared with the 1940 level, the 1943 farm market prices on vegetables increased 12.6 times and on animal husbandry produce, 13.2 times.

Since 1943, however, as a result of the measures taken by the Soviet State before the end of the war to increase the production of food and consumers' goods, the retail trade of the state and co-operative organizations has been steadily growing. A chain of special stores where the population could buy goods in addition to their rations was opened by the State at the beginning of 1944. These goods were sold at prices (so called "commercial prices") higher than those of the rationed products, but lower than the prices on the collective farm market. The result was an immediate decline in market prices. The commercial prices were lowered twice in the course of 1944, four times in 1945 and twice in 1946. On each occasion prices were, as a result, forced down on the collective farm market, whose resources increased along with the progress in the recovery of agriculture.

SHOES. Shopping in a department store.

The existence of the dual system of retail prices—the high commercial prices in the special stores and the low prices on rationed goods, was a temporary measure.

The postwar Five-Year Plan (1946-1950) calls for the creation of an abundance of prime necessities, for surpassing the prewar national income and prewar volume of public consumption, and for the abolition of rationing.

At the end of 1947, the second year of work under the Five-Year Plan, Soviet large-scale industry regained the prewar level of production ahead of schedule; at the same time the State received approximately as much grain as in the best prewar years, although the cultivated area and technical equipment of agriculture still lagged behind the prewar standards. More than 125 thousand trading en erprises were restored and new ones set up in the USSR during the past two years. All this enabled the Soviet Government to abolish rationing on December 16, 1947 and to replace it by the unlimited sale of goods at uniform state prices. The new prices on manufactured goods are far lower than formerly existing commercial prices in the special stores, whereas the prices on food are equal to the prices charged under the rationing system, and the prices on bread and cereals have been lowered.

In view of the fact that the state and cooperative stores have an abundance of goods, the collective farm market prices, governed by the law of supply and demand, have dropped to the level of the uniform state prices, and are showing a tendency toward further decline.

The immediate tasks of Soviet trade, as provided for in the postwar Five-Year Plan, are: to surpass the prewar volume of state and cooperative retail trade by 28 per cent (in comparative prices), to extend further the state and cooperative trade network in town and countryside, and to develop trade on the collective farm market.

The object of all this is a further improvement in the living standard of the Soviet people. It is perfectly obvious that only under socialism can the trading system prove equal to the solution of such tasks.

Gains of Soviet Light Industry

By Peter Alexandrov

Deputy Minister of Light Industry of the USSR

THE POSTWAR Five-Year Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR calls for the creation of an abundance of the principal consumers' goods in the USSR. The Soviet Union has all the necessary material and technical prerequisites for the achievement of this goal. The heavy industry built up under the Stalin Five-Year Plans has furnished the basis for the reconstruction and progress of light industry, which has developed into an important branch of the national economy with large-scale enterprises equipped with up-to-date machinery of domestic production.

It is pertinent to recall that pre-Revolutionary Russia imported all the machines for the enterprises engaged in the production of consumers' goods. The situation has radically changed. The USSR has built its own machine buildng industry, which supplies the most complex machinery for all branches of light industry in quantities sufficient for its successful development in accordance with the national economic plans.

The national economy of the USSR sustained colossal damage as a result of German occupation, but during the first two years of work under the postwar Five-Year Plan it has done much to restore and further the progress of all branches of industry, including light industry. As a result, industry has successfully fulfilled the plans for the two years.

According to the report on the fulfillment of the State Economic Plan for 1947 published by the State Planning Committee of the USSR, the light and textile industries increased production by 33 per cent over the 1946 volume, whereas the total output of industry in the USSR rose by 22 per cent over 1946. This reflects the tendency of the Soviet State to accelerate the production of consumer goods.

The enterprises of the Ministry of Light Industry completed the annual production program nearly 20 days ahead of schedule, and before the end of the year turned out over and above plan more than two million pairs of shoes, and other goods to the value of tens of millions of rubles.

INSPECTION. Galina Rygalova (right) director of a Moscow Shoe factory, and Boris Ivanov, the factory's chief engineer.

The figures for 1947 show a substantial increase over 1946 in the production of hosiery (59 per cent), knitted underwear (40 per cent), knitted garments and shoes (47 per cent), felt boots (30 per cent), and better quality crockery (58 per cent).

This increase in production was achieved by putting into operation a number of new enterprises and by expanding and rebuilding the existing factories, which are now equipped with the most modern machinery.

Along with the increase in production, the enterprises of light industry effected a considerable improvement in the quality of the products and increased the assortment of garments, knit-goods, shoes, etc.

The output of consumers' goods will be further increased in 1948, in accordance with the provisions of the Five-Year Plan. The enterprises of the Ministry of Light Industry will increase the production of hosiery by 61 per cent and of knitted underwear by 70 per cent over 1947. A considerable increase will also be effected in the production of garments, crockery, haberdashery and other items.

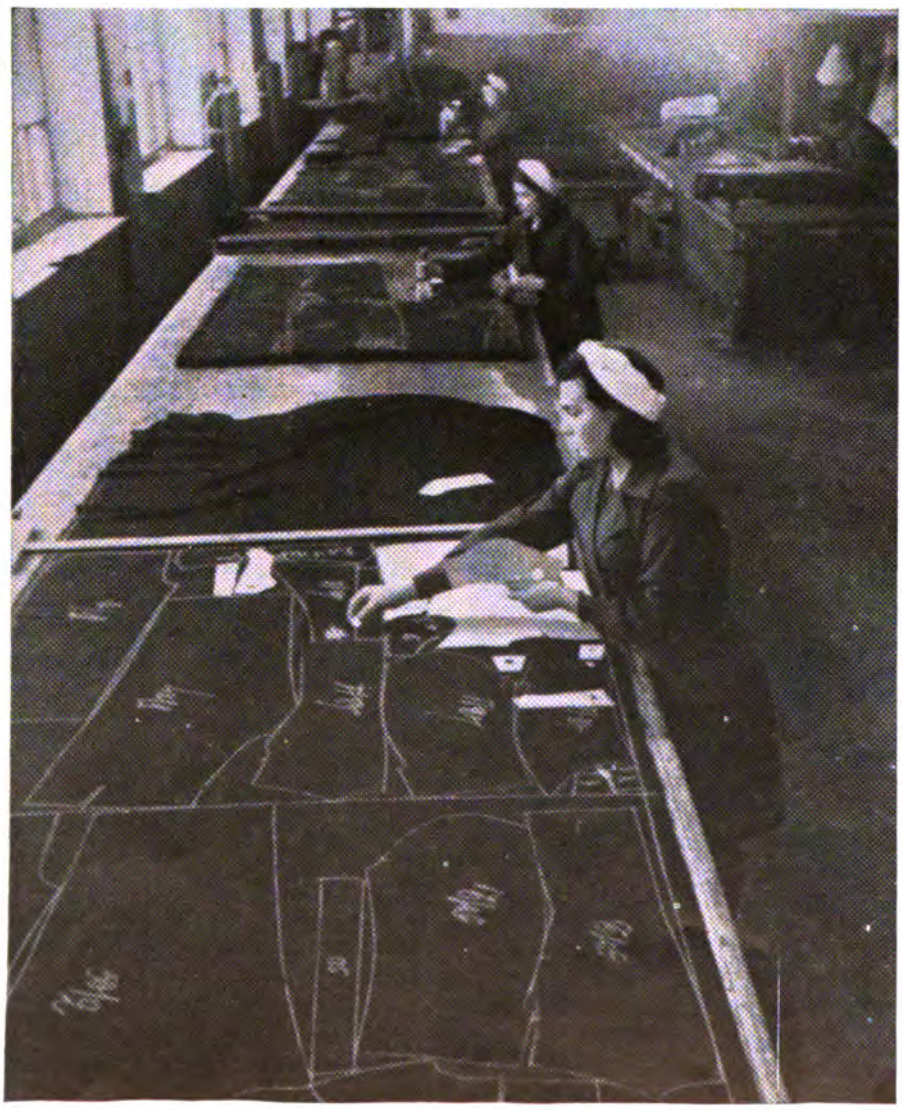
Steps are also being taken to improve the quality and variety of the products. We will produce more clothing and underwear, shoes and knitted garments for children. At least two thousand improved models have been adopted for production in the garments factories.

The Ministry of Light Industry has taken steps to furnish its factories and mills with larger quantities of advanced Soviet equipment. It should be noted that the level of technical equipment in some of the branches of Sovet light industry is far higher than in the most advanced capitalist countries.

A major achievement was the mechanization of the leather industry, by means of new equipment produced by Soviet industry.

Lastly, an important factor in stimulating higher production is the extensive socialist emulation movement. The resulting growth of labor productivity and the steps taken to expand existing production capacities hold promise of the successful completion of the Five-Year Plan for light industry ahead of schedule.

FACTORY. A department of the Dzerzhinsky knitting mills at Ivanteevko, near Moscow.



CUTTING ROOM. Cloth is cut for men's suits at the Fifth Moscow garment-making factory.

MORNING GOWN. A model of embroidered knitted silk fabric.

New Clothing

Great emphasis is being placed in the Soviet Union on increasing the quantity and improving the quality of the output of light industry, and particularly of industry producing clothing and other consumer essentials.

With the recent currency reform and the consequent increase in real wages, and the simultaneous removal of rationing, the buying power of the Soviet public took a sharp upward turn and the demand for consumer goods of all sorts increased.

Soviet light industry, which like the whole national economy operates according to plan, had of course anticipated this and had prepared to serve this increased demand. At the same time, trade facilities had also been expanded in preparation for this circumstance.

The demand for attractive and serviceable clothing is heavy, and the textile and clothing industries have expanded their production

CHILD'S FROCK. A light summer dress on a peasant motif.

And Textiles

and have introduced many new models.

Now from the Soviet textile mills, many of which suffered great damage at the hands of the Nazi invaders and had to be reconstructed after the Germans were driven out, there comes to the retail stores a wide variety of silks, cottons, wools, in rich colors or gay prints.

At the same time, the garment industry has presented a wide variety of new and attractive styles in ready-to-wear clothing for every member of the family.

On these pages are shown some of these new products.

The garments at the right, made of warm knit fabric in bright colors, and the handsome hostess gown (top, left) of embroidered knitted silk, are both products of the Dzerzhinsky knitting mills, whose designers have produced a wide variety of garments which have been very popular.

SUMMER PRINTS. Fabrics from the Ivanovo mills.

CHILDREN'S WEAR. Knitted garments made in large quantities at the Dzerzhinsky mills.

The World's Lowest Rent

Moscow publishers recently issued a book by N. Filatov entitled *Essays on the Economy and Finances of Socialist Housing*. Written for the Soviet reader, the book is, however, undoubtedly also of interest to the foreign reader who wants to know more about the housing policy of the Soviet Government and particularly about rent in the Soviet Union.

In the towns and workers' settlements the majority of the dwellings belong to the State (as represented by local Soviets or by particular state or other public institutions. According to 1941 data, not quite two per cent of the dwelling and other useful floor space in Moscow then belonged to private owners. Almost the whole of the town population in the USSR occupies apartments in state-owned dwellings. Rent is paid in accordance with existing government regulations.

"In the USSR," writes the author, "rent payment is regulated by law in the interests of the working people. Rent is charged in accordance with the quality of the dwelling and the income of the tenant. In the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, for example, the rent charged per square meter of living space varies from 35 to 44 kopecks a month. For higher paid workers it is more, but not more than a maximum of one ruble 32 kopecks per square meter.

In addition, tenants pay a small sum for central heating, water supply and other conveniences. This sum amounts to approximately two-fifths of the rent.

According to the data of the Central Board of Economic Statistics of the State Planning Commission for 1939, rent averaged from 3.34 per cent to 3.84 per cent of the factory and office workers' budget. Even in Moscow it was never more than five per cent. During the war wages went up, but rent remained the same. This means that rent has become even less significant in the budget of the Soviet family.

In other countries, writes N. Filatov, rent takes a much larger part of the earnings of the working people than it does in the USSR. In Norway, for example, it was 20 per cent before the war, in Germany 23.6 per cent, in England 24 per cent and in the United States 28 per cent. This was the average. For low-paid workers it was still higher. After the war ,the landlords stiffened their attack upon the tenants, striving to shift onto their shoulders all the burdens resulting from economic chaos and inflation. This they do with the help of the bourgeois governments. Thus, in France a new rise in rent (which was already very high) was legalized by the Government.

The author points out that in the USSR the low rent enables every worker, regardless of his earnings, to occupy a comfortable apartment. This makes the so-called "Schwab law" inapplicable to this country. According to this "law," which was deduced on the basis of statistical data, the less the tenant's income and the worse his living quarters, the more rent per unit of space he has to pay. In tsarist Russia, for example, a tenant whose earnings amounted to 4 rubles paid nearly a ruble for every square meter of living space, and a man with an income of three hundred and twenty rubles paid only sixty kopecks per square meter.

MINERS' HOUSES. Coal miners of the Donbas live in this Stalino apartment house.

This naturally made rent a heavy burden for the ordinary working man, who occupied four or five times less floor space than the wealthy man, but paid more per square meter.

Furthermore, in computing the rental to be paid by the Soviet citizen, all floor space of such parts of the dwelling as entrance hall, corridors, kitchen, bathroom, as well as of other subsidiary premises, is not taken into consideration. In most countries all this is included.

The low rate of rent in the USSR is due to the fact that the Soviet Government has eliminated capitalist ownership of dwellings, which for the bourgeois class was yet another means of exploiting the working people. This put an end to the profits of the landlords, which constituted the lion's share of rent: the official figures quoted by Filatov show that in some countries this constitutes no less than 50 per cent of the rent.

The Soviet Government, whose sole aim is continuously to raise the material and cultural standard of the population, pursues a new, that is, a socialist housing policy, which also covers rent. Soviet laws exclude the possibility of rent burdening the budget of the working man; this increases the part of the worker's budget which goes to satisfy his family and cultural needs.

"In accordance with the existing law on house rent," writes N. Filatov, "the fixed rates should cover maintenance costs and amortization of dwellings. The amortization funds are used for the construction of new houses to replace those torn down. For the expansion of housing construction, however, use is made of some of the accumulations of the national economy, as well as of the accumulations of the housing organizations (from leasing trade and warehouse premises, etc.). The housing development program is included in the state economic plans, and the means are provided for in the state budget. The proportion of capital investment in housing construction to total capital investment in the national economy of the USSR was increased to 14.5 per cent under the current Five-Year Plan (1946-1950) and will amount to 42,300 million rubles, as against 10.5 per cent under the Third Five-Year Plan. In the course of the current Five-Year Plan 72,400,000 square meters of living space will be built. In addition, the plan provides for the construction of individually owned houses by private Soviet home owners with the aid of government loans to a total of 12 million square meters of living space.

That is how the Soviet State and its planned socialist economy combines rational exploitation and expansion of housing with the interests of the tenants.

The Soviet Ukraine—Facts and Figures

THE Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic occupies second place among the 16 Republics constituting the USSR, both for the number of its population which according to the 1939 census totaled 30,960,200 and for its economic importance. In 1940, for instance, the Ukraine produced 19 million tons of iron ore, more than nine million tons of pig iron and 8,600,000 tons of steel. Before the war, the daily output of coal in the Donbas averaged 280,000 tons.

During the occupation of the Ukraine, the Germans destroyed all the metallurgical, coke, chemical and machine building plants, the Donbas coal mines, the railroads, etc.

From the very first day of the liberation of the Ukraine, thousands of the best builders and engineers of Moscow, Leningrad and other cities, regions and and fraternal republics came to the assistance of the Ukrainian people in the rehabilitation of the national economy. Scores of plants of the country are participating in the rehabilitation work. Equipment and building materials from all parts of the Soviet Union are being transported to the Ukraine by 40 trunk railroads.

The Ukrainian SSR is the birthplace of the nationwide Stakhanov movement. In the ranks of its working class are miner Alexei Stakhanov, the initiator of the movement which goes by his name, and locomotive engineer Peter Krivonos, the initiator of the Stakhanov methods of labor on the railroads. Maria Demchenko, one of the first Stakhanovites of the beet plantations, Pasha Angelina, the first Stakhanovite tractor driver and organizer of women's tractor brigades, and many other notable workers are Ukrainians.

In the elections of the local Soviets of Working Peoples' Deputies which took place on December 21, 1947, 307,361 deputies were elected to regional, territorial, district, urban, rural and settlement Soviets. The figure is made up of 97,777 members and candidates of the Communist Party and 209,584 non-Party people, and includes 99,782 women. All the deputies elected were candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people.

In connection with the abolition of the rationing system for food and industrial commodities and the development of trading, there have been opened in the Ukraine more than five thousand additional stores and three thousand booths selling various goods.

The capacity of the bread baking industry of the Ukrainian SSR now exceeds the prewar level. New mechanized bakeries have been opened in Zaporozhye, Dniepropetrovsk, Kharkov and other cities of the Republic.

Functioning in the western regions of the Republic, reunited with the Ukrainian SSR in 1939, are 7,430 schools, 24 higher and 112 secondary special educational establishments attended by about 39 thousand persons. Before the western regions rejoined the Ukrainian SSR, the bulk of their population was illiterate.

The Soviet Ukraine has about one hundred theaters of which 88 give performances in the Ukrainian language; 75 musical ensembles, including 9 symphony orchestras and 18 choirs. During the past 30 years, 1,308,000,000 copies of books were issued in the Ukraine. Copies of the works of Lenin and Stalin issued during that period by Ukrainian publishing houses totaled 49,000,000.

Thirteen central, 38 regional and 785 district newspapers (most of them in the Ukrainian language) with a total circulation of four million copies are now published in the Ukrainian SSR, as compared to one Ukrainian newspaper that appeared in that territory before the Revolution.

Reconstruction of Rural Areas

By I. Mikhailov

Assistant Chief of the Rural Construction Administration under the Council of Ministers of the RSFSR

THE Rural Construction Administration under the Council of Ministers of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic receives many letters from collective farmers describing the progress of the restoration of the war-devastated villages in the USSR. Some of the letters are signed by individuals, others by entire bodies of collective farmers. Here is an excerpt from one of these letters:

"Our village, Uryv, in Voronezh region, was turned into a pile of ruins by the German invaders. Weeds covered the neglected fields. Yet before the war this was the home of some three hundred families of collective farmers.

"Our village has now been built anew. Spacious, light houses, built on brick foundations, and many farm buildings have replaced the ruins. A new school has been built as well as a club, cattle-sheds for the collective farm herd, a granary and a shed for machines. We collective farmers thank the Soviet Government and the great Stalin from our hearts for this fatherly solicitude for us. The State provided us with food, seed-grain, building timber—in a word with everything we needed when we began life anew amid the ruins."

This letter expresses the thoughts and feelings of millions of Soviet peasants who suffered from the German invasion and who received great assistance from the Soviet Government. Since the invaders were driven out, 992,700 houses have been built in 22 regions of the RSFSR. Of the 640 districts which suffered from the enemy, temporary dwellings have already been eliminated in 570. Some four million peasants have moved into new houses, have acquired the necessary furnishings and are living a settled, secure life.

For the construction of dwellings, the Government granted the peasants long-term credits exceeding a sum of 1,241 million rubles and provided them with building materials and the necessary transport facilities. In addition to the local transport, 1,500 motor trucks from the state reserves worked unceasingly hauling timber. The builders were supplied with window-glass, nails, stove castings, ironware, tools, and so forth. All resources were used in order to accelerate collective farm construction. Local building materials were produced by 1,266 brick kilns and 113 tile kilns especially built for the purpose. A large network of carpenters' shops, saw-mills, quarries and so forth was organized.

AFTER WORK. Collective farmers of Mechetinskaya village in the North Caucasus in their rebuilt park.

The brunt of the building work was carried out collectively. Each collective farm formed a special builders' brigade consisting of carpenters, joiners, stove-setters, roofers and assistant laborers. This method of organizing the work made it possible to build without interfering with the field-work; the collective farmers worked in the fields knowing that their houses were being built for them by craftsmen and would be turned over to them as their personal property, for a very small fee deducted from their earnings to pay the builders' brigade.

Moscow, Leningrad, Orel, Bryansk, Smolensk, Pskov, Novgorod and other cities were of great assistance to the rural builders. City organizations and enterprises sent hundreds of machines, large quantities of building materials, brigades of workers and engineers to the villages to help with the work of reconstruction.

Collective farms which had completed their own restoration work sent workers and horses to help those farms which had suffered most. As a result of this good organization, the 1947

plan of rural construction was fulfilled ahead of time.

In addition to private dwellings for the collective farmers, many public structures were also built: stables and cattle-sheds, flour-mills, granaries, power stations, schools, clubs, and so forth. Since the expulsion of the German invaders from these districts, 276,000 farm buildings and 25,647 premises for cultural and educational institutions have been erected there.

The great majority of the dwelling-houses and public buildings were erected according to standard plans drawn up by engineers and architects. For this purpose an extensive network of building organizations was founded, consisting of a central administration of rural construction under the Council of Ministers of the RSFSR with departments in the regions and districts, trusts, builders' offices, designing and planning bureaus, transport and timber offices, as well as a special organization dealing with the supply of building materials. All these organizations were solely concerned with village planning and construction, and rendered considerable technical aid to the collective farms and farmers, as a result of which the quality of the building work was considerably improved, the cost decreased, and economies effected.

Much work was also carried out on improving the restored Soviet villages. Nearly all the new dwelling houses have gardens; 32,385 new wells were sunk; 36,770 bridges were built; 9,597,000 fruit and decorative trees and shrubs were planted.

Rural construction estimated to cost 21,000 million rubles is planned for 1948-50; the greater part of this sum is allocated by the State. The plan for this work chiefly calls for the construction of premises for cultural, educational and public organizations and for further improvements of the collective farm villages. New, skilled craftsmen are being trained to help with this work; at present some four thousand future technicians and masters of the building trades are attending training courses.

Rural builders will continue to erect handsome dwellings, schools, hospitals, power stations, radio relay stations, village theaters, nurseries and field laboratories, that the life of the Soviet peasantry may be still happier and more cultured.

VILLAGE STREET. Krasnodar Territory, where these young farmers live, suffered much destruction by the German armies.

NEW HOUSE. A farm woman smiles as the collective farm electrician installs wiring in her new home.

Sergei Eisenstein— In Memoriam

By Grigori Alexandrov

Film-Producer and Honored Art Worker

THE death of Sergei Eisenstein is a great loss to Soviet film art. It is 25 years since he made his first film, *The Strike,* a bold piece of work for the young Soviet artist. In this he rejected outworn conservative forms and canons of the past, established new principles and struck out on new paths. It was an interesting picture, the leading part of which was that of the revolutionary working class, fighting for the happiness of the people. Moreover, it gave promise of Eisenstein as a Soviet film-producer of unusual talent.

The second film was *Armored Cruiser Potemkin,* which has been seen by practically every Soviet person. It was discussed at large meetings and in reviews, where it was evaluated as an important achievement in Soviet cinematography. Subsequently, it had triumphal presentations in other countries and established the reputation of Soviet cinematography in all parts of the world. *Potemkin* is a vivid and truthful presentation of the First Russian Revolution of 1905. It has had a profound and far-reaching influence on Soviet film-producers; not only that, it proved a significant factor in the work of progressive film producers abroad. It may be said to have brought Eisenstein worldwide fame.

Sergei Eisenstein.

In the years that followed he made *October, The Old and the New,* the splendid pictures *Alexander Nevsky* and the first part of *Ivan the Terrible;* these finally determined his position as a picture-maker of original and advanced ideas, an innovator who strove to develop a democratic, modern film art.

When Eisenstein took the historic landmarks of his countrymen's past as his subject he succeeded in embodying on the screen all that was unfailing in its appeal to them, that responded to their conceptions, views and thoughts.

His public and social work was on a wide scale; he taught as a professor at the State Institute of Cinematography, directed the work of the History of Cinematography Section of the USSR Academy of Sciences, wrote articles and books on the principles and peculiarities of Soviet film art. Death has interrupted important research which he had undertaken on the literary work of Alexander Pushkin and Nikolai Gogol. His books on *The Producer's Film-Art, The Theory of Color-Films, The Theory of Film-Mounting* remain unfinished.

Sergei Eisenstein was not only a man of rare gifts but of wide education and cultivation. He knew many languages and had collected a fine library of books in different languages on the history of art and literature.

He was my teacher and friend. It is nearly 30 years since we met for the first time in the Workers' Theater of Proletarian Culture in Moscow. Later, we worked together for more than 15 years. At first I was his pupil, then he made me his assistant, co-author and producer of his pictures *October* and *The Old and the New.*

Fifteen years of work with this gifted master was a splendid school. When I began independent work, my friendship with Eisenstein was not interrupted; it continued to the last day of his life, and he invariably showed a keen and affectionate interest in all I did in films.

Now he is no longer with us. He died at his work, writing a sentence that was left unfinished when the hemorrhage of the brain started. He was fifty-one years of age.

His memory will live in our hearts.

"ALEXANDER NEVSKY." A scene from the great film, produced by Eisenstein.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE first of four volumes of the collective work, the *History of the Second World War*, has been completed by the History Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. The first volume covers the period from 1918 to 1939. It shows the regeneration of German imperialism after the First World War, the economic and political relations between Britain, France, the United States, and the so-called countries of the "Axis" headed by Hitlerite Germany; the beginning of the war in the Far East, the seizure of Austria, the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia, the Munich agreement and its consequences; the political crisis in Europe on the eve of the war.

The book shows the radical difference between the foreign policy of the Soviet Union, striving for the organization of collective security, and the policies of Britain, France, and the United States of America, which contributed to the unleashing of the war by the fascist aggressors. The book includes material cited in the historical note published by the Soviet Information Bureau, which exposes the falsifiers of history from the reactionary camp in the United States, Britain, and France.

★

The tobacco harvest gathered by the collective farms of Kirghizia in 1947 exceeded that of 1946 by 1,240 tons. An equally rich crop of tobacco was harvested by the collective and state farms of Georgia, which sold to the State more than three thousand tons of tobacco above plan.

★

Construction of the second section of the Samur-Divichinsk Canal has been started in Soviet Azerbaijan. It will irrigate 24,710 acres of land on which an olive grove, orchards and vineyards will be laid out. In addition, the canal will supply over 32.5 million gallons of water per day to Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan, and the adjacent oil districts.

★

New types of cotton harvesting machines have been designed by Soviet engineers, and have proved in tests to be extremely efficient.

The Soviet chess players Mikhail Botvinnik, Paul Keres and Vassili Smyslov have arrived in the Hague to take part in the match for the world championship, which begins on March 1.

Botvinnik is sometimes called "the unofficial world champion." Indeed, no other contemporary chess-player has so impressive a record of victories. He does not often play in tournaments—on an average, once a year. Yet he has captured first place in nation-wide and international tournaments 21 times.

Since 1941 he has taken first prize in every tournament in which he has played—there were seven in all, among them such major contests as USSR championship tournaments, the Groningen tournament in 1946 and the tournament in memory of Chigorin in 1947.

★

An All-Kirghiz Review of Amateur Folk Art was held recently in Frunze, capital of the Republic. More than 12 thousand workers, collective farmers, office employees and students, members of musical, dramatic and other ensembles, took part in the review.

★

While frosts of 40°C. continue in the northeastern part of the Soviet Union, warm days have come to the republics of Central Asia. The collective farmers of Serakh district in the Turkmen SSR have already started spring sowing. Tractors are working on the fields of 13 collective farms.

★

A rich harvest of sugar beet was gathered by the collective farms of Soviet Kazakhstan in 1947. It will fully meet the raw material needs of the Republic's sugar industry. By the end of that year the sugar refineries had produced 13,600 tons of sugar above the annual plan.

★

Twelve oil extraction mills are being built in Andizhan, Bukhara and other regions of Uzbekistan. The third oil mill is under construction in the Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Soviet Republic. All these mills are being equipped with up-to-date machinery of Soviet make.

Sergei Vavilov, President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, has received a letter from a group of Soviet scientists who are exploring the Arctic. It reads:

"Our expedition has visited the so-called 'American Mountain.' It is one of the few mountainous islands in the Lena Delta. At its summit stands a monument to the members of the American arctic expedition, headed by DeLong, who tragically starved to death in the Lena Delta in 1881.

"A monument in the shape of a small wooden cross was erected near the place where DeLong and his companions died. Since then this place has been called 'American Mountain.'

"We noticed that the monument had been destroyed by time and the strong winds. Soviet scientists could not be indifferent to the destruction of a monument to men who perished while exploring the Arctic, and we have restored it to its original condition."

★

Two crops of potatoes were harvested in 1947 on the experimental farm of the Ministry of Agriculture of Turkmenia and in the Yalkym, Socialism, and other collective farms. On the Yalkym Collective Farm, for instance, 59 tons of potatoes per hectare were harvested during the year.*

★

In 1947, 66 new power stations were put into operation on collective farms and machine and tractor stations of Kazakhstan, and 70 more are under construction. In Enbekshi-Kazakh District—one of the largest rural areas in the Republic—15 collective farms out of 28 have power stations. Electricity is now being installed in the rest of the collective farms of the district. There are now over five hundred power stations in Kazakhstan, where there was not a single one before the advent of Soviet power. By 1950, the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the number of rural power stations will exceed 3,500.

The importance of these stations to the progress of the mechanization and consequent increased production of the huge collective farms is obvious. They will do their part in raising the national prosperity to even higher levels.

* One hectare: 2.471 acres.

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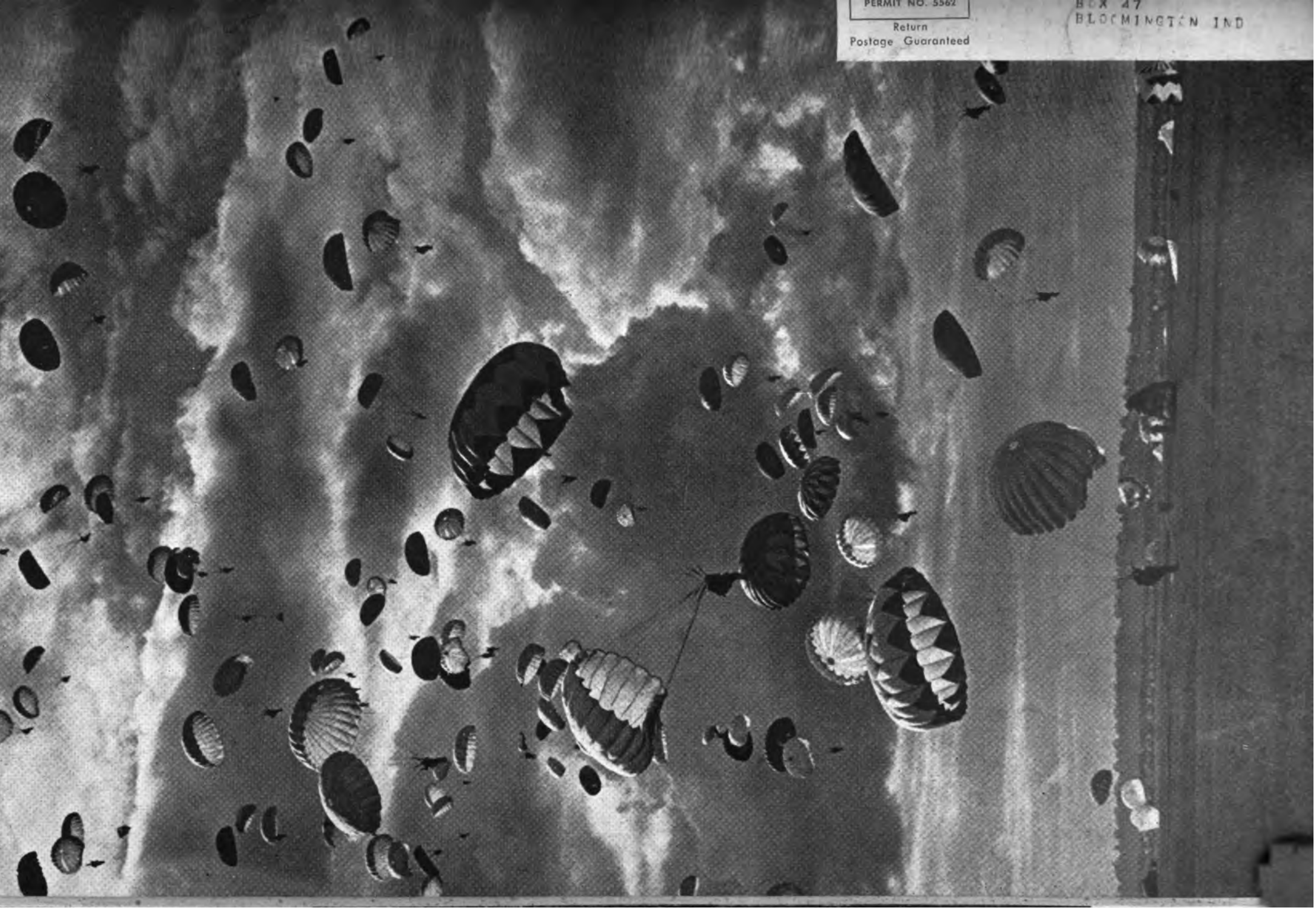

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SPRING. And Soviet agriculture, as always, is expanding. A tractor plowing virgin soil at a collective farm. FRONT COVER. Flavia Shishkova, a Moscow medical student. Thousands of Soviet physicians are women. BACK COVER. N. Polyakova, a leading sportswoman, skiing near Bakuriani, Georgian SSR.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.2 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Principles of Lenin and Stalin On Women's Equality

By Nadezhda Aralovets

International Women's Day was celebrated throughout the Soviet Union, as elsewhere, on March 8. The Soviet press and people on that day marked the progress achieved by Soviet women, and paid tribute to their achievements in all spheres of the country's life.

ON THE FARM. Natalia Shilova, manageress of the rabbit-breeding section of a collective farm, is an expert in her field.

THE idea of equality for women has long engaged the best minds of mankind. Under the bourgeois system, where private property is the rule, where power belongs to capital, the problem of emancipating women and granting them rights equal to those of men has not yet found a positive solution.

The great leaders of the working people, Lenin and Stalin, regarded the emancipation of women and their participation in the struggle against capitalism as a matter of the greatest importance. They decisively renounced the feminist tendency that tempted women onto the false path of struggle between the sexes and showed the one correct and true path to the emancipation of women. This was the active participation of women in the revolutionary struggle, for the liberty and the rule of the people, for the right of the working people to decide problems connected with their own vital interests. Lenin, who regarded the participation of women in this struggle as being of the greatest importance, wrote: "It is to be noted by the experience of all past emancipation movements that the successes of revolutions depend on the extent to which women participate in them."

The Russian women, answering the call of the Communist Party and its great leaders, Lenin and Stalin, played their part in the revolutionary movement of the proletariat, against the rule of the landowners and capitalists, for the victory of the new social system.

IN THE FACTORY. Ira Tertishnikova of the Stalin auto plant is a skilled woman industrial worker.

The Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia did away with the inequality of women in the spheres of politics and economy. During the first months of its existence the Soviet State abolished all laws that put women in a subordinate, humiliating position in society. "The Soviet Republic of Russia," wrote Lenin, "immediately swept away literally all legislative traces of the inequality of women, immediately ensured them full equality in the eyes of the law."

Lenin, however, considered that equality of men and women in the eyes of the law was only the first step on the road to complete emancipation. Most important was the abolition of the private ownership of land and factories and the creation of the necessary economic conditions for the real emancipation of women.

The active and very considerable participation of women in social labor was regarded by Lenin and Stalin as one of the main conditions necessary

ARCHITECT. Nadezhda Bykova, shown with her children, is one of the many Soviet women in professional fields.

for the success of socialist construction, as one of the main conditions for the complete liberation of women.

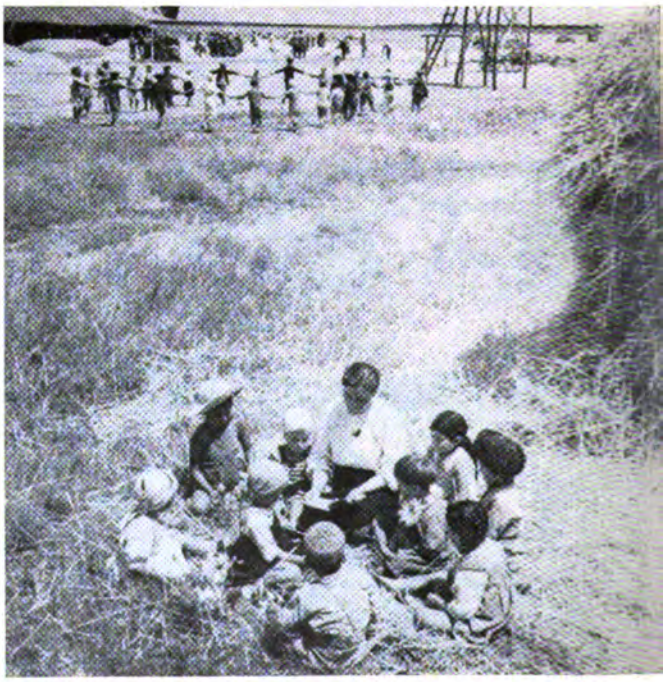
Lenin and Stalin, the leaders of the people, paid very special attention to the growth of the political consciousness of women, noting their every success in political and economic work.

In the favorable atmosphere of socialist society the woman has brought out all the wealth of her spiritual forces. Her will power, resoluteness, nobility and patriotism, her energy and her abilities have become a greater social force than history has ever before known. Strong in their freedom, their right to work and create, confident of themselves and their future, Soviet women are active participants and conscious creators of the new socialist way of life.

In the Soviet Union there is no single sphere of economic or cultural life in which the creative labor of women has not found an application. In all branches of production, cultural and scientific work, women have taken their place beside men and have achieved great successes. In the USSR there are 250 thousand women engineers and technicians. This is more than four hundred times the number in old Russia. In the Soviet Union today there are more than 100 thousand women physicians—in old Russia there were not more than two thousand. In the field of public education some 1,800,000 women are working while another 35 thousand are employed in scientific institutes and laboratories. The number of women specialists with higher educational qualifications is 42.3 per cent of the total number of specialists in the USSR.

Millions of women workers are doing well in factories and in transport, where they have mastered the high skills required of the modern industrial worker. Hundreds of thousands of women hold such posts as directors of factories, heads of brigades or shifts.

In the Soviet countryside there are hundreds of thousands of women chairmen of collective farms, heads of brigades and other subdivisions of the farm, agronomists, zootechnicians, mechanics, directors of machine and tractor stations. There are 250 thousand peasant women who are now captains of tractor teams or drivers of tractors and combines, while a further 350 thousand head field brigades or manage the livestock branches of collective farms.



FARM LIFE. The lot of rural women has improved tremendously since the Great October Revolution. At left, a farm household. Right, farm children tended by a nurse as their mothers work.

The Soviet State, putting Lenin's and Stalin's principles into practical effect, is drawing ever greater numbers of women into the state apparatus of the USSR. In the Supreme Soviets of the constituent and autonomous republics there are thousands of women deputies, while the number of women deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is 277. Half a million women are deputies to local Soviets. There are women Ministers in the constituent and autonomous republics; women also occupy the post of chairman in the local Soviets. There are 14 women members of the Supreme Court of the USSR; about one-third of the members of the Supreme Courts of the constituent republics and about half the members of the regional and area courts are women.

Lenin regarded the development of a state system of children's institutions and communal catering as having great importance for the emancipation of women. "Public dining rooms, nurseries, kindergartens, these . . . are the means that can liberate the woman in actual practice," he said, "these are practical means of lessening and abolishing woman's inequality with man as far as her work in production and in social life is concerned."

In the Soviet Union the State pays great attention to the welfare of mothers and children. The extensive network of nurseries and kindergartens, and state safeguarding of the interests of mothers and children, provide a firm foundation for and a guarantee of the equality of Soviet women. The Budget of the USSR allocates thousands of millions of rubles for grants to help mothers with large families and unmarried mothers and for the welfare of women and children.

During the difficult war years Soviet women stood before the world as a tremendous power in Soviet society. Following the behests of Lenin, the Soviet State, under the leadership of the great Stalin, has aroused millions of women to active public life in the USSR.

The active participation of Soviet women in the struggle of the whole people for the postwar development of economy and culture in the world's first socialist State is an invaluable contribution to the struggle of the democratic camp against imperialist reaction, for a sound peace and the triumph of democracy.

GOVERNMENT OFFICIAL. Olga Lauristin (right) is Minister of Social Maintenance of the Estonian SSR and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

MEDICINE. Dr. Olga Makeyeva, shown at the bedside of a patient, is a well-known physician of Moscow.

IN THE EAST. Nailia Bazanova of the Kazakh SSR is a Doctor of Biology, a Corresponding Member of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Before the Revolution, Kazakh women wore the veil and had no opportunity for education or public life. With Dr. Bazanova is her daughter, Anel.

Leading Soviet Women

THE STAGE. Alexandra Yablochkina, Stalin Prize winner and permanent President of the Russian Theatrical Society.

TRADE UNIONIST. Nina Popova is secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, chairman of the Soviet Women's Anti-Fascist Committee, and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

JOURNALIST. Elena Konenko of "Pravda" is probably the best-known woman journalist of the Soviet Union. Here, she reads part of the vast mail which comes to her from all parts of the country.

AGRICULTURE. Zamira Mutalova, of a collective farm near Tashkent, a Hero of Socialist Labor, receives the Order of Lenin from A. I. Niyazov, President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek SSR.

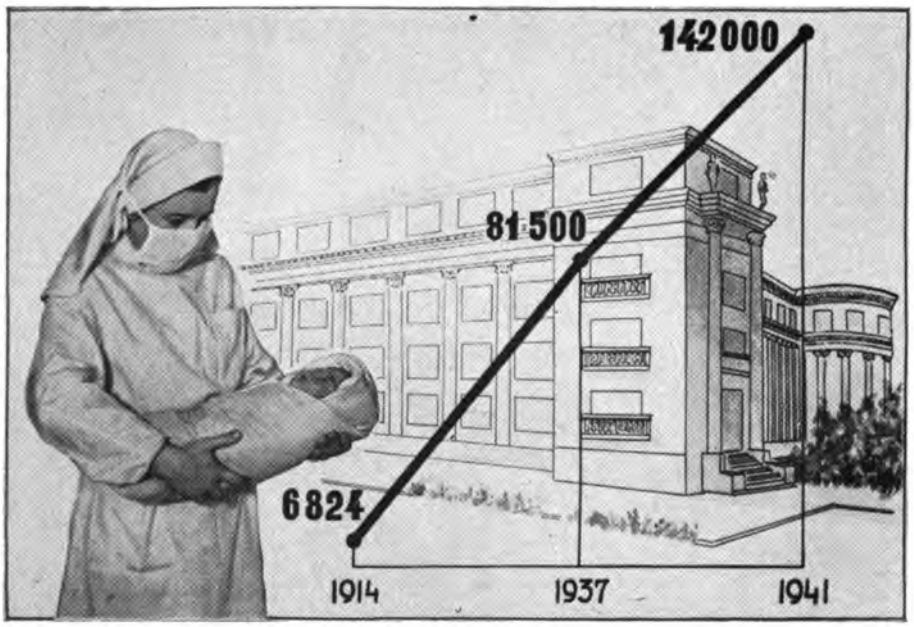
ART. Vera Mukhina is a leading sculptor.

AVIATION. Valentina Stoyanovskaya has flown a million air-kilometers.

GOVERNMENT. Bakhty Altybayeva is Minister of Light Industry of the Turkmen SSR.

MUSIC. Yevgenia Shebolina conducts the Ukrainian Philharmonic Symphony Orchestra.

SCIENCE. Professor Lena Stern, eminent biologist and physician, is a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.



PROGRESS. This chart shows the growth of institutions for maternity care. In 1914, there were but 6,824 maternity beds in Russia; in 1941, the USSR had 142 thousand.

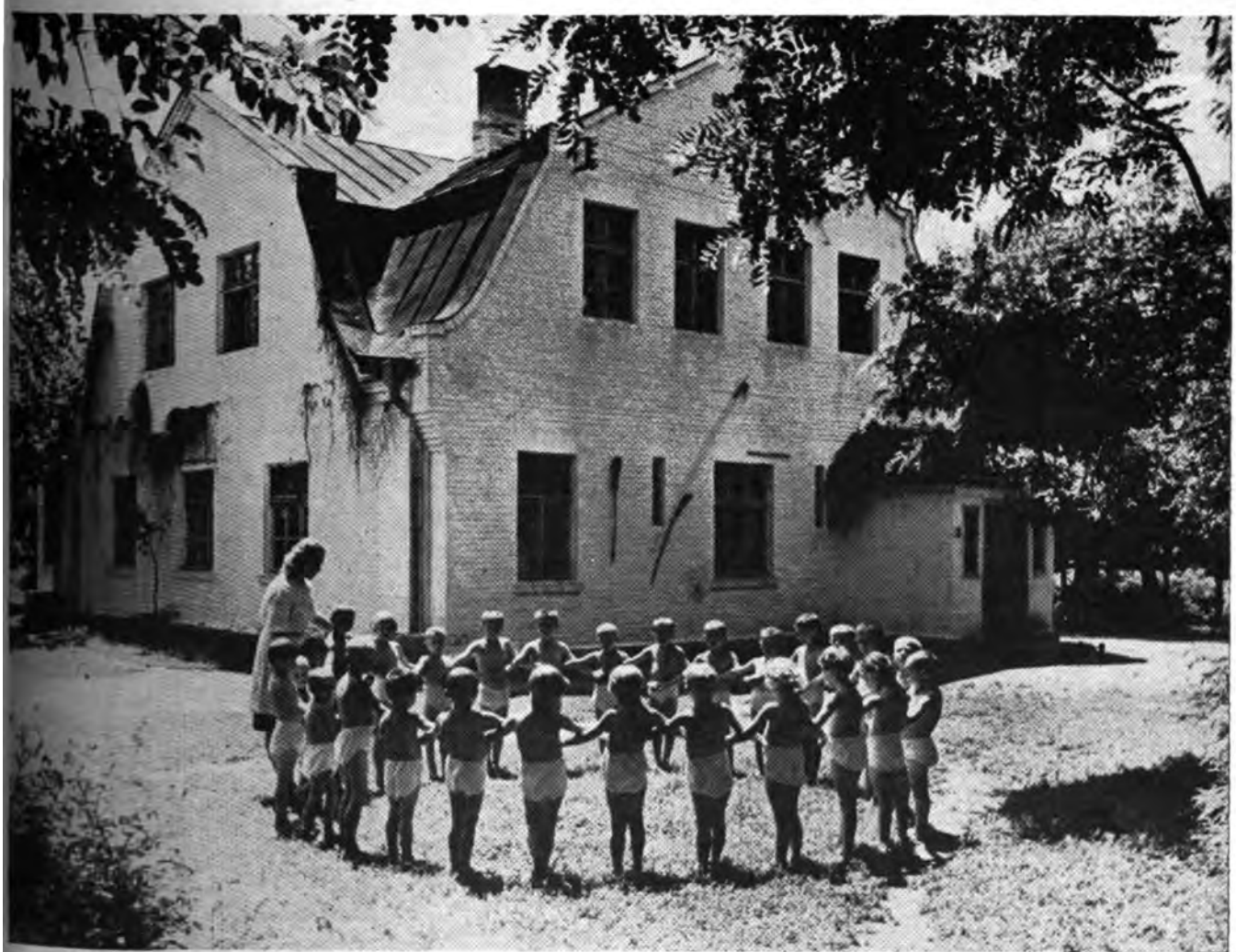
NAP. In a Soviet kindergarten.

"MOTORISTS". Play in a kindergarten yard.

Mother and Child Care In the Soviet Union

MOTHERHOOD. Maternity hospitals, modern and well-equipped, exist in all parts of the Soviet Union. This, like o hospital and medical care, is provided with no charge to the patient.

NURSERY. Textile workers' children of the Bolshaya Ivanovskaya mills at Ivanovo are cared for in this sunny nursery while their mothers are at work.



FARM KINDERGARTEN. Children of workers at the Kuban state farm at play outside their kindergarten building.

RAILWAY HEROES. Elena Chukhnuk (left) is a Hero of Socialist Labor and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, as are her companions, I. Panin and A. Zvezdin.

Women Who Work

By Zinaida Troitskaya

Director General of Traction

RECENTLY I came across an article in the English press about the work of women in British factories. It said that most of them work only in the evening shifts. It is frankly explained in the article that the reason for this is that they can only leave their homes when their husbands return from work and can look after the children. The author of the article also mentions that he himself heard how Aline Ashcroft warned her foreman that she would be unable to come to work for about two weeks, after which her sister would again be able to take care of her child.

I saw the same thing in Paris. One of the interpreters told me that she had placed her child with a family where she has to pay a considerable sum for its maintenance. She works in three places and can hardly make ends meet.

How strange all this seems to Soviet women, who are accustomed to the great solicitude of the State for children! Let me take as an example the Moscow Metro (subway) where I am now working. We have three kindergartens, a creche for infants up to three years of age, and a sanatorium for frail children. The Metro employs many mothers, and all of them go to work without any anxiety for their youngsters, knowing that they will receive good meals and will be well looked after. In the summer the children are accommodated in country homes situated in picturesque places outside of Moscow.

The Moscow Metro is expanding, and the number of its employees is growing year by year. The Metro administration, therefore, now finds the present children's institutions inadequate, and the Five-Year Plan provides for further building of creches and kindergartens.

And so it is everywhere in the Soviet Union. Thanks to the incessant care of the Soviet Government for mother and child, employment of ever greater numbers of women has become possible in agriculture, in industry and in railway transport.

Woman has become a great force in Soviet transport. She has won a place in all branches of this huge and intricate economy. Women work both in the lower ranks and in administrative posts. Take my own case. Twenty years ago I started as mechanic's apprentice; now I belong to the highest executive personnel of the railways: I hold the rank of director general and am assistant manager of such an important enterprise as the Moscow Metro.

After finishing my secondary education, I entered a railway apprentice school. In tsarist times, one had to pay for being taught a trade. But I, on taking a course of training in a locomotive depot, was allowed a stipend the amount of which increased every half year.

When I became a regular mechanic in the depot, I continued to study in my free time, i.e., without leaving my job. I combined work in the depot with study in school. I attended a course for training assistant engine drivers, and on finishing it I started studying in a course training full-fledged engine drivers. And all this was free of charge.

I worked conscientiously, and became a shock-worker. When in 1935 the Stakhanov movement developed in the country, I kept pace with the Stakhanovites. Working as an engine driver, I was anxious for further education, and in this striving Government facilities came to my assistance. I attended the evening faculty of the Institute of Railway Engineers and later became a student in the Railway Transport Academy. I progressed both in my work and in my studies.

That is how cadres of leading workers—women equally with men—are trained in my country.

Women in the USSR are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres both politically and economically. For equal work a woman receives the same pay as a man. Any other situation would seem to us simply absurd.

All railway trades and professions are widely accessible to women insofar as they are physically capable of working in them. Women constitute 22 per cent of all the engineers and 16 per

cent of the train dispatchers on Soviet railways. In old Russia there was an insignificant number of women working even in the telephone exchanges and telegraph offices of the railways—they constituted only a little more than 10 per cent, whereas now less than five per cent of the railway telephone and telegraph operators are men. Women now constitute more than a third—about 36 per cent—of all the chiefs of the railway telegraph offices and telephone exchanges. In the old times, until 1917, only one per cent of the railway station officials were women; today they constitute 28 per cent of all the station superintendents. There are many women working as doctors and teachers of secondary and higher schools of the Soviet railways.

Railwaywomen are keeping pace with men in their striving to work more quickly and better, to raise the productivity of their labor. What a large number of them have gained wide popularity by their production activities, by their initiative! Dispatcher Bairachnaya, working at Osnova Station (near Kharkov), for instance, has become well known as a most experienced executive in this branch of railway work.

Train dispatchers Maria Bogdanova of the Northern Railway and Klavdia Koroleva of the Moscow-Ryazan Railway have become famous as splendid,

STATIONMASTER-ON-DUTY. At a Moscow subway station.

PAUSE. Eugenia Khubuluri, a railway employee, and her senior mechanic, refresh themselves with water at a station.

skillful workers from whom both men and women have something to learn. And a large number of railway workers know the name of engineer Uskova who has given so many years of her life to the study of rails.

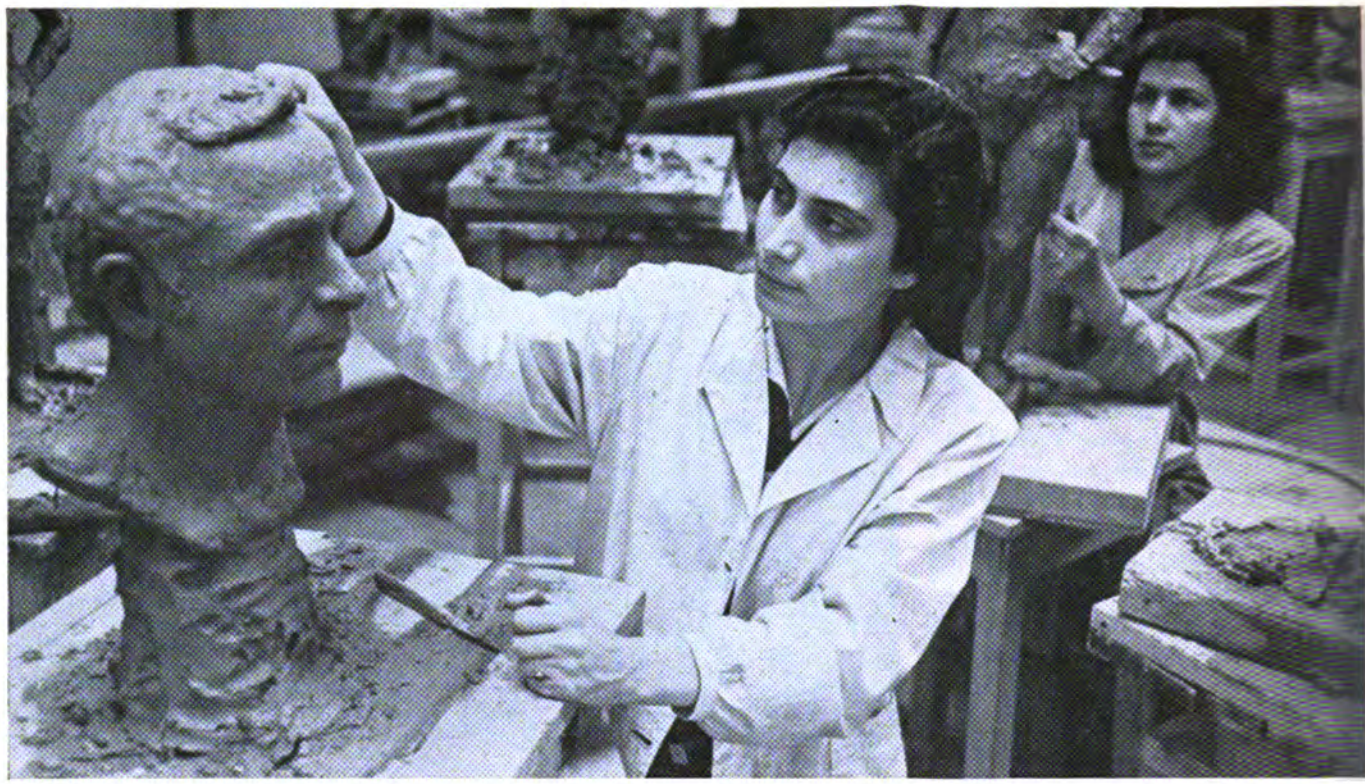
Especially many women came to work on the railways during the years of the Second World War. That was quite natural, since they replaced their fathers, husbands and brothers who went to the front. The number of women working as station superintendents increased almost by 25 per cent. The number of women working as heads of track crews, as train conductors and mechanics in the locomotive and wagon depots has increased between five and ten times.

Women, equally with men, labored to hasten the coming of victory over the fascists. In the area near the front they fearlessly worked under fire. For their self-sacrificing service to their country, more than 2,500 railwaywomen were awarded Orders and Medals of the USSR. Thousands were rewarded by the Minister of Railways with the Honored Railway Workers' Badge and other marks of distinction. The high title of Hero of Socialist Labor was conferred on three railway women: switch operator Alexandrova, station superintendent Zharkova, and engine-driver Chukhnuk.

When the fascist troops tore into the station of Gomel, Chukhnuk was one of the last to leave the depot. She was also among the first to return to the depot with the advance units of the Soviet Army. This intrepid woman bravely drove her train in the front line zone, in 1941, at the southern approaches to Moscow; and in 1942, near Stalingrad. The Germans sent three to five planes out to bomb every train approaching the heroic city. But Chukhnuk knew no fear. She extinguished the fires in the train kindled by enemy bombs, she clogged up the holes in the locomotive boiler with wooden corks, but kept up a steady supply of goods to the front.

The names and deeds of these three women are well known. The three of them are now students of railway technical schools. They are in receipt of stipends; the State is providing them with full opportunities for continuing their education and for promotion.

As I said above, woman in the Soviet Union has been placed on a par with man not only politically but also economically. That, I think, is why she has gained equal rights in life, in society and in the family.



EDUCATION. The women of Azerbaijan, who 30 years ago went veiled and lived lives of oppression, are now educated and emancipated. Students at an art school in Baku.

Women of the East

By Taira Tairova

Member of the Supreme Soviet of the Azerbaijan SSR.

BOTH in war and in peace Baku, the capital of Soviet Azerbaijan, holds a place of honor among the other cities of the Soviet Union.

Baku is a city of workers in the oil industry and the machine building industry, sailors of the merchant marine, workers of textile, clothing and many other industries; it is also the city of a numerous intelligentsia. And women play a prominent part in the many-sided life of this important industrial and political center. You may find them on oil fields, in factories, in institutes, among the workers of art and literature. Women come to the fore as innovators in science, as gifted inventors, master workers, industrial executives, stateswomen.

The position of the Azerbaijan woman has changed beyond recognition since the advent of Soviet power. Once Azerbaijan was a national borderland, where woman suffered from a double social and political oppression, where she was doomed to household slavery, where even elementary education was accessible to only a few. Today, the woman of Soviet Azerbaijan participates in the political, cultural and economic life of her republic on a par with man.

MINISTER. Zakhra Kerimova, Minister of Social Maintenance of Azerbaijan.

A striking evidence of this is the recent elections of the local Soviets. Of 767 members elected to the Baku City Soviet, 250 are women. They represent all sections of the population. The life of each of these women reflects the glorious path traversed by the Azerbaijan people under Soviet power.

"It would have been better if you had given birth to a stone than to a daughter"—this saying was current in Azerbaijan before the Revolution, and it reflected the unhappy lot of the woman at that time. Perhaps the family of Aliyev, a Balakhany oil worker, did think of this saying when in 1913 their daughter Kyubra was born. And who, indeed, could then foresee how the life of this girl would turn out. A girl from the Baku suburbs, where thousands of other girls like her were slaving at household work from early childhood, and who after marriage saw nothing but their hearths and the cradles of their babies. Aliyev's wife, an illiterate and ignorant woman, could then hardly expect that her daughter would receive a uni-

versity education and become a teacher. Aliyeva had never heard of an Azerbaijan woman becoming a teacher.

But Kyubra Aliyeva was luckier than her mother and elder sisters. At nine years of age she entered a Soviet school, which had then just been opened. The little girl was very diligent in her lessons, as if she wanted to make up for all that was lost by the women of the older generation. The family was prosperous, and the father decided that his daughter should become a teacher. Kyubra graduated from the Azerbaijan Pedagogical Institute more than ten years ago. Since then she has been educating Azerbaijan girls. In the same Balakhany where several generations of the Aliyevs had toiled on the oil fields, Kyubra became director of the local school. The workers of Balakhany elected her to represent them in the Baku Soviet. Later on she was transferred to the largest Azerbaijan women's school, situated in the center of Baku. In this district, too, the inhabitants soon came to know and respect Kyubra Aliyeva. At the recent elections Kyubra Aliyeva was again chosen member of the Baku City Soviet.

BILGEIS MAMEDOVA belongs to that generation which has no personal knowledge of the old regime. Her parents did not have to worry about the fate of their girl. Soviet power had opened all roads to her. Bilgeis, like Aliyeva, also chose the noble profession of educating children. When she was nominated a candidate for election to the Baku Soviet she was asked what she desired, what she was striving for. To this she answered:

"What can I desire? The country needs educated people. My wish is that the pupils of our school should become good citizens."

These words reflect the nature of the Soviet girl who above all else places the interests of the society in which she was born and bred and which helped her to come out onto the broad road of life.

With every year more and more Azerbaijan women are joining in the public and social life of their country. From their midst come keen geologists, experts in agriculture, medical workers. They are respected and trusted by the people, who elect them to the bodies of Soviet power. Fatma Vekilova is another of these women. She is a university graduate and at present holds the position of head of the geological laboratory of the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences.

These traits are also characteristic of Jeiran Nasirova, director of a factory, of Suria Safarova, senior engineer of the State Oil Prospecting Trust —and of all other Azerbaijan women who have devoted their lives to the service of science and technique.

The Azerbaijan people passionately love their art. They fully appreciate their gifted poets, musicians, dancers. Women enjoy particular respect. And the reason for this will be quite clear if we remember that any participation of women in art was prohibited in pre-Revolutionary Azerbaijan. Even feminine parts in Azerbaijan theaters used to be played by men. Therefore now the Azerbaijan people are pleased to see among the members of the Baku Soviet the poetess Mirvarid Dilbazi, the actress Amina Sultanova, and other women who are composers, painters, musicians.

Side by side with the outstanding representatives of culture, science and technique, stand the modest, rank-and-file working women who at the oil well or machine tool honestly serve their country and have earned the respect of the people of Baku. And, indeed, one cannot but value the labor of such women as Uri Eiyubayeva, brigade leader at the Stalin oil refinery, when the installation on which she is working yields thousands of tons of fuel above plan!

Among the members of the Baku Soviet are the 20-year-old girls Almas Gajiyeva, an assistant borer; Monovsha Orujeva, a turner; and Bibi-Khanum Aleskperova, a dressmaker. The biography of each of them is the biography of the daughters of the people who are working for themselves, to whom economic crises and unemployment are unknown. Soviet woman does not have to fear that she will be thrown out into the streets; she is not driven by a foreman; for equal labor she receives the same pay as men; she has every opportunity to study, to raise her qualification in the trade in which she is working.

SCIENTIST. Heirans Aliyeva, M.Sc., head of the chemical laboratory of the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences.

A Soviet Woman Intellectual

By Vera Inber

I WAS born in Odessa; my mother was a teacher of Russian; my father, a publisher of popular-scientific books. I was the only child and of course had the best of care; my parents took great pains with my upbringing and education. I was passionately fond of reading, and my first essays were written at an early age. When I was in high school they used to call me an "author." Soon after leaving school I went with my husband, a journalist, to Paris, where I stayed two years. I spent some time in Switzerland, too, for the sake of my health—I had weak lungs.

My first volume of verse, *Sad Wine* was published in Paris in 1912. Two other volumes, *Bitter-Sweet* and *Transitory Words* appeared in Russia during the First World War. The very titles of these volumes are symptomatic: wine is sad, sweetness is bitter, words are transitory. Why? Such was the literary mode of the time. The joy of living, its varied coloring, the fullness of its sound, were regarded as primitive and not particularly interesting. This was the poetry of the decadence bred by a bourgeois society which had been alarmed by the revolutionary events of 1905.

The October Revolution of 1917 found me in Moscow, but soon I went back to Odessa. It required about three years of thought, observation, reconsideration of values, complex conflicts and exceptional effort to bring heart and mind to the perception and understanding of the new tasks that confronted the writer in the Soviet country, and to picture to one's self the new reader.

In 1922 I moved to Moscow where I am living to this day. My first post-Revolutionary volume of verse, *The Purpose and the Path,* which marked my second birth—I was now a Soviet writer—appeared in 1923. I first began to write prose in 1925 and went in for journalism. I have also written some books for children.

Our life here is so infinitely varied, so profound in content, so rich, that it provides scope for all our abilities.

VERA INBER

The majority of Soviet writers do not confine themselves to one particular genre. We heard a short time ago that Ehrenburg's American readers were astonished when they learned that he wrote verse. It surprises none of us.

A day never passes without my receiving, like my colleagues, some letters from my readers. It gives us pleasure to realize how far our writing penetrates to various strata of the population. We find our books in village libraries, in factory reading-rooms, in students' hotels and dormitories, in collective farms, on board ice-breakers, among the troops and in the scholar's library.

I was in Leningrad during the war, and remained there throughout the blockade. Here I wrote a long poem, *Pulkovo Meridian,* and *Leningrad Diary* in prose. Both of these were awarded the Stalin Prize, the highest Soviet honor for achievement. On July 10, 1942, I wrote in my diary, "I am happy with the highest of all happiness—my work, which has proved necessary in wartime."

Two short excerpts from my *Leningrad Diary* show the indomitable will of the Soviet people. Here is the first one:

"Yesterday, during shelling and bombing of the city, Boris Yakovlevich, head doctor of a hospital, defended his thesis in a bomb-shelter. Wearing his perpetual quilted jacket, Yakovlevich had come to the bomb-shelter directly from a boiler room where for a whole day he worked together with the stoker trying to get a laundry going after it was hit by a shell. . . ."

Here is the second excerpt:

"The bakery did not stop working as we had feared it would. When the water mains froze and stopped functioning, eight thousand young people, weakened by hunger and tortured by cold like the rest of us, formed a line from the Neva to the benches in the bakery and passed on pails of water from hand to hand. . . ."

We Soviet writers are greatly indebted to these people. We should write about them for millions of people to read. We should engrave their images in literary works for future generations. In every literary work we give an account of ourselves to the people who won victory, the people who are restoring everything the enemy destroyed. False, inaccurate intonations in our works will not be forgiven by our people. Books do not just decorate shelves in the Soviet Union. No matter how large an edition of a book published, it is sold out immediately. A book is the Soviet people's friend, it helps us to live, it educates the youth.

I have been engaged in literary work for 35 years—the anniversary came 'round only a short while ago, and enabled me to sum up some of the results.

I often ask myself: what would have happened if the October Revo'ution of 1917 had not taken place? I should have continued writing, that is clear. But, had I never emerged from the zone of "sad wine", I should never have known the true and joyous source of life. I should never have known the happiness of writing for my people, of living in their interests and deserving their acknowledgment.

The Overthrow of Tsardom in 1917

By Olga Chaadayeva, M.A.,

Scientific Worker of the History Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

On March 12 (February 27, old calendar), 1917, the insurgent workers and soldiers of Russia, led by the Bolshevik Party, overthrew the autocratic Romanov monarchy. The tsarist regime, which for centuries oppressed the millions of Russia's working people, collapsed.

That epochal event marked a turning point in the history of Russia. The autocracy, it should be remembered, was the main obstacle to the country's progress. It suppressed every movement for liberty, tyrannized the working people and maintained backward social and economic relationships. Until 1917 the system of large landed estates with numerous vestiges of feudalism remained in full force in Russia. Thirty thousand big landlords owned 70 million dessiatines* of land, approximately as much as was then owned by 10 million peasant households. The large masses of the peasantry suffered from ruin, impoverishment, bondage. They had no rights they could call their own.

Owing to the reactionary tsarist regime, Russia remained behind many other countries in the matter of developing her natural resources and modern industrial techniques. At the same time tsarism gave free rein to foreign capital, which controlled some major branches of Russia's national economy, such, for example, as the fuel industries and the iron and steel industry. Russia was so greatly dependent on West-European capitalists, that there existed a real danger of her becoming reduced to the status of a colony. Under tsarism the country was unable to make social progress, to overcome its economic backwardness and to remove the threat to its independence.

The First World War, in the years between 1914 and 1917, led to unparalleled economic chaos in Russia. The condition of the working people deteriorated drastically as the result of the disruption of the transport system, rising prices, profiteering and food difficulties. At the front the Russian soldiers, time and again, bore the brunt of the fight against the well-equipped and well-armed German troops; they displayed fortitude and courage and saved their allies again and again by diverting German forces to themselves. But the poorly-armed Russian troops suffered a number of reverses. The disruption of the national economy, military defeats on the front and the threat of hunger in the country accentuated social contradictions and led to growing discontent in the Army and among the population.

In the van of the revolutionary movement in Russia marched the working class, led by its advanced, revolutionary, Marxist Bolshevik Party and the great proletarian revolutionaries Lenin and Stalin. The millions of peasants and all the other working people of Russia were the allies of the proletariat in the fight against the autocracy.

The Bolsheviks, though hounded and repressed by the tsarist authorities, tirelessly denounced the predatory aims of the imperialist war, which had nothing in common with the interests of the people, and worked fearlessly to rally the forces of the working class and the peasantry under the banner of revolution for the overthrow of tsarism and to win for the people wide scope for political and

* One dessiatine=2.7 acres

LENIN'S ARRIVAL. The leader of the proletarian Revolution arrives in Petrograd from exile abroad on April 16, 1917. Painting by A. Moravov.

creative activity. Petrograd (now Leningrad), then the capital of Russia, was the center of Bolshevik activity.

Toward the beginning of 1917 the economic and political crisis in Russia had reached unparalleled acuteness. The end of the war was not in sight. The broad masses of the people were becoming increasingly convinced that the only way out was to overthrow the autocracy.

The Russian bourgeoisie, who were making profits from the war and fully shared the tsarist government's plans of conquest, were worried by the inability and incompetence of Tsar Nicholas II, in which they saw an obstacle to the attainment of their ambitions, and therefore thought only of replacing him with another, more "suitable", monarch. In this they had the support of the Allies (Britain and France). For the sake of prosecuting the great war, the bourgeoisie were not averse even to a "small revolution" in the shape of a palace coup. The idea was that this would forestall a real, popular revolution. But the people thought otherwise.

In the beginning of March 1917 a series of strikes broke out in Petrograd, attended by workers' demonstrations. On International Women's Day, March 8 (February 23, old calendar), working women and working men of the Vyborg and Petrograd districts of Petrograd came out into the streets and marched to the center of the city. The demonstrations—with the slogans, "Down with the autocracy!" "Down with the War!" "We want bread!"—continued on March 9 and 10. Petrograd was in the grip of a general strike. Police and Cossacks tried to disperse the demonstrations. The workers, wherever they could, took their arms from them.

During the night of March 10 prominent Bolsheviks, among them five members of the Party's Petrograd Committee, were arrested on orders of the Tsar's secret police. But the tsarist authorities did not succeed in beheading the movement. The practical leadership of the risen workers passed to the Vyborg District Committee of the Bolshevik Party. The Central Committee of the Party issued a manifesto calling for armed struggle and the overthrow of the autocracy.

On March 11 the blood of workers flowed in the streets of Petrograd. The workers marched from the outskirts to the center of the city. The police and gendarmes opened fire upon them, but the soldiers in many cases fired over the heads of the workers. The heroism and courage displayed by the workers caused many soldiers to waver. The propaganda carried on by Bolshevik workers still further swayed the troops in favor of the Revolution.

On the morning of March 12 (February 27) the insurgent workers and the soldiers of the Petrograd garrison joined in a mighty effort against the tsarist regime. At the break of day workers from the Vyborg district set out, along with soldiers, for the center of the city. They seized government buildings and railway stations, began to arrest Ministers and Generals, and wiped out ambushes from which police still fired on the people. More and more regiments joined the insurgents. Tsarism lost its armed support in the capital. The attempt of the Tsar to send troops from the front to suppress the Revolution failed: as soon as the soldiers from the front came in contact with the revolutionary soldiers and workers they declared that they joined the Revolution. The Revolution triumphed, and tsarism was overthrown.

The revolutionary workers and soldiers then set out to form organs of power of their own. As early as March 12, elections to the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies were held in factories and barracks of Petrograd. In the evening of that day the Petrograd Soviet held its first meeting. Throughout the country, as soon as the news came of the overthrow of the Tsar, the people disarmed and arrested the gendarmes, police and governors, and set up Soviets of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies.

The people rejoiced in the victory over their age-old enemy, the autocratic monarchy. But the politically inexperienced workers and soldiers did not consolidate the undivided power of the Soviets. While the Bolsheviks were directly leading the armed struggle of the masses in the streets (and many of them were still in exile or in emigration), the petty-bourgeois socialists—Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries—took advantage of the deep respect of the people for all who called themselves foes of tsarism in the past to capture the leading posts in the Petrograd Soviet. They entered into negotiations with leaders of the Imperial Duma (elected under the tsarist regime) with a view to creating a bourgeois provisional government. Trusting the Soviet, which, as mentioned above, was led by petty-bourgeois compromisers, the people recognized that Government.

The bourgeois Government was lavish with promises to guarantee political freedom and improve the condition of the working people. Actually, however, it had no intention of inaugurating any social reforms of real importance. The land remained in the hands of the landlords. The Government refused to introduce the eight-hour day. The Government continued the war, in which the people had borne such enormous sacrifices. The entire activity of the Government indicated that the bourgeoisie hoped by temporary concessions and liberal promises to lull the vigilance of the masses, dampen their revolutionary ardor, gain time to rally its own forces and then seize upon an opportune moment to smash the Revolution. The February (March) Revolution thus failed to satisfy the aspirations of the popular masses for peace, freedom and a better life.

The system of two powers that became established in the country therefore could not continue for long. Under the influence of the educational campaign carried on by the Bolsheviks, and also due to the people's own political experience, the anti-revolutionary and anti-popular character of the internal and foreign policies of the provisional bourgeois Government became ever clearer. The revolutionary people of Russia regarded it as their aim, after the victory over tsarism, not to go on making sacrifices in a war for the sake of the plans of conquest of the imperialist bourgeoisie, but to take the destinies of their country into their own hands. The working class, in alliance with the peasant poor, led by Lenin and Stalin who had returned to Petrograd (Lenin having been in emigration, and Stalin in exile in Siberia), embarked upon the struggle for a socialist revolution.

Eight months later the Great October Socialist Revolution established the truly popular Soviet Government and paved the way for far-reaching socialist changes in the country which is today the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the first socialist State in the world.

Note of the Soviet Government On the London Conference

In connection with the London Conference of the United States, Great Britain and France on the German question, the Soviet Government on February 13 called the attention of the Governments of the three Powers to the fact that the convocation of such a conference for considering the questions which form the competence of the four Powers occupying Germany and which affect other European countries, constitutes a violation of the Potsdam Agreement and of other decisions regarding Germany. Accordingly, the Soviet Government notified the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France, that it could not regard as lawful the decisions which would result from this conference.

At the end of February the Soviet Government received from the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France replies which are practically identical in their content and contain attempts to justify the convocation of the tripartite conference on the German question by claiming that neither the Potsdam nor other agreements regarding Germany contain any clauses prohibiting the convocation of conferences for consultation. In this connection Soviet Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin forwarded to the Government of the United States the following reply of the Soviet Government, dated March 6:

In reply to the memorandum of the State Department on February 21 of this year regarding the London Conference of the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France, on the German question, I am directed on instructions of the Soviet Government to declare the following:

In the Soviet Government's statement forwarded to you on February 13, it was pointed out that the London Conference of representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France on the German question constitutes a violation of the agreement between Great Britain, the USSR, the United States of America and France on the Control Council in Germany and also a violation of the Potsdam Agreement on the establishment of the Council of Foreign Ministers, which body was charged with the preparation of the peace settlement for Germany as one of its basic tasks. In reply to this, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, and France have declared that the agreement on the control machinery in Germany and the Potsdam Agreement did not contain a prohibition of consultations among the Powers. However, these statements cannot be found convincing. It is known that more than one violation of agreements previously concluded by the four Powers have heretofore been perpetrated as a result of unilateral consultations of this kind by the Governments of the United States of America and Great Britain as well as that of France.

It is clear to everyone that the so-called consultations at the London Conference constitute the preparation of a new deal on the German question between the United States of America, Great Britain, and France, and that in that deal the Governments of the three Powers are far from showing a loyal attitude toward the above-mentioned agreements signed by the four Powers.

It follows from the very reply of the French Government that the London Conference of the representatives of the United States of America, Great Britain, and France was convened to examine a number of important problems relating to Germany. From the published agenda of the London Conference, it appears that this agenda included such items as the role of German economy in Europe and the question of the Ruhr, security measures in regard to Germany, territorial changes, reparations and other issues which directly form the competence of either the Control Council or the Council of Foreign Ministers and consequently cannot be settled other than by an agreement among all four Powers occupying Germany. It follows therefrom that the French Government's reply not only fails to refute the facts contained in the Soviet statement of February 13, to the effect that the London Conference of the representatives of the three Governments constitutes a violation of the agreement of the control machinery in Germany as well as of the Potsdam Agreement on the establishment of the Council of Foreign Ministers, but confirms the fact of such violation with utter clarity.

The Soviet Government deems it necessary to call special attention, first of all, to the position of the Control Council in Germany. It was stated in the agreement concluded by Great Britain, the USSR, the United States of America and France on the establishment of the control machinery in Germany, published June 6, 1945, that the Control Council in Germany was being established in order to ensure agreement of action among the four Powers in the respective zones of occupation "on the chief military, political, economic and other questions affecting Germany as a whole."

In the declaration regarding the defeat of Germany, which was published on June 6, 1945, the Governments of Great Britain, the USSR, the United States of America and France undertook jointly to determine "the status of Germany or of any area at present being part of German territory."

Thus under these agreements the four Powers, Great Britain, the USSR, the United States of America and France undertook to pursue the agreed policy both toward Germany as a whole and in regard to determining the status of any area of Germany in the occupation period. Consequently separate conferences and decisions on the German question, affecting Germany as a whole or any of its parts, contradict the obligations undertaken by the four Powers. The Governments of the above Powers regarded the agreed four-Power policy in regard to occupied Germany as a necessary condition for ensuring lasting peace and security for European nations, and this formed the basis of the decisions of the Yalta and

Potsdam Conferences on Germany's demilitarization and democratization.

Such a policy at the same time was to prevent the possibility of Germany's resurgence as an aggressive power and to ensure the transformation of Germany into a peaceable democratic State. Throughout the past period, the Soviet Union consistently acted in accordance with this policy established by the four Powers. In doing so, the Soviet representatives invariably insisted that the Control Council should adopt appropriate agreed measures in regard to all the zones in Germany, which, however, did not meet the support of the British, American and French representatives even in regard to the most important issues.

Meanwhile, the other occupying Powers as far back as 1946 took the path of direct renunciation of this policy established by the four Powers. This found expression first of all in a separate agreement between Great Britain and the United States of America on the fusion of British and American occupation zones in Germany and then in a number of other separate actions of British and American authorities and also of French authorities in their respective occupation zones.

It is known that the question of creating a fused Anglo-American zone was not even placed before the Control Council for consideration. Things have gone so far that at the Anglo-American conference in Frankfurt-on-Main in January, 1948, decisions were passed which lent Bizonal agencies the nature of a Government, although one month before, the representatives of Great Britain and the United States of America denied that they were carrying on preparations for the formation of a separate West German State. Nor is it a secret that at the present time the point at issue is the joining by France of this Anglo-American separate policy of forming a West German State, counterposed to the rest of Germany. The consequences of this policy and of this attitude toward the Peace Treaty are well known.

The above-mentioned actions of the British, American and French representatives have paralyzed the Control Council in Germany and undermined its significance.

All this means that the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain, and France have assumed the responsibility for disrupting the agreement on the Control Council in Germany.

The London Conference of representatives of the United States of America, Great Britain, and France on the German question proves that the point at issue at the present time is not only the disruption of the agreement of the Control Council in Germany but also the disruption of the Potsdam Agreement on the Council of Foreign Ministers. Disregarding the fact that the Four-Power Agreement placed all the questions pertaining to the peace settlement for Germany within the competence of the Council of Foreign Ministers, the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France organized the above-mentioned separate conference on the German question, without the participation of representatives of the USSR, in violation of the agreement of the Council of Foreign Ministers.

The Soviet Government believes that the organization of the London Conference of the three Powers represents the further development of the policy pursued by the United States of America, Great Britain and France and aimed at liquidating the Council of Foreign Ministers which represents all the four occupying Powers.

The sessions of the Council of Foreign Ministers on the German question were held in Moscow and in London in 1947. On both occasions, the Soviet Government exerted its efforts for achieving an agreement among the four Powers in regard to Germany and met halfway the proposals of the other Powers on a number of questions insofar as this was compatible with the basic principles of previous agreements on demilitarization and democratization of Germany. In doing so, the Soviet Government was guided primarily by the desire to expedite the preparation of a peace treaty with Germany, and to secure the restoration of complete peace in Europe, a thing for which all peace-loving peoples are anxious.

The Soviet Government also insisted on the fulfillment of the decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences regarding the satisfaction of the legitimate demands of the Allied states which had suffered from German aggression. At the same time, the Soviet Government insisted on the need for assisting in the rehabilitation of Germany as a democratic and peaceable State, which is also in full accord with the Yalta and Potsdam decisions.

Nevertheless, the Council of Foreign Ministers was unable to reach agreed decisions on the German question in view of the stand taken by the United States of America, Great Britain and France. The Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France rejected the proposal regarding the preparation of the peace treaty with Germany, which was submitted by the Soviet Union to the Council of Foreign Ministers in London. The Governments of the above three Powers also declined the Soviet Union's proposal on the establishment of Central German economic departments, which was directly provided for by the Potsdam Agreement. The Governments of the three Powers also declined the Soviet Union's proposal on the organization of a central German Government, which is necessary for restoring Germany's political and economic unity.

Had the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France agreed to start the preparation of a peace treaty on Germany and to take measures aimed at restoring Germany's unity, important progress in solving the German problem as a whole and in securing peace in Europe would have been made. Agreement on all these questions was not reached because of the negative attitude of the above three Powers.

Had the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France adhered to the positions which found their expression in the decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, the Council of Foreign Ministers would undoubtedly have successfully coped with its tasks when considering the German question. The failure of the Moscow and London Conferences of the four Foreign Ministers was due to the fact that Great Britain, the United States of America and France departed from the Yalta and Potsdam decisions on the German question and attempted to impose on the Council of Foreign Ministers a policy which runs counter to and is incompatible with these decisions.

All sorts of attempts are now being made to justify the present separate

actions on the grounds of the unsuccessful work and the failure of the Moscow and London Conferences of Foreign Ministers. These attempts are aimed at relieving the three Powers of responsibilty for this failure and at putting the blame for it on the Soviet Union, although it is perfectly obvious that the responsibility for the failure of the Council of Foreign Ministers rests wholly with the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France, who disrupted these Conferences.

Now the true purpose of these separate actions is perfectly clear to everyone who follows the policy of the above Powers toward Germany. The purpose of these actions aimed at liquidating the Council of Foreign Ministers is to discard all restrictions that could hinder the implementation of that policy with regard to Germany, to which the Council of Foreign Ministers could not agree, since it is fundamentally at variance with the previously agreed four Power policy.

The facts show that the so-called "American Plan" in regard to Europe, including Germany, has become the basis of the policy of the aggressive circles in the United States of America, Great Britain and France, which is now pursued by these powers—in disregard of the tasks of demilitarization and democratization of Germany—instead of the policy which was agreed upon by the Powers of the anti-Hitler coalition during the establishment of the terms of Germany's surrender and the adoption of the decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences.

Everything is being done in order to convert the western part of Germany, as if it were some colony, into a mere objective and tool of plans of this kind. When the fused Anglo-American zone—Bizonia—was created in 1946 in Germany and opposed to the rest of Germany, this was explained by economic considerations. It was stated that such a fusion of the two zones would facilitate the economic rehabilitation of Germany and at the same time reduce the expenditures of the occupying Powers. These explanations and promises proved untrue. Actually, the creation of Bizonia can by no means be explained by economic considerations. This step, which has brought about a split of Germany, was prompted by the desire to secure a free hand in order to pursue in the western part of Germany a unilateral policy of the Anglo-American authorities, which they failed to impose on the Control Council in regard to the whole of Germany.

Since the departure from the Yalta and Potsdam policy encountered resistance in the Control Council, the Governments of Great Britain and the United States created Anglo-American Bizonia with its bipartite agencies, in which they, in circumvention of the Control Council, began carrying out their separate political and economic plans. Whereas in the Control Council, the British and American representatives constantly encountered the Soviet Union's demand for consistent demilitarization in all occupation zones, in Bizonia they obtained a free hand, and the elimination of the war potential in that part of Germany was reduced to naught.

The measures for the liquidation of Germany's war plants, even those which had been designated for transfer on the reparations account, remained unrealized. Whereas in the Control Council, accounts were required regarding the implementation of measures for democratization in all the zones, in Bizonia, the Anglo-American authorities could act without control and without abiding by the previously agreed four Power decisions on the policy of the democratization of Germany. And they increasingly relied for support on aggressive German circles and German monopolies which had in the past served as the bulwark of Hitlerism and German aggression and are always willing to act as bellicose German revanchists.

The plans for agrarian reform and for the division among the small peasants of the estates of the large landowners and Junkers, who had always served as the bulwark of German militarism, remained on paper only. It should be added that a policy which does not differ from that pursued in the Anglo-American zone, was and is being pursued in the French occupation zone. Now everyone sees that the creation of a fused Anglo-American zone served as preparation for the implementation of the so-called "American Plan" in regard to Europe. The appearance of the "Marshall Plan" was also chiefly explained by economic motives. It was argued that this "Plan" was aimed at rendering aid to European States which suffered from the war. Now it is clear that those explanations are utterly inconsistent.

Actually, the European countries which suffered most from the war were left outside of the American "Plan", since these countries could not agree with the conditions stipulated by the "Plan" as incompatible with their national sovereignty and political independence. It is perfectly understandable that the democratic states which with their own blood upheld their national independence in the struggle against fascism did not accept the conditions of so-called American "aid" which entailed the intervention of a foreign state into their internal affairs, their economic life and national development.

On the other hand, the "Marshall Plan" included not only Italy but also the western part of Germany, although Germany's obligations for repairing the tremendous damage caused to the Allied States have not even been fixed to this day. Since the Anglo-American policy deprives Germany of the possibility of having her central democratic Government, which could uphold the interests of the country, and since the Anglo-American occupation zone is outside of four Power control, Bizonia represents a convenient place for the uncontrolled rule of American and British monopolies.

There in Bizonia, the Anglo-American monopolists, banks and cartels penetrate into all the branches of economic life, subjugating them, subordinating them to their expansionist aspirations. Facts show that nothing has been done to this day for the effective restoration of highly developed industry in the western part of Germany and that, on the contrary, the development of that industry was constantly retarded before and is being retarded now for fear of competition. Meanwhile, the American plan for "aid" includes Bizonia and the Ruhr with its heavy industry, which has always served as a powerful base of armaments production, which fact reflects the desire of definite American circles to restore Germany's war economic potential and to utilize it for the above-mentioned ends. It is not surprising, therefore, that the attempts to secure joint control of all four occupying Powers over the industrial region of the Ruhr en-

countered resolute opposition on the part of the United States of America and Great Britain.

This policy of the Anglo-American authorities in regard to economic measures in Germany is calculated to secure the support of the German heavy industry magnates, but it glaringly contradicts the aims of the peaceable and democratic reconstruction of Germany. Instead of leading to the restoration of Germany's peace economy, this policy is fraught with the danger of the western part of Germany being converted into the strategic base of future aggression in Europe.

At the present time, the Government of Great Britain has advanced a plan for a so-called "western alliance". France, Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg, and also Italy and the western part of Germany are being enlisted in this political bloc, and the participation of the United States of America is also envisaged. It is also planned to include certain other western European states in it. It is easy to see that this British plan is closely bound to the "Marshall Plan", supplementing it and disclosing the political objectives of the American plan in regard to Europe.

Both the American plan for economic "aid" and the British political plan of "western alliance" oppose western Europe to eastern Europe and thus lead to the political splitting of Europe. It follows therefrom that both the American economic plan and the British political plan which supplements it have nothing in common with the interests of consolidating the peace and security of the European nations.

Considering the grave lessons of the First and Second World Wars, the peace loving European States strove to reach agreements in order to prevent the possibility of another German aggression. On this, as is known, are based all treaties, such as the Anglo-Soviet and Franco-Soviet twenty-year treaties of mutual assistance, treaties between the Soviet Union and other European states and also the Anglo-French treaty of 1947.

Such a desire to prevent another German aggression conforms to the interests of all peace loving nations and cannot lead to counterposing some of the European states to other European states. The conclusion of these treaties contributes, as it has heretofore done, to the security of the European nations and the consolidation of the general peace. Of an entirely different nature is the plan for the "western alliance" which sets no such purpose as the prevention of German aggression and the rendering of mutual assistance in the event of such aggression. And the British political plan cannot even set such an aim, since it is not directed against the resurgence of German aggression, but on the contrary includes in the western bloc that part of Germany in which the dominant position is preserved for the aggressive German monopolies, which but yesterday constituted the bulwark of Hitler aggression.

On the other hand, the nature of the British political plan is sufficiently revealed by the fact that it opposes the European states united in this bloc to the other states in Europe which consistently champion the consolidation of the general peace and the prevention of another German aggression.

It follows therefrom that the creation of the Anglo-American Bizonia and the splitting of Germany effected thereby were not fortuitous. Having placed the western part of Germany outside of joint four Power control, they now seek to utilize it with a view to creating a special group of western European states opposed to the other states of Europe, and this leads to the political splitting of Europe and to the formation of two camps of European countries. Thus both the American economic plan and the British political plan do not serve the aims of consolidating peace, of economic recovery and progress, but diametrically opposite aims. All this explains the Soviet Union's attitude toward these plans.

It follows from all the above-said that the policy being pursued by the United States of America and Great Britain, as well as by France, has undermined the four Power agreement on the Control Council in Germany and the Potsdam Agreement on the Council of Foreign Ministers, which was charged with all the preparatory work for the peace settlement in Europe. This policy of the three Powers, far from facilitating the establishment of a lasting democratic peace in Europe, is fraught with consequences which can benefit only all and sundry fomentors of a new war. The secret London meeting of representatives of the United States of America, Great Britain and France on the German question, organized in circumvention of the Council of Foreign Ministers in which the Soviet Union would also have participated, testifies that the Governments of the three Powers do not hesitate even completely to disregard their commitments.

The fact that representatives of only a narrow group of a few states were invited to this conference, whereas the majority of the states which suffered most from German aggression remained outside of it, shows that the London Conference pursued the narrow group purposes of the sponsors of the western bloc which is being opposed to all other European states.

In view of the above, the Soviet Government deems it necessary to reaffirm its statement that the decisions prepared by that Conference cannot have a legal force or an international authority.

Similar replies were simultaneously forwarded by the Soviet Ambassadors in London and Paris to the Governments of Great Britain and France respectively.

Industrial Output in 1947

FULFILLMENT of the 1947 national economy plans of the Azerbaijan, Turkmen, Armenian and Estonian Soviet Republics shows the following results:

Azerbaijan industry topped the production plan by 5.7 per cent. As compared with 1946, the volume of output was 17.2 per cent more. The plans for planting spring and winter crops were exceeded.

Estonian industry topped the annual plan by 12.7 per cent. Output increased by 41.8 per cent.

The Armenian Republic likewise achieved important successes. With respect to output of industry the plan was fulfilled 107.4 per cent. As compared with 1946, the volume of production increased by 26.8 per cent.

Industry of Turkmenia exceeded the annual program by 5.2 per cent. Production increased by 19.6 per cent and exceeded the prewar level.

AUCCTU Statement to the CIO On the "Marshall Plan"

As has been reported in the press, the Secretary-Treasurer of the CIO, James Carey, and the head of the International Department of the CIO, Michael Ross, recently arrived in Moscow from the United States of America for an exchange of opinions with the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions on the question of the "Marshall Plan". The discussion took place in a friendly atmosphere.

As a result of the discussion the Central Council of Soviet Trade Unions handed to the CIO representatives the following declaration dated February 27, 1948:

THE foreign reactionary press and certain trade union leaders, particularly of Britain and the United States, have recently whipped up a big campaign around the discussion of the so-called "Marshall Plan" in the executive organs of the World Federation of Trade Unions. Those who do not favor the international unity of the working class are making use of this question to cause confusion in the ranks of the WFTU and to damage its integrity. In the first place they aim at slandering the Soviet trade unions.

Distorting the attitude of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (AUCCTU), they slanderously allege that the AUCCTU is preventing discussion of the "Marshall Plan", that the AUCCTU is attempting to convert WFTU into its tool, and so on.

In order to establish the truth and explain the attitude of the Soviet trade unions on the "Marshall Plan," as well as its attitude to WFTU, the AUCCTU considers it necessary to make the present declaration.

The AUCCTU categorically denies the allegation that the Soviet trade unions prevent or want to prevent the national federations of trade unions or individual trade unions from discussing the "Marshall Plan". The AUCCTU has always held and continues to hold the view that every national trade union organization has the complete right and opportunity for free discussion of any political question, including the "Marshall Plan", if it considers it necessary.

Every trade union organization can freely speak for or against this Plan and take the appropriate decision. If anyone wants to believe in the beneficial results of the "Marshall Plan", let him believe it—that is his right. As far as the AUCCTU is concerned, it does not share these illusions.

The Soviet trade unions have always considered economic aid from one country to another, and in particular the granting of foreign credits, as a normal event, as a means of improving the economic situation of these countries.

So only slanderers can assert that the Soviet trade unions are opponents in principle of every kind of economic aid on the part of one country to others, including, of course, American aid.

However, in the opinion of the Soviet trade unions, economic aid by one country to others should exclude any kind of conditions leading to the economic and political subordination of the states receiving aid to the states granting aid.

The "Marshall Plan" in no way corresponds to this condition, but pursues absolutely different aims. The "Marshall Plan" is a direct threat to the sovereignty and independence of the Western European countries. The "Marshall Plan" is calculated to subject the economy of Western Europe to the interests of American industrial magnates. In practice it leads to control over the industry, foreign trade, finances and currency of the West European countries passing into the hands of the American monopolists.

An obligatory condition by the ruling circles of the United States for receipt of the so-called "aid" is the renunciation by the West European countries of their sovereign right to establish independently their national production plans. In future, these plans will be subject to compulsory agreement with the American administration.

From official documents of the United States Government, it is clear that the "Marshall Plan" is calculated to freeze such important branches of the industry of Western Europe as the metal industry, engineering and shipbuilding, which play a great role in safeguarding the independence of these countries.

At the same time, American deliveries of indispensable equipment are deliberately reduced to the most negligible minimum.

Under pressure of the American billionaires, the shipbuilding industries of Britain and Holland, and the automobile and aircraft industries of France, are already winding up their programs. Hundreds of thousands of workers are being deprived of work in consequence of this, and are swelling the army of the unemployed.

According to the "Marshall Plan", the West European States also lose their sovereign rights in the field of foreign trade. On the demand of the American billionaires, the import tariffs of Western Europe are subject to considerable reductions. At the same time, the import tariffs of the United States remain on the previous exceedingly high level.

The exports to Western Europe provided for in the "Marshall Plan" are nothing but a program of the mass dumping of goods, a considerable part of which cannot find sales in the American market and which are sent to Western Europe by way of a compulsory assortment.

Thus the "Marshall Plan" leads in practice to liquidation of the national sovereignty of the West European countries, since it most seriously acts

against the development of the national industry of these countries.

What does the "Marshall Plan" promise to the working class and all the working people of Western Europe? In directing the economy of Western Europe, not along the lines of restoration and development, but along lines of winding up and adapting to the demands of the American billionaires, the "Marshall Plan" cannot but lead to a sharpening of the economic crisis, further deterioration of the already very hard living conditions of the workers, new deprivations and mass unemployment.

But the "Marshall Plan" is by no means exhausted by its economic program. As is admitted in the report of the consultative committee to the President of the United States on aid to foreign states, the interests of the United States in Europe cannot be considered only from the point of view of economic factors—they have also a strategic and political character. As is now known to the whole world, the "Marshall Plan" places on the agenda the creation, under United States leadership, of a military-political bloc of western states aimed against the East European countries.

The United States intends to utilize western Germany, with its powerful war industrial potential, the Ruhr region, as the basic lever for the pursuit of its policy in that bloc.

It is precisely for this reason that the "Marshall Plan" places to the fore the partitioning of Germany and the conversion of its western part into a separate state under American protection. A considerable part of the assignments under the "Marshall Plan" are directed toward strengthening the war industrial base in western Germany.

A peculiarity of the bloc created on the basis of the "Marshall Plan" is the betrothal of the American finance magnates with the German Ruhr magnates, who already twice in the lifetime of one generation have thrown the world into destructive war. According to the "Marshall Plan", the western European countries must be prepared, like Greece and Turkey, to place at the disposal of the United States their strategic bases and strategic raw materials. It follows that this policy pursues the aim of converting Western Europe into the vantage-ground of the American warmongers.

Encroaching upon the national sovereignty and independence of European countries, the "Marshall Plan" foists on them the so-called American "way of thinking", by which one must understand the endeavor to foist on the peoples of Europe the hegemony and domination of the United States.

The American reactionaries want to deprive the peoples of Western Europe of the right to their own way of life and their own way of thinking. It is therefore not surprising that many leaders of trade union centers in European countries are resolutely opposed to the "Marshall Plan".

The reactionary, aggressive content of the "Marshall Plan" is hidden by a smokescreen of anti-communism. On the model of the German fascists, the American expansionists are putting a mask of anti-communism over the policy of strangling the national liberty and independence of the European countries, the policy of struggle against democracy and progress.

Such is our view of the "Marshall Plan".

As regards the question of discussion of the "Marshall Plan" in the World Federation of Trade Unions, the AUCCTU is of the opinion that the "Marshall Plan" embraces the sphere of state-political relations between the United States and various European countries, and includes political questions in the decision of which every state and every trade union center must have complete freedom by virtue of their independence and sovereignty. Therefore the question of the "Marshall Plan" cannot be a question on which the WFTU can make any kind of decisions obligatory on national trade union centers.

Inasmuch as there is an insistent demand for discussion of this question in the executive organs of the Federation, and the Soviet trade unions are obliged to respect the opinions of other member organizations of the Federation, the AUCCTU declares its agreement to discussion of the "Marshall Plan" in the executive organs of the WFTU in the near future—a question which has been raised by the CIO of the United States and the General Council of the British TUC.

In the light of the above considerations, it is clear that the "Marshall Plan" can in no way be a reason for splitting the world trade union movement—for every national trade organization must be completely free to determine its own attitude to this plan.

The AUCCTU considers that the international unity of the working class and the WFTU is based on the voluntary and free co-operation of the trade unions, that it is a non-party organization of the workers and pursues the aim of improving the living standards of the working class. The Soviet trade unions consider, therefore, that one must not convert the national trade unions, which are non-political organizations, into an arena of a political game and political machinations.

One cannot prohibit trade unionists from voting Labor or Communist in Britain, Republican or Democrat in the United States, Catholic or Communist in France or Italy, without risking undermining the unity of the trade union movement. Similarly, it is not possible to prohibit trade unions from voting for the "Marshall Plan" or against it, without endangering the unity of the world trade union movement.

The trade union center of every country is free to have its own opinion on such questions and free to take the corresponding decision.

In the light of the above, the attitude of the General Council of the British TUC, which is convening over the head of the WFTU an international trade union conference for discussion of the "Marshall Plan", does not appear to us to be well founded.

The AUCCTU considers that such separate actions may damage the WFTU, and will undoubtedly be taken advantage of by the enemies of the working class.

As concerns discussion of the "Marshall Plan", the Soviet trade unions consider that it would be more democratic to organize an exchange of opinion of the trade unions on the "Marshall Plan" in the Executive Committee of the WFTU, where the opinion of the trade unions would be most fully represented.

At the same time, it is fully understood that the AUCCTU agrees to any date for the convocation of the Executive Committee.

Such is the point of view of the Soviet trade unions.

Text of the Law on the Budget

THE Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics RESOLVES:

1. To approve the State Budget of the USSR for 1948 submitted by the Council of Ministers of the USSR, together with the amendments adopted in connection with the reports of the Budget Commissions of the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, in the amounts of: 429,149,697,000 rubles total revenue, and 388,040,597,000 rubles total expenditure, the revenue exceeding expenditure by 41,109,100,000 rubles; and, in addition 2,637,274,000 rubles, the residual carry-overs from the republican and local budgets for January 1, 1949.

2. To approve in conformity with Article I, the Union [federal] Budget for 1948, in the amount of 341,077,924,000 rubles revenue and 299,968,824,000 rubles expenditure, revenue exceeding expenditure by 41,109,100,000 rubles.

3. To approve the State Budgets of the Union Republics for 1948 in the following amounts:

	Revenue	*Expenditure*
	(000 omitted)	
Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic	49,316,598	49,316,598
including: the republican budget	38,452,595	12,127,173
local budgets	10,864,003	37,189,425
Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic	15,443,354	15,443,354
including: the republican budget	13,334,526	5,159,395
local budgets	2,108,828	10,283,959
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic.	3,642,375	3,642,375
including: the republican budget	3,232,640	1,419,994
local budgets	409,735	2,222,381
Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic	3,296,646	3,296,646
including: the republican budget	2,910,710	1,617,980
local budgets	385,936	1,678,666
Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic	3,163,124	3,163,124
including: the republican budget	2,730,139	1,219,823
local budgets	432,985	1,943,301
Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic	2,336,582	2,336,582
including: the republican budget	2,050,160	1,023,639
local budgets	286,422	1,312,943
Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic	1,872,926	1,872,926
including: the republican budget	1,617,835	811,728
local budgets	255,091	1,061,198
Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,199,120	1,199,120
including: the republican budget	1,046,762	627,847
local budgets	152,358	571,273
Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,008,579	1,008,579
including: the republican budget	925,705	398,761
local budgets	82,874	609,818
Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,450,847	1,450,847
including: the republican budget	1,133,089	824,386
local budgets	317,758	626,461
Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic	930,902	930,902
including: the republican budget	806,565	402,907
local budgets	124,337	527,995
Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic	945,400	945,400
including: the republican budget	852,271	441,902
local budgets	93,129	503,498
Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,056,367	1,056,367
including: the republican budget	982,203	583,113
local budgets	74,164	473,254
Turkmen Soviet Socialist Republic	836,760	836,760
including: the republican budget	739,994	440,524
local budgets	96,766	396,236
Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic	922,901	922,901
including: the republican budget	798,431	539,007
local budgets	124,470	383,894
Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic	649,292	649,292
including: the republican budget	611,600	445,201
local budgets	37,692	204,091
Total for the republican & local budgets	88,071,773	88,071,773
including: the republican budgets	72,225,225	28,083,380
local budgets	15,846,548	59,988,393

4. To fix the residual carry-overs from the republican and local budgets for January 1, 1949 in the following amounts: 1,476,275,000 rubles for the RSFSR; 462,579,000 rubles for the Ukrainian SSR; 109,146,000 rubles for the Byelorussian SSR; 98,746,000 rubles for the Uzbek SSR; 94,748,000 rubles for the Kazakh SSR; 70,009,000 rubles for the Georgian SSR; 56,104,000 rubles for the Azerbaijan SSR; 35,929,000 rubles for the Lithuanian SSR; 30,210,000 rubles for the Moldavian SSR; 43,473,000 rubles for the Latvian SSR; 27,891,000 rubles for the Kirghiz SSR; 28,324,000 rubles for the Tajik SSR; 31,655,000 rubles for the Armenian SSR; 25,069,000 rubles for the Turkmen SSR; 27,650,000 rubles for the Estonian SSR; 19,466,000 rubles for the Karelo-Finnish SSR.

5. To approve the allocations from the republican budgets to the budgets of the Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics and of the local Soviets for 1948 in the following sums:

	In thousands of rubles
For the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic	26,325,422
For the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic	8,175,131
For the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,812,646
For the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic	1,292,730
For the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic	1,510,316
For the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic	1,026,521
For the Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic	806,107
For the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic	418,915
For the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic	526,944
For the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic	308,703
For the Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic	403,658
For the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic	410,369
For the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic	399,090
For the Turkmen Soviet Socialist Republic	299,470
For the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic	259,424
For the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic	166,399
TOTAL	44,141,845

(*Continued on p. 152*)

Progress of Heavy Industry

An Interview with D. Raizer

Deputy Minister of Heavy Industry Plant Construction of the USSR

THE Soviet Union is working hard on the rehabilitation of the ravaged plants of heavy industry and on the building of new ones. We are continuing to restore the plants the Germans destroyed and to construct hundreds of new mills and factories.

The postwar Five-Year Plan provides for the restoration and construction of 5,900 industrial enterprises, including 45 blast furnaces, 165 open hearth furnaces, 15 converters and 90 electric furnaces with a gross capacity of 16,200,000 tons of steel a year, 104 rolling mills, and 63 batteries of coke ovens. The restored and newly sunk iron ore mines will have a total capacity of 35,400,000 tons of ore.

During the first two years of the Five-Year Plan (1946 and 1947) nearly 1,900 industrial enterprises were built, rehabilitated and put into operation.

"During the current year," said Deputy Minister D. Raizer, "we are faced with a much larger program than last year's, which was quite large too. Suffice it to say that at Zaporozhstal we restored the powerful blast furnace, the heat and power generating station, the thin sheet rolling mill, the cold rolling mill and one battery of coke ovens; at the Nikopol works, the big tube rolling mill; at the Karl Liebknecht plant at Dniepropetrovsk—a mill (the largest in the USSR) to produce seamless wheels for the railways. Many other iron and steel works, machine building enterprises, ore mines and dwelling houses have been restored.

"The Ministry of Heavy Industry Plant Construction will build rails and girder shops at the iron and steel works of the South and the Urals.

"Three shops, which will produce rails, girders and sleepers for the railways and the building trade, will be put into operation in the course of the present year.

"The program of the third year of the Five-Year Plan provides for a considerable increase in the capacity of the steel works. Many open hearth furnaces will be restored and modernized and many new ones built at the steel works of the Donbas and the Dneiper regions.

"The plan for the current year also provides for the restoration of the blast furnaces including the No. 4 blast furnace of the Azovstal works. Unlike the other Soviet blast furnaces, the steel shell of furnace No. 4 will be welded.

"This year work will be completed on the first section of the Transcaucasian iron and steel works, the heat and power generating station and a big blooming mill. Rehabilitation of the Red October iron and steel works at Stalingrad and the Kharkov tractor works will be completed this year. The new tractor plants at Vladimir and Lipetsk will, in the main, be completed this year too.

"This year, builders will lay the foundation for two new iron and steel works: one at Karaganda in the Kazakh Republic; the other in the northwestern part of the USSR.

"The immediate and most significant task now facing the Soviet Government is an intensive development of the iron ore resources of the country. Much work will be carried out in the Krivoy Rog ore basin and in the Urals.

"I have enumerated but a part of what we'll have to accomplish this year," said Raizer.

The workers of the building organizations have developed wide-scale socialist competition to complete production programs ahead of schedule. They are building new blast furnaces, open hearth furnaces, rolling mills, coke batteries, concentration plants, chemical, tractor and other works, workers' settlements, and are sinking iron ore mines.

The newspapers published a collective letter from the builders of Zaporozhye, Krivoy Rog and Nikopol to Joseph Stalin in which they assured the Soviet Government that they will fulfill the Five-Year Plan in 1949, instead of 1950.

The initiative of the builders of Zaporozhye, Krivoy Rog and Nikopol was supported by all the workers of the building trades. Thousands of the builders working on the construction of enterprises of the heavy industry have joined in the nation-wide socialist drive for the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years.

Budget

(Continued from p. 151)

6. To fix the 1948 allocations from the All-Union state taxes and revenues to the republican and local budgets in the following amounts:

(a) from the revenue accruing from the turnover tax: to the RSFSR, 7.6 per cent; the Ukrainian SSR, 17.5 per cent; the Byelorussian SSR, 30 per cent; the Uzbek SSR, 19.5 per cent; the Kazakh SSR, 21.3 per cent; the Georgian SSR, 19.5 per cent; the Azerbaijan SSR, 18.7 per cent; the Lithuanian SSR, 22.7 per cent; the Moldavian SSR, 40.5 per cent; the Latvian SSR, 9 per cent; the Kirghiz SSR, 25.8 per cent; the Tajik SSR, 37.2 per cent; the Armenian SSR, 37.2 per cent; the Turkmen SSR, 21.3 per cent; the Estonian SSR, 16.4 per cent; the Karelo-Finnish SSR, 45.8 per cent.

(b) from the revenue accruing from income taxes, from the agricultural taxes paid by the collective farmers and individual peasant households, income taxes from the collective farms, from the bachelor tax and taxes on childless citizens of the USSR and citizens with small families, from taxes on the incomes of the machine and tractor stations and from the state loan subscribed by the people: 50 per cent.

7. To approve the report on the fulfillment of the State Budget of the USSR for 1946, in the amounts of 325,437,136,000 rubles for revenue and 307,545,479,000 rubles for expenditure, the revenue exceeding expenditure by 17,891,657,000 rubles.

CHAIRMAN OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR N. SHVERNIK

SECRETARY OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE USSR A. GORKIN

Moscow, the Kremlin,
February 4, 1948.

Zverev's Report on the Budget

Report to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR by Deputy A. G. Zverev, Minister of Finance of the USSR, on the State Budget of the USSR for 1948, the Execution of the State Budget for 1946, and preliminary results of Budget fulfillment for 1947.

COMRADES deputies! The State Budget of the USSR submitted by the Council of Ministers of the USSR for the consideration and approval of the Fourth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, has as its aim to ensure the financing of all the measures envisaged by the national economic program for the third year of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan.

The past year, 1947, was marked by a great political and labor upsurge on the part of the whole Soviet people.

The Soviet Union is successfully restoring and developing its national economy and culture, and steadily improving the material well-being of the people.

The program for the first two years of the Five-Year Plan for gross output of industry has been fully carried out. According to data of the State Planning Commission of the USSR, industrial output in 1947 increased from quarter to quarter as compared with the corresponding periods of 1946: in the first quarter by 12 per cent, in the second by 18 per cent, in the third by 26 per cent and in the fourth by 30 per cent. The year's program for gross industrial output was exceeded by 3.5 per cent, which made for an increase of 22 per cent over 1946.

Thanks to the successful fulfillment of the decisions of the February Plenary Session of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and the self-sacrificing labor of the collective farmers, our agriculture is overcoming the difficulties of the postwar period, aggravated by the 1946 drought, and is confidently advancing. The gross output of agriculture in 1947 increased by 32 per cent as compared with 1946, and the gross grain harvest, by 58 per cent.

The powerful growth in industrial and agricultural production served as a basis for an increase in state and cooperative retail trade by 17 per cent in 1947 as compared with 1946.

Last year's State Budget of the USSR was fulfilled with an excess of revenue over expenditure of 24,000 million rubles, revenue under the state budget increasing by 18.4 per cent as compared with 1946.

The most important event in 1947 was the monetary reform and the abolition of rationing effected by the Party and the Soviet Government. These measures made it possible to replace inferior money by a stable ruble and to go over to unrestricted, expanded trade at uniform state prices.

At all stages of socialist construction, the Party of Lenin and Stalin and the Soviet Government have attached the greatest importance to the stability of the Soviet ruble and have taken all steps to strengthen our monetary system. An important role was played by the Soviet ruble in the years of peaceful construction and during the Great Patriotic War.

Colossal funds were required to meet the needs of the front and to gear industrial production to wartime exigencies. This led to the emission of a large amount of money, a fact which could not but have a negative effect on the purchasing power of the ruble. Moreover, the German fascist invaders issued counterfeit money on the temporary occupied territories, which clogged our currency circulation. Special measures had to be taken to strengthen the Soviet monetary system.

The monetary reform and the abolition of rationing of food and manufactured goods are of the greatest importance for the national economy. The monetary reform is destined to eliminate the consequences of the Second World War in the sphere of currency circulation, restore a Soviet ruble of full value and facilitate the transition to open trade without rationing at uniform state prices.

The monetary reform is aimed at further strengthening the economic might of the Soviet State and at heightening still further the living standards of the masses, and fully meets the vital interests of the working people.

The monetary reform and the abolition of rationing have enhanced the importance of wages and the monetary income of collective farmers. A Soviet ruble of full value offers favorable grounds for further strengthening economic accounting and raising labor productivity, facilitates a more rapid advance of the national economy, an increase in public wealth and, on this basis, a rise in the living standard of the working people.

A struggle for exemplary fulfillment of production programs has already been launched by enterprises; labor productivity is rising and the output of consumer goods is substantially increasing.

As a result of the monetary reform and the abolition of rationing, real wages and other monetary income of the population have risen and major material benefits have been created for the working people of our country. Uniform state retail prices 10 to 12 per cent lower than the ration prices existing before the reform have been introduced for bread and cereals; commercial prices for food and manufactured goods have been abolished. At the same time wages and other monetary income of the working people have remained at the same level. As is known from the report of the State Planning Commission of the USSR, the reduction of state retail prices alone represents a clear gain of more than 57,000 million rubles for the working people of our country. Moreover, cooperative prices have also been lowered. Prices for agricultural products on collective farm markets have dropped by one-half to two-thirds and in Novosibirsk, Orel, Smolensk and many other towns they are now on a par with or even below the uniform state retail prices.

The strengthening of the Soviet ruble, the increase in production of consumer goods, and the promotion of open Soviet trade create the necessary conditions for a further increase in the real wages of workers and office em-

ployees and in the income of collective farmers.

All this is evidence of the fundamental difference in principle between our monetary reform and those carried out in capitalist countries. The Soviet State assumed the major part of the sacrifice involved in the reform, whereas in capitalist countries the whole burden of monetary reforms is shifted onto the shoulders of the working masses and is accompanied by cuts in wages, dismissal of workers and office employees, a growth in unemployment and a drop in the living standard of the working people.

As a result of the Second World War the capitalist countries are experiencing an acute currency crisis and derangement of their monetary systems. In an effort to shift the burden of the aftermath of the war and the expenditures entailed in the restoration of the economy onto the shoulders of the working people, the bourgeoisie is resorting to inflation on a large scale, which enables the capitalists to amass great wealth at the expense of the people.

There is severe inflation in even such a capitalist country as the United States, which profited by the war. Industrial production has diminished there since the war; unemployment is growing, and the capitalist monopolies are steadily inflating prices for commodities. The situation in other capitalist states is no better.

As was the case after the First World War, all the capitalist countries are experiencing serious disorder of their economy and currency circulation. The Soviet Union, which bore the main burden of the most devastating and arduous of all wars known to mankind, has restored normal currency circulation within two years after the termination of the war.

Inspired by the achievements of the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the Soviet people are confidently forging ahead to a new advance in the national economy, to new heights of culture and science, and to a further strengthening of the might of their State.

The recent elections to local Soviets of Working People's Deputies once again demonstrated the mighty and indestructible moral and political unity of all the nations inhabiting our great Homeland, rallied around the Communist Party, around their beloved leader, the great Stalin. (*Stormy, prolonged applause. All rise.*)

The remarkable achievements which all branches of the national economy scored in 1947 once again testify to the great strength and viability of the Soviet State and social system, the advantages of Soviet socialist economy. These successes are the result of the self-sacrificing labor of the Soviet people, the broad sweep of socialist competition directed toward the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the Stalin master plan. These successes have been achieved, thanks to the tried leadership of the Bolshevik Party, which organizes and directs the struggle of the working people for the communist transformation of society.

On the initiative of the working people of Leningrad, a nationwide movement for the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years was launched. Millions of Soviet men and women are successfully coping with this task and will undoubtedly score new victories in the third year of the Five-Year Plan in their struggle for the further prosperity of our country, which is advancing toward communism along the path charted by Lenin, under the sage guidance of the great Stalin. (*Stormy, prolonged applause.*)

State Budget of the USSR for 1948

BEFORE passing over to a discussion of the draft Budget for 1948, permit me to report on the fulfillment of the State Budget for 1946 and the preliminary results of Budget fulfillment for 1947.

The State Budget of the USSR for 1946 was fulfilled in the sum of 325,400 million rubles of revenue and 307,500 million rubles of expenditures. The excess of revenue over expenditures amounted to 17,900 million rubles.

In 1947 there was a substantial increase in the Budget as compared with 1946. Budget revenue for 1947 as compared with 1946 increased by 59,800 million rubles, and expenditures by 53,700 million rubles.

The State Budget of the USSR for 1947, according to preliminary figures, has been fulfilled in the sum of 385,200 million rubles of revenue and 361,200 million rubles of expenditures, or with an increase of revenue over expenditures, as I mentioned before, of 24,000 million rubles, i.e., by 4,000 million rubles more than the approved sum.

The plan for Budget receipts from profits was fulfilled by 119.2 per cent; from state loans, by 115.6 per cent; and from taxes paid by the population, by 101.1 per cent. At the same time it must be pointed out that as a result of insufficient receipts from turnover tax on commercial trade, the revenue side of the 1947 Budget was 2.3 per cent short of fulfillment.

Expenditures under the 1947 Budget amounted to 100.6 per cent of the sum fixed for the national economy, and 99.4 per cent of the appropriations for social and cultural measures.

With a view to the tasks set by the State Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy in the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the draft of the State Budget for 1948 is submitted for approval to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the sum of 428,000 million rubles of revenue and 387,900 million rubles of expenditures, i.e., an excess of revenue over expenditures of 40,100 million rubles.

This increase of revenue over expenditures at a time when the population, as a result of the monetary reform and the abolition of rationing, have gained, while the State, which assumed the greater burden of the sacrifice, suffered losses connected with price reductions amounting to 57,000 million rubles, is evidence of the might of our country and the stability of the Soviet financial system. It must be admitted, however, that compiling the revenue side of the Budget involved no little effort, inasmuch as receipts from commercial trade, which occupied an important place in State Budget revenue, dropped out. In compiling the Budget certain reductions in expenditure items had to be made, a number of claims by Union Ministries and Union Republics had to be postponed for a time owing to the fact that a number of major items of revenue have dropped out, and steps had to be taken to obtain more revenue from existing sources. This also involves greater economy in the expenditure of funds in all branches of the national economy. Much work has to be done to

fulfill the revenue items of the Budget and to economize on expenditures.

As compared with the previous year, Budget revenue is to increase by 42,800 million rubles, or 11.1 per cent, and expenditures, by 26,700 million rubles, or 7.4 per cent.

Revenue under the State Budget is to increase in connection with greater receipts from socialist enterprises and organizations due to an increase in production, development of trade, lowering of production costs and trade expenditures, reduction in construction costs and mobilization of reserves available in the economy.

The share of expenditures for the national economy and culture in the Budget as a whole is increased to 68.4 per cent as against 66.2 per cent in 1947; and the share of expenditures for the country's defense is decreased to 17 per cent against 18.4 per cent last year.

The important tasks envisaged by the State Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy in 1948 place great demands on finance and banking personnel, directors of enterprises, institutions and organizations, who are called upon to ensure the fulfillment of the Budget and introduce the strictest state discipline in finance.

Revenue From Socialist Economy

THE growth in the volume of production in 1948 and the increase in trade on the basis of the promotion of trade at uniform state prices create the necessary prerequisites for increasing Budget receipts from turnover tax and profit—these major sources of revenue from socialist economy.

Revenue from turnover tax in 1948 is set at 280,100 million rubles as against 239,900 million rubles in 1947.

The notable growth in turnover tax in 1948 places greater demands on heads of enterprises and economic organizations with regard to the fulfillment of production programs. Yet the results of the work last year show that in some very important branches of our economy, there are some substantial shortcomings in the fulfillment of state assignments. Many enterprises of the Ministries of the textile industry, the fish industry of the Eastern Areas and the timber industry did not fulfill their output programs. As a result of non-fulfillment of this program for textiles, receipts from turnover tax for the Ministry of the Textile Industry (headed by Minister Sedin) were 271 million rubles short last year. Owing to non-fulfillment of the program for the catch and sale of fish, receipts from turnover tax for the Ministry of the Fishing Industry of the Eastern Areas (headed by Minister Zakharov) were 358 million rubles short last year. The same holds true for the Ministry of the Timber Industry (headed by Minister Orlov). The program for matches was unfulfilled and the budget lost 65 million rubles of turnover tax on that account.

In some Union Republics, a number of enterprises and organizations failed to fulfill their obligations under the Budget. The enterprises of the meat industry of the Kazakh Republic, for example, were short 39 million rubles of turnover tax owing to non-fulfillment of the sales plan. The enterprises of the republican textile industry of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic were short 13 million rubles of turnover tax owing to non-fulfillment of their production programs.

Long delays in the payment of considerable sums of taxes by economic organizations have been observed in a number of regions. The meat packing plant in the town of Penza, for example, has been systematically holding up payment of large sums of taxes due under the Budget. The meat packing plant of Frunze, Kirghiz SSR, repeatedly held up payment of turnover tax in 1947.

Some heads of business organizations have taken to withholding information about turnover subject to taxation. The Samarkand city trading organization of the Uzbek SSR concealed information on the sale of oil products in 1947 and withheld the sum of 600 thousand rubles.

Serious shortcomings have also been registered in the work of finance agencies in a number of republics, territories and regions. Last year, the Government pointed to some serious defects in the taxing of turnover. The finance agencies of certain republics, territories and regions, however, are still not displaying sufficient persistence in fulfilling the turnover tax plan; they do not show enough firmness toward the business organizations and are not taking decisive steps to put an end to arrears. As a result, although arrears on turnover tax for the country as a whole dropped in 1947 from 0.16 per cent to 0.11 per cent of the total sum of taxes, in some Union Republics arrears increased. In the Kazakh SSR for example (headed by Finance Minister Shugailo), arrears had increased to 13 million rubles by January 1, 1948; in the Uzbek SSR (headed by Finance Minister Isamedtdinov), to 19 million rubles. This applies also to Chelyabinsk Region (chief of the Regional Finance Department Korshunov), Penza Region (chief of the Regional Finance Department Romanov), and a number of other regions, which have not fully done away with shortcomings in collecting taxes on turnover.

These finance agencies must eliminate the shortcomings in their work without delay and must ensure plan fulfillment. In their turn, the Councils of Ministers of the Union and Autonomous Republics, the Executive Committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, and heads of Ministries and departments must call strictly to account the heads of enterprises and organizations which fail to fulfill production programs and Budget obligations.

Fulfillment of the plan for profits is law for all business executives, especially after the monetary reform. They must strive in every way to increase the profits of their enterprises by cutting overhead expenditures and lowering production costs. Of tremendous importance in this respect is large-scale and bold introduction of new technique, better methods of production organization, fuller utilization of all stimuli for raising labor productivity, and relentless struggle against mismanagement in any form.

We have a number of enterprises which have achieved good results in the rationalization of production, economy of funds, fulfillment of production programs and lowering of production costs.

There are, however, a number of facts testifying to the absence of a proper attitude to public property from the standpoint of the interests of the State. Some heads of enterprises do not pay sufficient heed to the need to econo-

mize materials; they countenance excess use of raw materials, fuel and other losses. Nor do they pay sufficient attention to the economic and financial indices of the work of the enterprises; they do not care how much the production of a unit of output costs, and do not strive to make the business pay and to fulfill the profits plan.

The Ministry of the Pulp and Paper Industry, for instance, did not fulfill its output program. Many enterprises of this Ministry tolerated big losses in the expenditure of raw materials and supplies. All this led to an increase in the cost of output of 25 million rubles. Non-productive expenditures and losses due to idle equipment at enterprises of this Ministry amounted to 40 million rubles in 1947.

Output of farm machinery by the Ministry of the Agricultural Machinery Industry increased notably in 1947 as compared with 1946. Nevertheless, a number of enterprises fell short of their production programs. The Kazakh Agricultural Machinery Works, for example, fulfilled its production program by only 31 per cent; the Communard factory, by 38 per cent; the Pervomaisk factory, by 49 per cent. As a result, enterprises of this Ministry suffered great losses in 1947.

The Ministry of the Agricultural Machinery Industry must intensify control over fulfillment by its enterprises of their output programs and production cost plans, improve finance management and prevent losses.

In many cases, considerable reserves for lowering production costs are not utilized. This is evidenced by the difference in production cost for identical items at different enterprises. For example, the cost of a press for making tiles at the Andijan works of the Ministry of the Building and Road Machinery Industry, (headed by Director Burkutsky) was 9,104 rubles, on the average, for nine months in 1947, while at the Izhevsk plant of the same Ministry (headed by Director Samodelkin), it cost 2,429 rubles.

This great difference in production cost is explained chiefly by the fact that at the Andijan works, twice as much materials and semi-manufactured goods are used for each press as at the Izhevsk works. Overhead expenses at the Andijan works are four times higher, and losses from spoilage, five times higher, than at the Izhevsk works.

The Yenakievo iron and steel works of the Ministry of the Iron and Steel Industry (headed by Director Goncharenko) exceeded its quota of raw material and fuel for nine months of 1947 by 5,100,000 rubles with the result that production costs soared.

Losses incurred as a result of spoilage for nine months of 1947 at the Chelyabinsk electrode works of the Ministry of the Non-Ferrous Metals Industry (headed by Director Bai) amounted to 4,200,000 rubles.

Judging by these facts mismanagement has not yet been eliminated at some enterprises. These facts point also to the tremendous reserves existing in industry. The heads of these enterprises should learn from the experience of leading plants in order to ensure plan fulfillment and systematically to lower production costs and overhead expenses. It should be remembered that a saving of only one per cent in expenditures at enterprises under the jurisdiction of all-Union and republican Ministries amounted to nearly 1,800 million rubles in 1947.

The attention of heads of enterprises and public organizations must be focused on the problem of lowering production costs and increasing profits. According to the decision of the Government, fulfillment of the plan for lowering production costs, as well as fulfillment of output programs, must be regarded as one of the most important indices in summarizing the results of socialist competition.

Revenue From the Population

THE budget revenues received from the population in the form of taxes and state loans are being reduced from 13.9 per cent of the total sum of the Budget revenues in 1947 to 12.5 per cent this year.

Budget revenues from state taxes are fixed at the sum of 31,100 million rubles as against 28,000 million in 1947. This increase is explained in the main by the growth in the number of taxpayers and the wage fund of workers and office employees. Urban and rural taxation rates are not being raised.

Taxes and other revenue from the population, despite the fact that they account for a negligible share in the Budget, are of great political significance. They affect the interests of wide strata of the working people. Hence finance workers must strictly observe tax legislation.

Some financial agencies, however, have been guilty of serious shortcomings and violations in their work. There have been cases of laxity in the assessment of agricultural taxes and poor organization in tax collection in the Russian SFSR—in Krasnodar Territory (head of the Territorial Financial Department, Nifatov); in Omsk Region (head of the Regional Financial Department, Osetrov); in Kemerova Region (head of the Regional Financial Department, Birkin); in the Byelorussian SSR—in Baranovichi Region (head of the Regional Financial Department, Dupanov); in the Latvian SSR (Minister of Finance, Tabaks).

The heads of the financial agencies mentioned must draw the necessary conclusions and improve their work.

At the same time, it is necessary for the Councils of Ministers of the Union and Autonomous Republics and territorial, regional and district Executive Committees of Soviets of Working People's Deputies to devote more attention to this highly important sphere of financial work.

Revenues from state loans are projected at 22,600 million rubles as against 25,700 million rubles in 1947, including the sum of 20,000 million rubles in loan subscriptions by the population this year.

Savings bank deposits by the population during 1947 continued to grow. Financial agencies, with the help of the local Soviets, improved the work of the savings banks, and secured an improvement in services to the population.

In connection with the monetary reform, the savings banks did a great deal of work in revaluating the accounts of depositors and changing bonds of the state lottery loan of 1938 for bonds of the state three per cent internal lottery loan.

In carrying out the monetary reform, considerable advantages, as is known, were accorded the working people who kept their savings in savings banks, as compared with those who had their money on hand. The savings of 80 per

cent of the depositors remained unaffected by the exchange. This provides favorable conditions for encouraging a new influx of deposits in the savings banks.

By the beginning of 1948, deposits of the population in savings banks amounted to 12,800 million rubles. This year the sum of the deposits is expected to increase by 1,500 million rubles.

The fulfillment of the plan of revenue from the population demands the most careful attention on the part of the financial agencies and the savings banks.

Expenditures of the State Budget for 1948

As I have already said, the expenditures of the State Budget for 1948 have been fixed in the sum of 387,900 million rubles, i.e., 26,700 rubles more than in 1947.

The principal expenditure items of the State Budget have been set as follows (in millions of rubles):

	1947	*Plan for 1948*	*Difference*
Total expenditures:	361,200	387,900	+26,700
(which includes:)			
National economy	132,700	149,000	+16,300
Social and cultural measures	106,500	116,300	+ 9,800
Ministry of the Armed Forces	66,400	66,100	— 300
Administrative expenses	13,000	13,500	+ 500
Expenditures on state loans	6,500	3,500	— 3,000

Such a growth in expenditures of the State Budget for the national economy and culture ensures the further development of our postwar economy.

The State Budget for 1948 fixes the sum for the maintenance of the armed forces at 66,100 million rubles, which, as is indicated above, is 17 per cent of the total budgetary expenditures. If we take comparable data, the expenditures on the armed forces for 1948 are reduced by 2,500 million rubles as compared with 1947.

Financing the National Economy

Of the total expenditures, the amount routed from the funds of the State Budget to finance the national economy, in accordance with the national economic plan for 1948, is as follows (in millions of rubles):

	1947	*1948*	*Difference*
Industry	83,900	93,900	+10,000
Agriculture	16,800	20,000	+ 3,200
Transport and Communications	12,000	13,800	+ 1,800
Trade and Procurements	4,200	4,200	———

Allocations from the State Budget for capital construction in 1948 is projected at the sum of 60,900 million rubles.

It must be said that in spite of the substantial funds released for capital investments, a large part of the requests of the Union Ministries in the republics for an increase of capital investments was not satisfied in order not to overstrain the budget.

The plan for capital construction in 1948 provides for the concentration of investments first and foremost on those construction undertakings which will begin production this year. This makes it possible to expedite the putting into production of new enterprises and to obtain quicker returns from capital investments, which is particularly important this year.

This holds equally for housing construction, where, too, very often there are delays before houses are ready for occupancy.

The fulfillment of this great national economic task demands more vigorous measures to combat diffusion of state funds allocated for capital construction. Last year there were frequent cases when, as a result of the diffusion of funds among many construction jobs, the putting into production of new enterprises lagged considerably behind the plan of capital construction.

For instance, according to preliminary data, as of January 1, 1948, the plan for capital construction of the Ministry of the Rubber Industry was fulfilled by 73 per cent, while the plan for the putting into production of enterprises, by only 53.7 per cent. For the Ministry of Light Industry the plan of capital investments was fulfilled by 55.4 per cent; the plan for putting enterprises into production, by 38 per cent. The plan for capital investments of the Ministry of the Building Materials Industry for 1947 was fulfilled by 60.3 per cent, while the plan for the putting into production of enterprises was fulfilled by only 23.1 per cent. The Estonian Shale Construction Trust of the Ministry of Construction of Fuel Enterprises (headed by Goldberg) developed 15 construction sites and did not complete construction and put into production any of them within the time limits set by the Government.

Of the greatest importance to the State in 1948 is the cutting of construction costs by all possible means, observance of the strictest economy, maximum effectiveness of capital investments and concentration of funds on construction sites in line for beginning production. This is one of the most important conditions for raising the effectiveness of capital investments.

The law on the Five-Year Plan envisages a 12 per cent reduction in the cost of construction work by the end of the Five-Year Plan, as against the 1945 level. Yet certain Ministries permit an increase in construction costs as a result of non-fulfillment of plan, unlawful utilization of state funds and disregard of financial discipline. For example, in the Central Administration of Iron and Steel Construction for the Eastern Areas of the Ministry of Heavy Industry Construction (headed by Ivanovsky), the plan for construction and assembly work for 1947 was fulfilled by 58.5 per cent.

Owing to non-fulfillment of the plan for construction and assembly work and the target figures for lowering construction costs, the organizations of this administration instead of ending the year 1947 with the accumulations called for by plan, showed considerable losses.

The Ministry of Heavy Industry

Construction should draw the necessary conclusions from all this and ensure in 1948 a reduction in construction costs and put the finances of all its enterprises in proper order.

A number of administrations of the Ministry for the Construction of Military and Naval Enterprises are also failing to fulfill their programs, with the result that the losses of the Chief Administration of the Construction of Military Enterprises for the Central Areas (headed by Vilvovsky) and the corresponding administration for the Western Areas (headed by Mogilny) for 1947 were more than 60 million rubles.

The Ministry for the Construction of Military and Naval Enterprises must decisively improve direction of its enterprises and organizations and attain a considerable consolidation in their financial activity.

The organizations placing orders should play a major part in the most effective utilization of funds earmarked for capital investments. Yet they often are not interested in the financial status of the construction jobs, and do not see to it that state funds are expended rationally. There are facts showing that these organizations have taken over construction jobs from builders without verifying the actual state of the given enterprises, thereby inflicting a loss to the State.

Thus, according to inspections made during the past year, it has been established that in the construction of the Surovikino condensed milk factory of the Ministry of the Meat and Dairy Industry of the USSR, the papers signed on taking over the enterprise from the builders showed the volume of the work done to be 16.6 per cent more than was actually the case. At the Dolgov distillery of the Ministry of the Grocery Supplies Industry of the USSR, the volume of work was shown to be 34.7 per cent more than was actually done.

The organizations placing the orders must together with contractors bear full responsibility to the State for the careful expenditure of funds released for construction.

With the tremendous scale of construction work, mobilization of the internal resources is of great significance to the national economy. By mobilizing their internal resources, the construction undertakings and enterprises release funds from circulation for their effective utilization in the national economy.

But construction organizations in many cases do not mobilize their internal resources and continue to ship in superfluous and needless materials and equipment, while some Ministries do not combat this, do not redistribute their materials.

In 1946, equipment valued at a million rubles was shipped to the Zuyevo district power station on instructions from the Ministry of Electric Power Stations, although it had no need of this equipment whatsoever. Almost two years have passed and the equipment still remains unused.

Construction organizations must concentrate their attention on fulfilling their tasks as regards lowering construction costs as called for by the Five-Year Plan and on mobilizing the tremendous reserves of materials and equipment. This will yield the country a considerable saving, accelerate the starting of equipment, facilitate an increase in the rate of extended reproduction and the pre-schedule fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan.

In accordance with the growth in the volume of production and trade, the State Budget for 1948 envisages an increase in allocations for working capital of enterprises and organizations. The total increase of working capital is fixed for 1948 in the sum of 17,100 million rubles, including 10,700 million rubles from the State Budget funds and 6,400 million rubles from the resources of the economic bodies themselves.

The proper utilization of working capital is of enormous significance. One of the indices of this is the acceleration of its turnover. The utilization of working capital for other than the purposes for which it has been planned, and the freezing of it in unnecessary stocks of commodities and other materials, disrupts the normal progress of production, lays a strain on the entire economy and the finances of enterprises, results in non-fulfillment of obligations under the State Budget and leads to arrears in payments to suppliers and on loans granted by the State Bank.

The Ministries and other government departments must strengthen the accounting and credit discipline of the business organizations and not allow the building up of excessive reserves of goods and raw materials at enterprises and construction sites, put their stocks and warehouses in order, check up more often on the accounts with suppliers and the State Bank and introduce proper order in the utilization of working capital.

Financing Social and Cultural Measures

THE Soviet State is annually increasing expenditures on social and cultural measures. In the State Budget for 1948, the sum of 116,300 million rubles, i.e., 9,800 million rubles more than last year, is earmarked for these expenditures.

Of the sum total of appropriations for social and cultural measures, 59,100 million rubles are for education.

Appreciable funds are set apart for maintaining elementary and secondary schools. The number of pupils in general schools will this year reach 32,200,000 and top the prewar figure.

Tremendous attention is paid in our country to the training of personnel for the national economy. The number of students in higher educational establishments will in 1948 amount to 722 thousand, i.e., will top the target for the last year of the current Five-Year Plan.

There will be 2,183,000 persons studying in trade, railway and factory schools, in 1948. In the current year our country will get 1,187,000 skilled workers from the trade and factory schools, 368 thousand more than last year. Big sums are earmarked from the State Budget for raising the qualifications of specialists in various branches of the national economy.

Expenditures in the State Budget for financing research institutions are being increased by 7.2 per cent as compared with last year. This provides for broadening the scope of research in all branches of the national economy.

The Budget envisages a sum of 20,500 million rubles for expenditures on public health in 1948. The growth of these expenditures is explained by the expansion of the system of medical institutions, maternity homes and children's institutions.

The sum of 22,600 million rubles is being appropriated for state social wel-

fare, i.e., for the most part, for paying out pensions to labor and war invalids.

Expenditures under the state social insurance budget will amount to 15,700 million rubles.

Effective expenditure of the enormous funds assigned for further developing social and cultural measures will to a considerable degree depend upon rational organization of the system of educational, medical and other institutions. There have been instances when schools, technical schools, and other educational institutions have been opened without any regard to a normal load. Sometimes parallel educational institutions are established to no purpose. Some junior secondary schools have six to eight pupils in the upper grades. Of the 1,928 specialized secondary educational establishments maintained by the Ministries of Education, Health, and Agriculture, 260 had less than one hundred students each. All this makes education more expensive.

The effectiveness with which the funds assigned for culture are utilized is frequently diminished because the heads of some institutions countenance mismanagement of state funds, overstep approved estimates, and sometimes make entirely useless expenditures. Especially deserving of attention in this connection are expenditures on new theater and cinema productions. Here no few excesses are observed. For example, superfluous expenditures by the State Academic Bolshoi Theater on some productions exceeded 150 thousand rubles. The Kuibyshev Theater of Opera and Ballet overdrew 375 thousand rubles for new productions in 1947. The Ashkhabad Film Studio has been working on one film for more than two years and cannot manage to finish it.

The Government has censured the reprehensible practices of the Committee on Arts, which not only did not fight for rational utilization of state funds but connived in violations of financial discipline.

Responsibility for this also rests with finance personnel for not effecting proper control over the utilization of state funds assigned for art.

It is necessary to intensify control over the expenditure of funds assigned for culture in the State Budget, to be more stringent in combating overdrafts and violations of finance discipline.

State Budgets of Union Republics

DEVELOPMENT of republican and local economy and the further promotion of social and cultural measures make for a growth in the budgets of the Union Republics.

In 1948, the state budgets of the Union Republics are being increased by 5,300 million rubles as compared with last year, and are being submitted for your approval in the sum of 87,900 million rubles.

For the various Union Republics, the Budget projects are envisaged in the following sums (in millions of rubles):

	1947 fulfillment according to preliminary data	*1948*	*Per Cent of 1947*
Russian SFSR	46,187	49,235	106.6
Ukrainian SSR	14,714	15,419	104.8
Byelorussian SSR	3,423	3,638	106.3
Uzbek SSR	3,104	3,292	106.1
Kazakh SSR	2,947	3,158	107.2
Georgian SSR	2,156	2,334	108.3
Azerbaijan SSR	1,736	1,870	107.7
Lithuanian SSR	1,042	1,198	115.0
Moldavian SSR	982	1,007	102.5
Latvian SSR	1,321	1,449	109.7
Kirghiz SSR	893	930	104.1
Tajik SSR	920	944	102.6
Armenian SSR	1,043	1,055	101.2
Turkmen SSR	782	836	106.9
Estonian SSR	878	922	105.0
Karelian-Finnish SSR	543	648	119.3

The growth in the production programs of republican and local industry and the co-operative system, as well as expansion of trade, provide all the prerequisites for a further increase in revenues from republican and local economy and, hence, for significant consolidation of the sources of revenue of the budgets of the Union Republics.

Local taxes and other revenues play an important role in the revenues of local budgets. City and district Soviets must pay more attention to the collection of local taxes and other revenues.

Large funds are being earmarked for the rehabilitation and further expansion of the basic funds of the national economy of the Union Republics. It is sufficient to point out that the total investments in capital construction, including non-centralized capital works, in republican and local economy in 1948 will amount to 9,900 million rubles, including 8,200 million rubles in the budgets of the Union Republics.

The bulk of the funds—59,400 million rubles, or nearly two-thirds of the volume of the state budgets of the Union Republics—is earmarked for financing social and cultural measures, more than half of these funds being assigned for education. Expenditures on public health likewise figure prominently. It is necessary that the enormous appropriations for social and cultural measures be expended with the maximum benefit.

In the past year the Soviets of Working People's Deputies unquestionably improved direction of local economy and cultural construction. Nevertheless, there are also considerable shortcomings. Construction of housing and public utilities in many cases swallows up a great deal of money; economy is not observed in expenditures on capital repairs; city transport is poorly utilized.

This obliges the Soviets of Working People's Deputies to give more attention to municipal economy, to work to improve its finances.

Fulfillment of the plan for revenues in the budgets of the Union Republics and introduction of the strictest economy in the expenditures of funds will contribute to the further significant consolidation of republican and local economy, the speediest rehabilitation of its basic funds and the development of the productive forces of each Union Republic.

Monetary Reform and the Tasks of Workers in the Fields of Economy and Finance

AS I have already said, the monetary reforms effected at the end of last year made it possible to eliminate the aftermath of the war in the sphere of

currency circulation. The purchasing power of the ruble increased and the significance of wages and the collective farmers' income for workday units was enhanced. And thereby additional stimuli making for a further rise in the productivity of labor were created.

Now the task is to consolidate the beneficial effect of the monetary reform, to ensure a further enhancement of the role of the ruble in economic endeavor, and on this groundwork further to promote and consolidate the operation of economic organizations on a self-supporting basis. This poses in a new way problems associated with the improvement of all economic and finance-credit endeavor. The managers of enterprises and economic organizations and institutions must have a clear understanding of these new tasks.

In all fields of economy—in industry, agriculture and transport—the fulfillment and overfulfillment of production programs must be ensured not only by a branch as a whole but also by each enterprise taken separately.

The 1948 plan envisages a substantial increase in the output of food products and consumer goods. The fulfillment of this plan is the supreme duty of all managers of enterprises and organizations.

The producers' co-operatives and local industry are called upon to put out more goods of a better quality. The Soviet Government has extended sizable privileges to the co-operatives, creating broad opportunities for their further development. Vigorous and enterprising utilization of these opportunities ought already to ensure a substantial increase in the output of goods in a wide assortment and of superior quality.

An increase in the quantity of commodities available, and expansion of trade by all possible means, will serve as a reliable foundation for the consolidation of the effect of the monetary reform and the steady heightening of the purchasing power of the ruble.

Alongside the expansion of production of goods, it is necessary to work day in and day out to cut production costs, to increase profitability and returns in all spheres of economy.

The managers of enterprises and organizations are duty-bound to save on raw materials, other materials, fuel and electric power, to strive to eliminate spoilage and other losses in the production process, and steadily to cut overhead expenses.

The attention of managers of enterprises, engineers and other technical staff and all production personnel must be concentrated on making use of the experience of the leading enterprises, perfection of technology and improvement of the organization of labor.

Realization of unnecessary, superfluous stocks which may be found at many industrial enterprises will also yield a great deal. It is an unfortunate fact that some business managers have become accustomed to having such excess stocks while central administrations at the Ministries have sometimes been inclined to justify this unhealthy practice, which is highly detrimental to the interests of the State. Excess stocks of materials and finished products at the enterprises can least of all be countenanced now that the monetary reform has been effected.

The abolition of rationing, and the monetary reform, demand that the trading organizations regear themselves to working along new lines. It is generally known that unrestricted trade is one of the most important factors making for the stablity of the Soviet ruble. Yet some trade people still have not taken the new situation and the new demands into account. To sell goods without ration cards is far more complicated than to issue them in definite quantities and assortments as the case was during rationing. Open Soviet trade means that the consumer demand and buyers' requirements must be reckoned with all around. Flexibility and skill are required, and the essential assortment of goods must be ensured without stocking unnecessary ones. Instances like the stocking of winter footwear and heavy underwear instead of light colored fabrics and summer footwear by department stores in Ashkhabad and Stalinabad last year are intolerable.

Rational organization of the trade network, proper selection of goods and the shipment to stores of commodities needed by the population of the given locality require a study of the economic picture presented by the various regions and districts, assessment of the consumer demand and greater efficiency of service. Trading organizations must demand timely deliveries of the necessary goods in the required assortments from their suppliers. Alongside this, local resources must be fully used to expand sales.

The liquidation of excess stocks of commodities at industrial enterprises, wholesale warehouses and stock rooms of trading organizations is another potent factor making for a higher rate of commodity circulation.

Further expansion of the work of consumers' co-operatives plays an exceptionally important role. The co-operatives must make use of all opportunities they have to purchase agricultural produce for sale in towns and industrial settlements as well as to serve the rural population. It is possible in many regions and districts of the country to purchase farm produce at low prices, and the acquisition of such produce in remote localities for sale in urban centers is an important task. If the entire network of consumers' co-operatives works hard, retail sales can be expanded by thousands of millions of rubles.

It is essential to cut overhead expenses, prevent overstaffing in trade and supply organizations and stores, and to uproot extravagance in the expenditure of state funds.

Workers in the sphere of finance and banking are confronted with highly important tasks. Finance agencies must see to it that all enterprises and organizations, as well as the population, strictly fulfill their obligations under the Budget. They must take timely action in conformity with the law against organizations who fail to fulfill their financial obligations to the State.

It is particularly important at the present time to ensure economy in the expenditure of state funds. It must be remembered that observance of a strict regime of economy is an essential condition for the consolidation of the effect of the monetary reform. Finance agencies and banks must strictly control the expenditure of every kopek of state funds and call to order in good time business managers who evince no desire to safeguard the people's money.

Long-range investment banks must enhance control over the expenditure

of funds on construction, resolutely work for the strictest economy and reduction of construction costs, persistently striving for more efficacious utilization of capital investments.

State Bank institutions must considerably improve their work in the sphere of credit and accounting with a view to laying greater accent on the prompt settlement of maturing payments throughout the economy.

State Bank personnel are duty-bound to see to it that bank credits are properly utilized and debts repaid. A situation must be achieved in which no excess stocks of materials and commodities accumulate at the enterprises, and when need be, pressure must be exerted through the medium of credits.

Some offices and branches of the State Bank limit themselves to a mere registration of abnormalities in the finances of enterprises or, at the very best, do little more than notify higher organizations of such facts, without taking necessary measures on the spot to eliminate the revealed shortcomings. In the new conditions State Bank institutions must more than ever before keep abreast of developments and react quickly to all abnormalities in the economy of enterprises, working for their eradication without delay.

It is necessary radically to improve the control exercised by the State Bank over the use of the wage fund, in particular as regards the payment for diverse kinds of work over and above the basic wage fund. Under this head large sums of state funds are not infrequently wasted.

The finance bodies must display greater vigor in combating all and every violation of financial discipline and unlawful expenditure of state funds, take more immediate measures in connection with audits and lose no time in calling to account those guilty of abuses and violations.

COMRADES deputies! The past year of the postwar Five-Year Plan was a year marked by splendid successes scored by the peoples of the Soviet Union in all spheres of economic and cultural development.

A firm foundation was laid for the achievement this year of new successes in the struggle for the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the Five-Year Plan.

The monetary reform and the abolition of rationing are an important lever promoting the further development of our national economy. The fulfillment and overfulfillment of the national economic plan for the current year will still further strengthen the might of our Homeland and contribute to the attainment of new heights in culture and the advancement of the material well-being of the working people of the USSR.

The State Budget of the USSR for 1948, submitted for your consideration and approval, is in its entirety directed at the successful solution of these highly important tasks.

There is no doubt that the Soviet people will do everything in their power in order successfully to fulfill the State Budget for 1948, in order to achieve new brilliant victories in the realization of the program of great endeavors outlined by the Communist Party, our leader and teacher the great Stalin. (*Stormy, prolonged applause. All rise and accord an ovation in honor of the great leader of the Soviet people, Comrade Stalin.*)

Heroic Women of the USSR

SIXTY-THREE Soviet women bear the title Hero of the Soviet Union, in recognition of their gallantry in fighting the Hitlerite invaders. After the war, most of these women returned to their peacetime occupations.

A heroine of the defense of Sevastopol, the famous sniper Ludmila Pavlichenko, who killed 310 Nazis, will soon defend her thesis submitted for a master's degree in history. Her subject is the history of the defense of Sevastopol in the nineteeth century and in 1941.

Pilot Ekaterina Ryabova is finishing her course at the Mechanico-Mathematical Department of Moscow University. After the war she married air ace Grigory Sivko, twice Hero of the Soviet Union, whom she met at the front. Among the students of Moscow University is another celebrated pilot, Natalia Meklin, and the Hero of the Soviet Union Zubkova.

The daring guerrilla Nadezhda Troyan, who began her medical education before the war, will this spring receive her doctorate. The Soviet people learned about her heroic feats only after the war.

Working as an interpreter at the German military headquarters in Minsk, she headed at the same time a guerrilla detachment of young people. On her instructions, the guerrillas blew up bridges, attacked German transports and destroyed 33 enemy trains carrying troops and combat equipment.

In the town of Magadan, in remote Kolyma, many thousands of miles away from the former battlefields, is tankist Alexandra Boiko, holder of many combat decorations. Her name is known to all the Soviet people.

Hero of the Soviet Union Zubkova studies at Moscow University.

With their own savings she and her husband then purchased a tank and sent a letter to Stalin requesting permission to fight at the front in it. They went through a tank school and courageously fought on many fronts. The end of the war found them in Czechoslovakia, which was liberated by the Soviet Army.

Now the Boikos have returned to Magadan, where they lived before the war, and where Alexandra is again working as a chemist.

A Collegium President—the Presidium Of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

By Professor A. Denisov

In its form of government the Soviet State is a republic. One of the outward characteristics of a republic is that it is headed by a president elected for a definite term. According to many republican constitutions, the President is a person elected, as a rule, by the population and independent in his actions.

According to the Soviet Constitution, the President of the USSR is a collegium—the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, consisting of its President, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary and 15 Members. The number of Vice-Presidents corresponds to the number of constituent republics.

At present the President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is Nikolai M. Shvernik, and there are 16 Vice-Presidents.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is made up of members of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and is elected at a joint sitting of the two Chambers.

The Presidium is accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for all its activities. This is emphasized by the fact that the Chairmen of the two Chambers are not included in the Presidium.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR convenes the sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, dissolves the Supreme Soviet in conformity with Article 47 of the Constitution of the USSR, and orders new elections.

On its own initiative or at the request of one of the Union Republics, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR conducts referendums on questions concerning the life of the State, bills, and similar matter.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is invested with the power of control. It has the right to annul decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and of the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics if they do not conform to law.

NIKOLAI M. SHVERNIK

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is empowered to institute and award decorations and titles of honor of the USSR. It also exercises the right of pardon.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has the right to proclaim martial law in separate localities or throughout the USSR in the interests of the defense of the USSR or for the purpose of ensuring public order and state security.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR ratifies international treaties, such as peace treaties, pacts of mutual defense against aggression, pacts of mutual non-aggression, as well as other international treaties which include a clause providing for their ratification.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has the right to issue edicts denouncing international treaties, i. e., informing the other parties to the treaties in question, usually before their expiration, that the USSR does not intend to prolong such treaties on the previous terms.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR appoints and recalls plenipotentiary representatives of the USSR to foreign states, and receives the credentials and letters of recall of diplomatic representatives accredited to it by foreign states.

It grants citizenship of the USSR, settles questions concerning the giving up of Soviet citizenship, and by special edict in each case deprives of citizenship of the USSR.

According to the Constitution of the USSR, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR exercises the rights of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the intervals between its sessions:

(a) In the event of armed attack on the USSR, or whenever necessary to fulfill international treaty obligations concerning mutual defense against aggression, when it proclaims a state of war and orders general or partial mobilization; and

(b) In the event of need for changes in the composition of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, when the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet relieves of their posts and appoints Ministers of the USSR on the recommendation of the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, subject to subsequent confirmation by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Within the limits of its competence, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issues decrees. Decrees dealing with the appointment or removal of Ministers, or concerning such administrative units as territories, regions and autonomous regions, or introducing legislative changes, are subject to confirmation by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

This, in brief, is a general outline of the principal functions of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

An Exploit of Heroes

By Vadim Kozhevnikov

BETWEEN the dark green four-sided columns of the clipped cypresses and the marble statues in the Cimitero Missocco at Milan, lie four graves, within a border of reddish, smoothly-bevelled stone.

And no matter when you come here —even in rain and bad weather—you are sure to see on these graves fresh nosegays of red carnations in glazed blue earthenware pitchers sunk in the soil.

On Sunday hundreds of people visit this corner of the cemetery: working men and women, fishermen, peasants, moving noiselessly in their rope-soled shoes. They stand in reverent silence by the four graves until one of them raises a brown sunburned hand and begins to speak. They must be burning words that come from the speaker's lips, for the Italian police in black uniforms and white American helmets retire quietly from the glowing eyes and wrathfully clenched fists.

If you ask any of the people present who is buried here, he will tell you calmly, looking you in the face:

"These are our brothers buried here."

IN January, 1943, when things were going badly with the Germans at the front, the fascists brought a party of Russian war-prisoners to Milan. They were led, barefoot and manacled, through the streets, and the dark, unhealing wounds could be seen through the ragged shirts they wore.

The dreadful sight was intended by the Germans to make the Italians believe in the approach of victory over the Soviet Union.

But the contrary was the result.

The Russian captives, with heads held high, went through the streets, keeping their lines in order. They looked straight ahead, and sang a song, full of awe-inspiring words, incomprehensible to the Italians. And when a German soldier in a fur jacket, struck a Russian across the face because he had laughed as he pointed out to his comrades a statue of Mussolini in slimy greenish stone like soap, the Russian strode forward and with his manacled hands knocked the German down on the pavement with such force that the chains of the manacles snapped and the blood gushed from the hands cut by the broken steel.

Here in front of the Cafe Esplanada a bloody battle was fought between manacled, wounded Russian soldiers and German guards, aided by the Italian police who had run up on hearing the alarm. The Russians had to fight with feet and heads, and fettered hands that they wielded like hammers.

For days after this passers-by avoided in fear the marble slabs covered with dark blood stains. And where a Russian soldier had fought the last fight with his back to the wall, the deep prints of bare feet remained. Even then someone had laid a red carnation on each of the prints in the ice. At dawn next day the police discovered a noose around the neck of Mussolini's statue. And on the end of that noose hung a board bearing an inscription which said: "To pay back for the Russians."

Four Russian soldiers who survived were forced by the Germans to dig trenches in the park, where a powerful anti-aircraft battery was disposed.

It was the night of February 14, 1943, a cold dark Milan night, memorable now to every citizen.

The battery was well camouflaged by trees and models of straw buildings, under which stood the anti-aircraft guns. That same night British and American aircraft raided the city.

What happened next was this: the Soviet soldiers threw down their picks, stripped off their tunics, poured the lubricant intended for the guns over them, set them alight, and flung them on the straw camouflage shields the Germans had piled up. The whole battery was illuminated, an excellent target for the bombers. The Russians took up their picks again, not for work, but to smash the sights of two guns.

The Soviet soldiers drew the fire on themselves here in a far, foreign country, as they would have done in their native land where, inspired by their great love for her and their great hatred of the enemy, they fought for every foot of soil.

The bodies of the Soviet soldiers who perished were taken away by Italian workers and buried in the Missocco Cemetery.

When the fascist police discovered who were buried here they did not attempt to disturb or destroy the graves. They set an ambush for those who brought red carnations here and many who were caught by these graves went to prison.

When the Anglo-American forces arrived in Milan, Italian workers came to the British General and told him of the feat of the Russians who had saved American and British bombers. They asked him to visit the cemetery and to pay military honors to the heroes and saviors. The General thanked the workers courteously. Later, he ordered the Italian police—the same police who had formerly served under Mussolini—to increase the surveillance of visitors to the Cimitero Missocco.

On the day of the military parade of the Anglo-American Armies of Occupation thousands of workers and peasants came out carrying flags and marched in columns toward the center of the city. The police respectfully cleared the way for them. But before the demonstration reached the main square where the troops were drawn up, it turned abruptly and marched toward the Cimitero Missocco, to where, between the dark green columns of the cypresses and the white marble monuments, lie the simple, unpretentious graves of the Russian soldiers.

If any of you who read this should ever visit Milan, go to the Cimitero Missocco. In Lot No. 16 you will find four graves of the Soviet Army men, Andrei Petrov, Stepan Gavrilov, Semyon Cherny, and Vasili Veselovsky. And no matter when you go there—in rain and bad weather—you are sure to find on them in the peasants' glazed earthenware pitchers, bunches of fresh red carnations.

Millions of Books

By A. Lurye and Nikolai Samarsky

In Moscow there is a bronze statue to Ivan Fedorov, who in 1563 introduced the practical printing of books in Russia and whose tomb bore the words: "The Printer of Books Unseen Before His Time."

Fedorov is honored today, as he was not during his lifetime, as one who rendered great service to Russian culture.

He himself understood the great cultural significance of his work. When a noble patron refused to subsidize his printing works and offered him instead the gift of a village, he said:

"Instead of the plow I follow a craft. Instead of the seeds of corn I am called upon to plant spiritual seed throughout the world and to distribute spiritual food to all."

Today, when the publishing houses of the Soviet Union turn out hundreds of millions of books per year, Fedorov's difficulties seem fantastic.

His first patron was Tsar Ivan IV (Ivan the Terrible), whose efforts to wrest the monopoly of book publication from the hands of the clergy, who produced hand-written illuminated volumes of great beauty, gave the necessary impetus to the introduction of printing in the Russia of that time.

Opposition by the clergy and the boyars, however, caused Fedorov to terminate his work in Moscow after the publication of two books, and to go to Lithuania, where he printed two more books before his patron lost interest.

In Lvov, he had no rich patron, but was helped by a few "men of low ecclesiastical rank" and "of little fame."

He printed his *Apostle* here—the first book printed in the Ukraine—but left Lvov a beggar. He found a new patron in Prince Constantine of Ostrog, in Volhynia near the Polish border. Fedorov printed three books under this nobleman's patronage before his death in 1583. Before he died, he learned that apprentices had continued his work in Moscow.

Fedorov's "spiritual seed"—the printed word—produces a rich cultural harvest today in the country where he lived and worked.

During the 30 years since the October Revolution, illiteracy has virtually disappeared.

A real cultural revolution, affecting every section of society, every field o social life, has taken place in the cou try. Universal compulsory educatio has become a fact. The USSR h built up a vast chain of schools, co leges, clubs, libraries and scientific r search institutes. Newspapers, maga zines and books are issued in large ed tions. The country may be likened t a gigantic school where everybody studying, where books have become prime necessity. Although books ar issued in tremendous editions, they ar sold out literally in a few hours.

The books published in the course o

PUBLISHING HOUSE. Checking ne copies of Lenin's works at the Maxi Gorky printing plant in Leningra

TEXTBOOKS. Warehouse of a bookshop. In the past decade, 470,000,000 textbooks have been published in the USSR.

thirty years cover a range of 858,700 titles in 119 languages and a total number of 10,716,200,000 copies.

Even during the first post-Revolutionary decade, when the efforts of the Soviet people were concentrated on the restoration of their ruined industry and elimination of the ravages of the First World War and the Civil War, the annual average book publication covered 16,000 titles with 118,600,000 copies; these figures grew during the second decade to 44,300 and 557,000,000 respectively; during the three prewar years the annual average climbed to 43,200 titles and 604,100,000 copies.

It is logical that the invasion of the Hitlerite vandals should have affected book publication in the USSR. The invaders set out to annihilate not only the Soviet peoples but also their culture; they destroyed and plundered valuable book collections in the temporarily occupied districts, wrecked the largest printshops, the polygraphic and paper industries.

The end of the war has enabled the Soviet people to concentrate all their attention on the restoration of their country. Substantial achievements had been gained in the field of book publishing by 1946, when the total publications covered a range of 23,145 titles issued in 463,700,000 copies; these included 43,200,000 copies in the German-ravaged districts of the Ukrainian SSR, 7,500,000 copies in the Byelorussian SSR, about 4,000,000 in the Moldavian SSR, 4,800,000 in the Lithuanian SSR, some 6,500,000 in the Latvian SSR, 6,500,000 in the Estonian SSR and about 600,000 in the Karelo-Finnish Republic.

What categories of books are published in the USSR?

The total of about 700,000 books published in the USSR between 1928 and 1947 in 9,529,800,000 copies included: literature on political, social and economic subjects with a range of 162,000 titles and editions totalling 2,781,200,000 copies (including more than 700,000,000 copies of the classic works of Marxism-Leninism). This literature arms the Soviet people with a powerful weapon for the struggle for the consolidation and further development of their socialist society, for the construction of communism.

The tremendous construction effort of the Soviet people for the successful realization of the Five-Year Plans for the reconstruction and development of the national economy created a large demand for technical literature. During the period under review the USSR published 155,600 technical books in editions totalling 764,200,000 copies.

Agricultural literature is likewise issued in large editions. The organization of large collective farms which make extensive use of new machinery and scientific methods has created an enormous demand for special literature. The agricultural literature published in 1917-1946 covers a range of 99,000 titles issued in editions totalling 1,107,000,000 copies. (For comparison it may be mentioned that in the course of 200 years pre-Revolutionary Russia published 25,000 agricultural books in 45 million copies).

The works of distinguished scientists are being published in editions running into hundreds of thousands; for example, those of Kliment Timiryazev have been issued in 1,127,000 copies; of Charles Darwin, in 289,000; and of Ivan Michurin, in 213,000.

The publication of popular science books has acquired a tremendous scope in the USSR. The scientific books published in 1928-1946 cover 84,900 titles issued in 1,110,300,000 copies.

There is also an exceptionally large demand for fiction, and the total published in the course of 19 years (1928-1946), embraces 39,200 titles with 1,434,600,000 copies.

The works of Russian literary classics are published in huge editions: the works of Pushkin have been published in 34,299,000 copies; of Herzen, in 1,810,000; of Gogol, in 9,926,000; of Gorky, in 44,007,000; of Griboyedov, in 1,173,000; of Lermontov, in 9,475,000; of Mayakovsky, in 9,817,000; of Nekrasov, in 9,391,000; of Turgenev, in 11,862,000; of Chekhov, in 17,910,000; of Leo Tolstoy, in 26,122,000; and of Shevchenko, in 5,256,000 copies.

The works of many representatives of foreign literature are very popular in the USSR. Those published during 29 years of the Soviet period include Byron, 499,000 copies; Balzac, 2,065,000; Barbusse, 2,075,000; Heine, 1,265,000; Goethe, 586,000; Hugo, 4,139,000; Dickens, 2,287,000; Zola, 2,573,000; De Maupassant, 3,976,000; Rolland, 2,107,000; Cervantes, 650,000; Stendhal, 881,000; Anatole France, 1,816,000; Shakespeare, 1,611,000; and Schiller, 683,000 copies.

The works of contemporary Soviet authors are published in millions of copies. For example, the works of Sholokhov have been published in 15,900,000 copies; those of Serafimovich, in 7,100,000; of Alexei Tolstoy, in 12 million; of Novikov-Priboi, in 6.3 million; of Simonov, in 12.3 million; of Katayev, in 6.7 million; of Ehrenburg, in 6.1 million copies; the works of Gorbatov and Grossman have been published in approximately six million copies; of Tikhonov, Nikolai Ostrovsky, Furmanov and Panferov, in from four to five million copies; of Fadeyev, Gladkov, Leonov and Virta, in from two to three million copies; and so on.

The works of the national authors of the peoples of the USSR comprise 31 per cent of the total published in 1937-1946, and 36 per cent of the total for 1946. This reflects the progress of the culture of the Soviet peoples, national in form and socialist in content.

The Soviet Government is devoting exceptional attention to the education of children, to their physical and mental development. An illustration of this is also supplied by the data on books published for the growing generation: 10,988 books for children in editions totalling 328 million copies were published in 1937-1946. Books published in the Soviet Union for children of preschool age in 1939 alone cover a range of 368 titles issued in editions of 16.8 million copies; 700 books were published in 14.9 million copies in the same year for children of the junior and middle grades, and 576 books in 9.2 million copies for juveniles. The war against the German invaders has not interrupted the publication of books for children. Seven hundred and three titles in editions totalling about 60 million copies were published in 1941-1945 in the Russian SFSR alone, apart from the books issued in the other 15 constituent republics of the Union. The Moscow Publishing House of Children's Literature alone issued 629 titles in 37.5 million copies during those years.

Speed Skating in the USSR

COMPETING in the women's world speed-skating championships for the first time, Soviet skaters Maria Isakova, Lydia Selikhova and Zoya Kholshchevnikova respectively took first, second and third places at the championship meet at Turku, Finnish seaport on the Baltic coast.

Maria Isakova, member of Dynamo Sports Club and proud mother of a little daughter who is already skating well in Isakova tradition, is USSR champion, holder of the All-Union 1,000 meters (1,093½ yards) record of 1 minute 41.2 seconds.

She also held the 1,500 meters (1,640½ yards) record of 2 minutes 36.8 seconds for a new world record at Oslo two years ago.

Selikhova did well to split the formidable pair, Isakova and Kholshchevnikova, who have fought out numerous fractional decisions this season. For three years Isakova has had the edge on Kholshchevnikova. In this season's four-city meet Isakova won with an aggregate of 212.315 points to 215.782 for Kholshchevnikova.

Kholshchevnikova started skating when she was 16 and the rapidity of her progress into the front ranks is best instanced by the fact that she still holds all of the junior records (17-18 years) for the USSR. These, made in 1938, are 500 meters, 50.8 seconds; 1,000 meters, 1 minute 51.5 seconds; and 1,500 meters, 2 minutes 53.8 seconds.

Soviet ice skaters recently marked the sixtieth jubilee of the introduction of speed skating in Russia by staging races in Gorky.

Konstantin Kudryavtsev, USSR record holder in the five hundred meter event made a particularly good first appearance of the year, by covering the distance in 43.9 seconds. A few days later he bettered his own time by 0.2 seconds. (The best showing in this distance at the recent competitions held in Lillehamer, Norway, was 46.6 seconds, made by Ballangrud.)

Kudryavtsev, who will be 30 this year, is undoubtedly in his skating prime. It is hoped that he will eclipse his record—42 seconds—set seven years ago, and as yet unexcelled by any ice skater in the world.

WINNERS. Maria Isakova (center) recently won the women's world speed-skating championship. With her are the second and third-place winners, Zoya Kholshchevnikova (left) and Lydia Selikhova.

Notes on Soviet Life

Scores of thousands of patriotic Soviet women covered themselves with unfading glory by their heroic exploits on the fronts of the Great Patriotic War and on the territory temporarily occupied by the enemy. The names of the guerrilla heroines Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya and Liza Chaikina, the members of the Krasnodon Young Guards underground organization Ulyana Gromova and Lyubov Shevtsova, the glorious daughter of the Lithuanian people Maria Melnikaite and of many other women are known all over the world.

More than three hundred fascists were killed by two snipers, Natasha Kovshova and Maria Polivanova. These two girls, on being surrounded by the enemy, fought to the last cartridge and then blew themselves up with a grenade, preferring death to captivity.

Junior Lieutenant Maria Batrakova, Hero of the Soviet Union, who participated in the defense of Leningrad and Stalingrad, on two occasions assumed command in battle when her senior officers were killed and led her unit to victory. One of the battles in which Maria Batrakova had command of her unit lasted several days. In the course of it her unit beat back 53 enemy counterattacks, and despite 18 enemy air raids succeeded in gaining ground and occupying an advantageous position.

★

Tursun-Oi-Karimova, a young Uzbek woman, is a member of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. She is chairman of the Stalin Collective Farm, one of the largest in Uzbekistan, and for her successful labor has been awarded the Order of Lenin and Order of Merit.

Karimova is one of the many Uzbek women who have come to the fore in Soviet times and are successfully carrying on economic, cultural and governmental work. There are nearly seven hundred Uzbek women working as chairmen or vice-chairmen of collective farms.

Article 122 of the Constitution of the USSR states:

"Women in the USSR are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity.

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

In pre-Revolutionary Russia the condition of women in the East was particularly unbearable. In addition to cruel national oppression and the absence of political rights the women also suffered from savage customs and were kept locked up in their homes.

There was an old proverb which said that "a woman must work more than a donkey, because a donkey eats straw and a woman eats bread." If a woman was summoned to court as a witness her evidence was equal to half of a man's evidence. A husband had the right to kill his wife. Polygamy and the sale of women were widespread.

Soviet power emancipated the women of the East together with all other women. It has given them the right and opportunity to work and participate in public life on an equal basis with men.

★

Moscow Radio Broadcasts

Moscow broadcasts in English are broadcast from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M., and from 6:20 to 7:50 P.M., Eastern Standard Time.

The morning program is broadcast on 6.11, 7.36, 9.54, 9.57, 11.72, 15.17 and 17.77 megacycles. The evening program is broadcast on 5.96, 7.30, 7.36, 9.50, 9.78, 11.72, 11.88, and 15.23 megacycles.

There are 142 thousand beds in maternity homes in the USSR. Since the advent of Soviet power thousands of state maternity homes rendering free medical care to women in childbirth have been established in the cities, industrial settlements and rural areas of the Soviet Union. Ninety-five per cent of Soviet children are born in these institutions.

All Soviet women employees receive maternity leave on full pay before and after childbirth for a period of 77 days.

★

On the territory of the USSR not subjected to enemy occupation, the number of children accommodated in kindergartens increased from 683,000 in 1941 to 1,210,000 in 1944.

★

Among the 205 women who have been awarded Stalin Prizes and thus hold the title of Stalin Laureate are representatives of medical, physico-mathematical, historico-philological, agricultural and technical sciences, and also of literature and art.

Scores of women workers and collective farmers have won the title of Stalin Laureate for outstanding inventions and improvements in the methods of production in industry and agriculture.

★

All the pilots of the famous 46th Taman Red Banner Light Bomber Regiment were women: former students, factory and office workers. The commanding officer of the regiment was Yevdokia Bershatskaya, a Cossack woman. The regiment fought gloriously for four years, and carried its banner all the way from the Caucasus to Berlin.

For their outstanding exploits in the Great Patriotic War more than 120 thousand Soviet women were awarded Orders and Meda's, and 62 of them received the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

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GORKY. An unusual photograph of Maxim Gorky as a young man, with his son Maxim. The eightieth anniversary of Gorky's birth was celebrated this month. FRONT COVER. Spring in the Ukraine. BACK COVER. Grand staircase of the State Russian Museum, Leningrad.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Significance of the Soviet-Bulgarian Treaty of Friendship

(From *Izvestia*)

THE treaty of friendship, co-operation and mutual assistance signed between the Soviet Union and the Bulgarian People's Republic in Moscow on March 18 is a great contribution to the cause of international co-operation. This agreement is proof of the firm and consistent policy of peace pursued by the Soviet Union and the States friendly to it with the aim of preventing new aggression and ensuring the peaceful development of the peoples. The agreement will serve finally to consolidate the friendly relations established between the USSR and Bulgaria in recent years, the roots of which reach far back into history.

Like other treaties signed by the Soviet Union with its neighbors, the Soviet-Bulgarian Treaty is based on the noble principles of the Stalin foreign policy and answers not only to the vital interests of these two countries but also to the peace-loving aspirations of all the peoples of Europe.

As V. M. Molotov pointed out in his speech at the signing of the Soviet-Bulgarian Treaty: "This Treaty is aimed at preventing a repetition of German aggression, which during the past decades twice disrupted peace between nations and unleashed two world wars. Naturally, the Soviet Union, having borne the brunt of the huge burden of fascist aggression, hails with particular satisfaction each new step on the path of preventing any possible new attempt at imperialist aggression and of preparing a rebuff for any such attempt."

The democratic, peace-loving nature of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union, which has found its expression also in the Soviet-Bulgarian Treaty, manifests itself especially clearly and vividly in the present atmosphere of the revival of activity on the part of the infringers of the principles of international cooperation. Whereas the Soviet Union is rallying the democratic forces in order to prevent the rebirth of German militarism which has brought mankind so many misfortunes, the initiators of the American Marshall Plan and of the British plan for a military and political "western union" are aiming at the restoration of Western Germany as the military, industrial and strategic base for a conspiracy against peace and democracy.

It is not surprising that the friendship and concord which has been established in Eastern Europe under the influence of the peace-loving policy of the Soviet Union calls forth the approval and support of all the sincere friends of peace and strengthens their forces, their desire to counteract the machinations of the new warmongers.

To the Soviet Union and the Bulgarian People's Republic, the Treaty means the further strengthening of fraternal ties which have bound the two nations through the ages. The Treaty has been signed at a noteworthy time: this month marked the seventieth anniversary of the liberation of the Bulgarian peoples with the help of Russian arms from the five-century-long yoke of the Turks. In March, 1878, the peace treaty between Russia and Turkey laid the foundations of the existence of an independent Bulgarian State.

Since then, Bulgaria has traversed a thorny path. The Koburg Dynasty forced upon it by the German militarists for several decades turned the country into a tool for penetration by Germany into the Balkans. The freedom loving Bulgarian people, who always saw the guarantee of their independence in brotherly friendship with the other Slav peoples, in the first place with the great Russian people, were terrorized by the German rulers and their accomplices and were twice drawn into the whirlpool of the world shambles on the side of Germany. However, they found the strength to fight heroically against a militarist fascist dictatorship, and during the course of the Second World War to organize a powerful movement against their enslavers. Bulgaria, liberated by the Soviet Army, took an active part in the battles against the German fascist troops and contributed its share to the final rout of Hitlerite Germany.

The indestructible friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union and the Bulgarian people is cemented by the blood shed by them in the common struggle against fascism. From the fires of grim tests, Bulgaria emerged renewed and strengthened. The victory of the people's democracy has opened up a new path before Bulgaria—a path to prosperity. From the first days of their liberation, the Bulgarian people have decisively torn out the roots of fascist reaction; with a firm hand they are putting a stop to all attempts made from without the country to revive the agents of foreign imperialists within it.

Having concluded treaties of friendship with the Soviet Union, with the countries of people's democracies, Bulgaria has demonstrated her adherence to the cause of peace and security, her readiness to defend the interests of all the peace-loving peoples.

The Soviet-Bulgarian Treaty, which serves noble aims, will be justly appraised by all honest people in all countries as a great success for the policy of international cooperation and as a new defeat for the enemies of the peace and security of nations.

Troops Demobilized

LAST February, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR adopted a decision to demobilize from the Army all the remaining servicemen of the older age classes and to complete this demobilization by the end of March. As a result of this demobilization, the contingent of the Army will consist in the main of two age classes—men born in 1926 and 1927.

Ambassador Panyushkin's Speech Of March 23, 1948

The following speech was delivered by Soviet Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin on March 23 at a dinner in New York City sponsored by the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship:

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin

Mr. Chairman,

Ladies and Gentlemen,

FIRST of all permit me to express my thanks to the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship and its Chairman, the distinguished Mr. Melish, for their kind invitation which has given me the opportunity to speak at today's dinner and to get acquainted with the representatives of that part of the American public which well understands the necessity of friendly relations between the peoples of our countries.

Having come to your country, the country of Abraham Lincoln and Thomas Jefferson, of Thomas Edison and Benjamin Franklin, of Mark Twain and Booker T. Washington, as the representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, I wish to convey to you on behalf of the peoples of my country sincere and friendly greetings.

During our common struggle against Hitlerite aggression, our great nations came to know each other better, and the friendly relations which were considerably strengthened during those years played far from a minor role in the attaining of final victory over the enemy.

There is no doubt that also at present, when our peoples are confronted with the task of establishing a stable and universal peace, friendly relations and co-operation between our countries are equally important.

I am happy to note that the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, which has done a great and fruitful work in the broadening and strengthening of friendly relations between our peoples during the war years, is continuing this work at the present time, and is contributing thereby to the consolidation of peace and security.

This work of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship finds an ardent response in the hearts of the Soviet people. The peoples of the Soviet Union, who suffered all the horrors of the war and experienced the invasion of their territory by the Hitlerite hordes, especially value peace.

The Soviet people, having returned to peaceful labor after the hard war years, do want peace, and they want to work peacefully at their factories, plants and in the fields, at their universities and laboratories.

The Soviet Union has always stood and now stands for peace and international co-operation.

A vivid expression of this aspiration of the Soviet Union for peace and international co-operation is that struggle which is being carried on by the Soviet Union for the prohibition of war propaganda, the reduction of armaments, and the prohibition of the atomic bomb.

Sometimes when speaking of the possibility of co-operation between the USA and the USSR, the difficulties arising out of the difference between the social systems of our countries are deliberately exaggerated.

The foreign policy of the Soviet Union proceeds from the fact that the two different social systems—capitalism and socialism—not only can coexist peacefully, but that between countries belonging to different social systems, relations of fruitful co-operation, directed to mutual advantage, are entirely possible, if, of course, good will is present.

The peoples of the Soviet Union who have borne on their shoulders the main burden of the Second World War, and who made the basic contribution to the cause of the defeat of Nazi Germany, perfectly understand all the horrors of war, and especially value peace.

The Soviet people, who have come to know the joy of peaceful labor after the hard war years, want peace in order to work peacefully at their factories, in the fields, at their institutes and laboratories.

The Soviet Union under the leadership of Generalissimo Stalin has always stood and stands now for peace and international co-operation.

The Soviet Union is striving for thorough development of friendly ties, of economic and trade relations with all countries on a mutually advantageous and non-discriminatory basis. As is known, the Soviet Union has recently concluded a number of treaties and economic agreements with countries of Eastern Europe, as well as with Western European and other coun-

tries. All these treaties and agreements are based on the equal rights of the signatory countries and on respect for the principle of sovereignty and the national interests of the countries entering into agreement. The Soviet Union stands for friendship and the development of economic relations with the United States of America, in the belief that the development of such relations corresponds to the interests of both countries.

We are aware that in the United States there are certain circles which are trying to sow the seeds of enmity between the peoples of the Soviet Union and the American people. They will never succeed. The peoples are not interested in war, they want peace and they will never permit the world to be thrown again into the maelstrom of war for the sake of the selfish interests of a small group of persons.

Having come to the United States for the first time, I could not help noticing that around the question of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union there has been daily mounting monstrous misinformation and slander, which have resulted in a shocking misunderstanding, widespread in the United States, of the Soviet Union and its policy. Let us take, for example, that noise and shouting about the so-called "iron curtain." These two little catchwords, first put into circulation by the light hand of Goebbels, and later picked up by Churchill in his Fulton speech, have been fabricated for the purpose of fostering this misunderstanding, and in order to conceal from the peoples of certain countries, by reference to "the iron curtain," the truth about the Soviet Union, the truth of its foreign policy and the situation in the country. However, it is not the Soviet Union, but certain circles from the camp of international reaction, which are well known to all of us, which have lowered this curtain in order to conceal beyond it the truth about the Soviet Union and about countries of Eastern Europe, the peoples of which have taken the road of democratic reforms.

In their slander and misinformation these circles have gone so far that any desire for freedom on the part of the peoples of different countries, and any intention on their part of taking the road of democratic reforms, is immediately distorted and presented as an act of "aggression" on the part of the Soviet Union. For example, the recent changes in the Czechoslovak Government, which have taken place in full accordance with the Constitution of the Czechoslovak Republic, and which constitute an internal affair of the Czechoslovak people themselves, have been painted in such a light. It was in these changes that the will of the Czechoslovak people for freedom, independence and democracy found its reflection. It is well known that the Czechoslovak Parliament, elected in May of 1946, some days ago unanimously voted confidence to the new Czechoslovak Government.

The policy of peace and international co-operation consistently pursued by the Soviet Union in the international field naturally finds its reflection also in internal policy. If you happened at this moment to be in Moscow or Leningrad or at any other point in the vast Soviet Union, you would immediately feel the atmosphere of peaceful creative work, so characteristic of the life of the Soviet Union. Both in the city and in the country, at factories and at collective farms, in schools and in offices, you would feel everywhere the pulse beat of constructive and creative work. Neither in the newspapers nor in magazines would you see any headlines threatening war or calling to a war mobilization, and so on. On the contrary, the Soviet press is covering questions related to the demobilization which is being carried out in the Soviet Union in accordance with the recent decision of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. This decision, adopted by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet in February of this year, provides for demobilization from the Army of all the remaining older age-groups, with a view to having this demobilization completed within the next few days. After this demobilization has been carried out the Soviet Army will consist basically only of contingents born in 1926 and 1927.

In spite of the tremendous destruction, the Soviet people have placed before themselves the task, not only of reconstructing what was destroyed, but also of reconstructing it on a new, modern, technical basis. In doing this the Soviet people count first of all on their own resources, and the development of international events confirms the correctness of these estimates of the Soviet people.

The Soviet people are working under the slogan: "Five-Year-Plan in Four Years."

Not only industry and agriculture are recovering in the devastated areas—these areas are nearing the re-establishment of all their cultural institutions. In Byelorussia the prewar number of schools has been re-established; in the Ukraine a considerable part of the educational institutions and scientific establishments have been restored. By the beginning of the third year of the Five-Year Plan, there were built in the German-devastated areas of the Russian Federation alone, 885 thousand houses into which four million collective farmers have moved.

In spite of tremendous destruction inflicted by the war, the Soviet people are successfully fulfilling the tasks of the reconstruction and further development of the economy of our Motherland.

The output of industrial production in the Soviet Union has already been increased to the prewar level; and the level of the total crop-yield has reached that of the prewar year of 1940.

These successes in industry and agriculture permitted the reduction of the prices of goods and the abolition of the rationing system on food and industrial goods.

I realize that we, the Soviet people, and you, the American, can look at many things differently. But I am firmly convinced that both our great peoples are equally interested in the establishment of a stable peace and in the prevention of a new war. These things are possible only under conditions of the consolidation of friendly ties and co-operation between our countries. I am sure that the work of the National Council directed to that noble aim expresses the genuine aspirations of our nations.

Mr. Chairman, permit me to express my sincere good wishes to the National Council for further successes in its fruitful work directed toward the strengthening of friendship between the peoples of our countries, in the interests of strengthening universal peace throughout the world.

SUBWAY. The beautiful stations of the Moscow subway are good examples of Soviet architecture. Lower vestibul of the Mayakovsky station.

A People's Architecture

By Professor Nikolai Kolli

Member of the Academy of Architecture of the USSR, Chairman of the Union of Moscow Architects.

WHEN foreign guests to the USSR ask me what is meant by the Soviet style in architecture, I answer that it is the embodiment of the ideas and requirements of the peoples of the country in architecture.

The Moscow-Volga Canal, an engineering structure, is at the same time a genuine work of art reflecting the intrinsic features of the new Soviet architecture. Our architects succeeded in creating a uniform ensemble over a huge waterway stretching for 128 kilometers*. This canal is one of the many structures which demonstrate the growing economic might of the USSR.

The Moscow subway is the legitimate pride of Soviet architects. Solicitude for the people—the principle which underlies all construction in the USSR—is seen in the construction of the Moscow subway. The magnificence of the halls and vestibules of the subway makes one feel as if he has entered a palace. These stations complement the surface city. By skillful use of color, material and artificial lighting, we succeeded in overcoming the sense of "depth." We sought to make the subway not only convenient but pleasant for passengers.

A study of the legacy of the past and of the national architectures of the various peoples inhabiting our country has helped Soviet architects to create a number of original works.

The design of the Moscow Palace of Soviets, which will be one of the greatest structures of our time, is distinguished by its realism and expressive ideas.

Since the establishment of Sovi power not only new plants, power st tions, schools, beautiful dwellin houses and public buildings ha sprung up in our country, but enti cities. Before the war, Soviet architec erected 354 new cities during the peri of the first three Stalin Five-Ye Plans. This was a period of inten effort to achieve a cheerful, buoya architecture, an architecture of soci ist realism.

Many of the old cities have chang beyond recognition after reconstructi during the Soviet period. The appea ance of the Soviet capital has al changed. The plan for the reconstru tion of Moscow resulted organica from the essence of the socialist syste and each of its sections is full concern for man.

*One kilometer = .62137 of a mile.

The plan for the reconstruction of Moscow entails a radical re-building of the huge city, in the interests of the population, to satisfy their cultural and physical requirements. The city's architecture must answer the many-faceted requirements of the Soviet citizen.

Leading architects have been charged with the re-planning of entire thoroughfares from two to four kilometers long, each architect designing his thoroughfare with all its squares, dwelling houses and public buildings. Only in this way can the problem of the architectural ensemble be solved.

In the new Moscow, the narrow crooked streets with their confusing network of alleys give way to wide asphalted thoroughfares. The best and most healthful sections of the town are assigned to dwelling blocks. Moscow's large structures (the Moscow-Volga Canal, the subway) and a number of handsome public buildings and dwelling houses that decorate the streets of the city (the elegant building of the Moscow Soviet, the severe and impressive building of the Central Telegraph, the House of the Council of Ministers in Okhotny Ryad, the Lenin Library, and others) clearly express the grand style of Soviet architecture.

Particular attention is paid to the city's green spaces. Upon completion of the entire plan of reconstruction, Moscow will have an area of 50 square meters* of greenery per capita of population. Neither Paris, London, nor Vienna can even dream of such a norm of greenery per inhabitant.

In designing the Lenin Mausoleum with its tribunes on the Red Square in Moscow, and the Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute in Tbilisi, Academician Alexei Shchusev, one of the most eminent Soviet architects, sought to harmonize the classic architectural forms with contemporary Soviet architecture. The Lenin Mausoleum with its artistic expressiveness of ideals, its severe simplicity, is one of the most outstanding monuments of Soviet architecture.

In the Tashkent Opera House, the architecture of which includes Uzbek motifs, in the Moscow Hotel which occupies an entire block in the center of the capital, in the recently completed administrative building on Dzerzhinsky Square in Moscow, Academician Shchusev strove, on the basis of a profound study of classic architectural forms, to design buildings which would express the creative effort and might of the Soviet period.

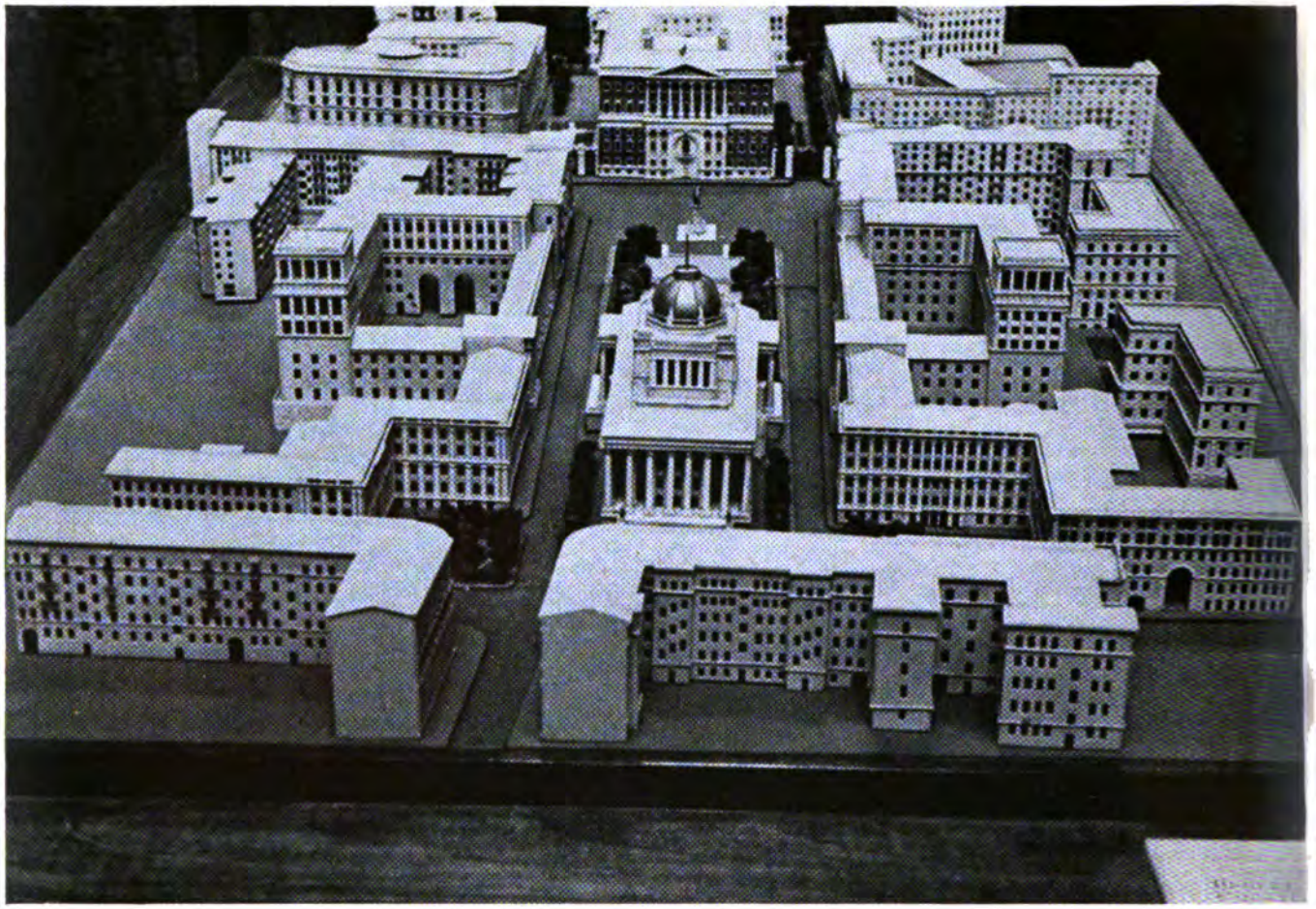
Soviet architects have been instructed to plan entire cities. The general plans for the restoration of cities wrecked by German troops clearly express the desire of each architect to find the individuality of the given city, i.e., to find the forms of layout and construction most suitable to the nature of this city. In the old layout of the city of Kalinin (lying 200 kilometers to the north of Moscow), which is now being re-built in accordance with my plan, the great Russian river Volga played an immeasurably smaller role in the life of the city than it does now, after the construction of the Moscow-Volga Canal. According to the new plan, therefore, the river forms an organic part of the city. The new administrative center of Kalinin is to be built on the left bank of the Volga, according to my project.

Care for the health and comfort of the population lies at the basis of Soviet city planning. Whereas the center of Stalingrad was formerly separated from the river by miscellaneous buildings scattered along its banks, now, in accordance with Academician Alabyan's design, the city faces the river. Industrial enterprises have been removed from the dwelling areas. In the industrial Urals town of Chelyabinsk new blocks, planted with many trees and shrubs, have been built.

Soviet architects live in a time when the style of a new epoch is being created. Soviet architecture serves the people. In the short period of its existence it has done away with the crying contradictions between "elegant" architecture and the soulless, routine construction of mass buildings. Each work of Soviet architecture embodies the socialist principle of solicitude for the people.

ARCHITECTS. Much Soviet architecture is also city planning. Alexander Vlasov, chief architect of Kiev, inspects a model with assistants Zhukov and Cherkassk.

*One square meter = 1.196 square yards.



SOVIETSKAYA SQUARE. Most of the buildings of which these are models have already been constructed. At the center rear is the building of the Moscow Soviet.

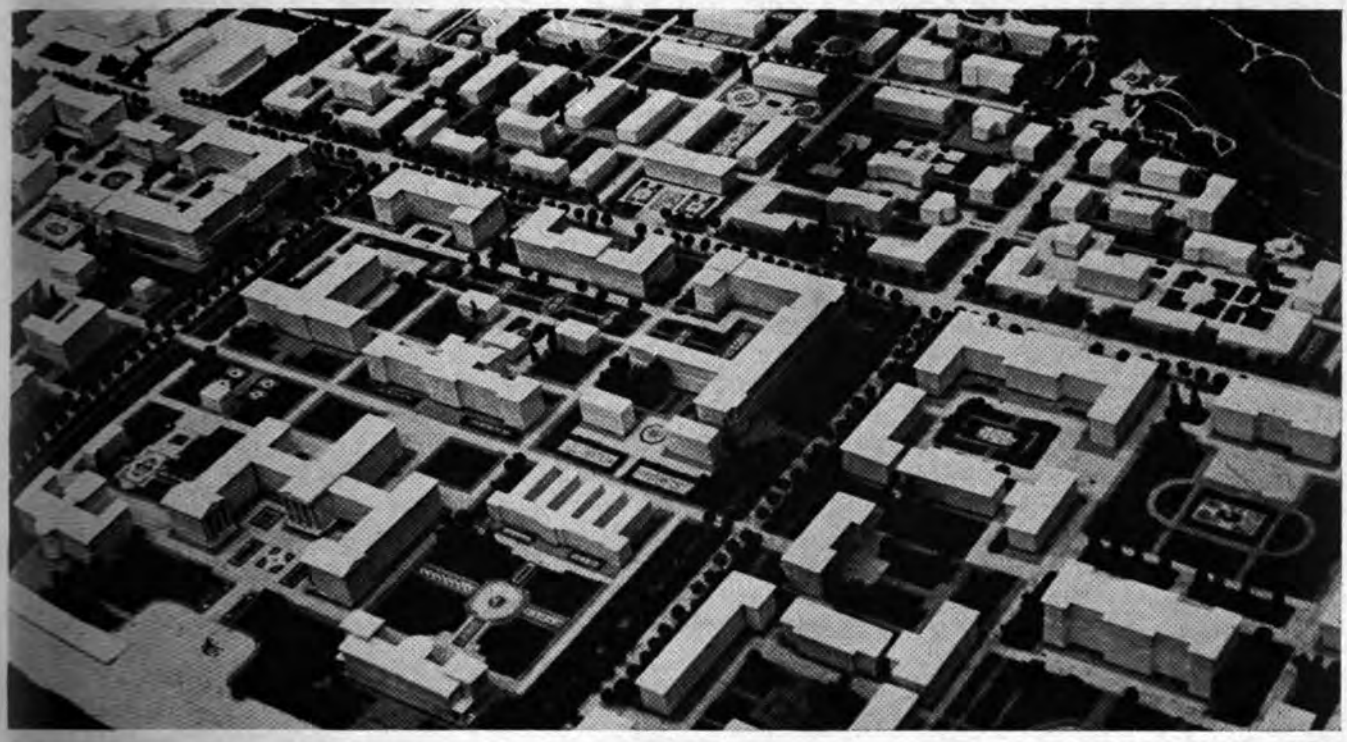
Cities in Miniature

The most extensive project of city planning in the world is that for the reconstruction of Moscow, which was drawn up, and the work begun, before the war. Under it the Soviet capital is being rebuilt as a city of maximum beauty, convenience and comfort.

During and after the war, city plans were made for the rebuilding of the cities devastated by the Germans. These cities are now being rebuilt as architecturally harmonious, convenient communities.

On these pages are architectural models of sections of Moscow and Kiev as they will appear after reconstruction.

KIEV. Kreshchatik street, destroyed by the Germans, will be rebuilt thus.



HOUSING. Block models showing the layout of housing and working buildings for personnel of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

MAYAKOVSKY SQUARE. A vehicular underpass, broadened streets, and new buildings distinguish the plan for this part of Moscow.

Organizing the Work on Farms Of Thousands of Acres

By S. Vasiliev

THE collectivization of agriculture in the Soviet Union created a new system in the villages of the USSR. The Government helped the peasantry in every way in the transition to the collective method of farming. The land was granted to the peasants for their free use in perpetuity; hundreds of thousands of tractors, combines, motor trucks, complex machines and agricultural tools were sent to the state machine and tractor stations formed in the villages.

All of these measures helped to change the outlook of the peasants, to convince them of the advantages of large-scale collective farming, collective labor, scientific methods and the use of machinery.

The year of 1929 has become known as "The Year of the Great Change." In that year the Soviet peasantry joined the collective farms en masse: in the course of a short period more than 242 thousand collective farms were voluntarily formed to unite nearly 19 million peasant households. This showed that the peasantry had been convinced by experience of the advantages of the collective system of farming and had turned definitely in this direction.

As a result the Soviet peasantry achieved great successes in the development of agriculture. On the eve of the Second World War agricultural produce in the USSR had increased nearly three times as compared with 1913. The agricultural results of 1947 bear witness to the success of the collective method of farming. In spite of the traces left by the war and the drought of 1946, the grain harvest in the Soviet Union in 1947 increased by 58 per cent and the amount of grain sold to the State by the peasantry equals that of the best prewar years.

Under the socialist system of large-scale collective farming, agriculture is conducted according to plan. Many collective farms own two or three thousand hectares* of land and thousands of head of cattle. Their work is varied and many-sided. In addition to cultivating grain, industrial crops and vegetables, the collective farms have orchards, pasture land, auxiliary farms, flour mills, brick and tile kilns, creameries, fisheries, apiaries. The collective farms are served by tractors, combines and other complicated machines owned by the state machine and tractor stations, the number of which is being steadily enlarged. The number of specialists engaged on the collective farms—agronomists, veterinary surgeons, zootechnicians, fruit-growers—increases from year to year.

In order to ensure good work each collective farm draws up an annual production plan divided according to the types of work, and a perspective plan for five years.

The production plan determines the quantity and type of crops to be sown, the crop rotation, and agro-technical measures; estimates the gross harvest of grain and other crops and the income of the collective farm from each

PLANNING. A team leader, Nina Maibo, consults farm agronomist Mikhail Kalinichenko on the grades of wheat to be planted.

*One hectare = 2.471 acres.

branch of its work; fixes the time for the different types of work; provides for the fulfillment of obligations to the State; for the sale of agricultural produce; for the development of animal husbandry; for the distribution of products and monetary incomes according to the workday units earned by the collective farmers; for the erection of public buildings; for cultural measures; and, finally, it makes assignments for the purchase of new agricultural tools and machines.

The plan is approved and discussed by a general meeting of members of the collective farm. This meeting determines all matters connected with the work of the farm, elects a management, a chairman, and an auditing commission. It approves the quotas of output and the rates to be paid for a workday unit, the agreement with the machine and tractor station, the annual account given by the management, the amounts of the different funds, and all the rules governing the internal life of the farm.

The management of a collective farm is elected for a term of two years and during the course of this period acts as an executive body responsible to the general meeting of the members of the farm.

The basic production unit on a collective farm is a brigade. A brigade may have from 30 to 80 members; it is assigned 250 to 400 hectares of land and the required number of horses, tools, farm buildings and machines. An experienced collective farmer, appointed by the management, heads each brigade. The brigade has its own plan, framed by its leader in consultation with other prominent collective farmers and approved by the management of the farm.

The brigade is made up so as to ensure inclusion of members proficient in the different forms of agricultural work—experienced planters, plowmen and reapers, who live near each other.

The draft cattle, agricultural implements and other equipment used by the brigade are placed under the charge of individual members, which increases their responsibility for the public property of the brigade.

The brigade leader is responsible for the entire organization of the production process—the distribution of the tools and other means of production; the assignment of the brigade members according to different types of work; the application of proper agro-

CHAIRMAN. Nazani Galustyan (center, with grapes) is chairman of the Sebastya collective farm in Soviet Armenia.

technical measures; the fulfillment of the plan of the brigade; the registration of workday units earned by the members; the organization of maintenance; and the preservation of the collective farm property entrusted to the brigade.

A collective farm may have brigades engaged in field work, vegetable cultivation, fruit growing, animal husbandry, building work, and fishing, depending upon the nature of the work carried out by the given collective farm.

A brigade consists of several groups, each of which includes six to ten persons. A group is assigned to work on several tens of hectares of land. There are also groups which specialize in special types of farm work, as for instance the cultivation of sugar beet, flax, tobacco, or hemp. Only one of these crops is grown by any given group.

A group is headed by a leader appointed by the collective farm management who is fully responsible for the work of the group. The group leader takes part in the general work.

All brigades and groups work on a piece-work basis. The collective farm management proposes, and the general meeting of collective farmers approves, the quotas of output and the rates to be paid for each type of work per workday. A workday is a unit for measuring the quantity and quality of the common work of the farm performed by each collective farmer.

On the collective farm all agricultural work is divided into seven categories. For work classified in the seventh category the collective farmer receives two workday units for a daily quota; for a daily quota of work classified in the first category he receives one-half of a workday unit. This means that the seventh category includes the most complicated types of farm work which demand special knowledge or skill.

That is how the common work and management of an agricultural artel is organized in the USSR.

All this is registered in the rules and regulations of the agricultural artel, which is the chief law guiding collective farm life. The rules and regulations are drawn up, discussed and approved by general meetings of the members of the farm and are adhered to strictly.

It can be seen from the above that the collective farmers themselves are the absolute owners of all the wealth of the collective farm. They are vitally interested in the increase of production and monetary incomes, as the richer the collective farm, the larger the amount of produce and money received by them per workday unit.

In addition, the members of a collective farm each own a small personal farm consisting of a plot of land attached to the house, large and small cattle, poultry, orchards and vegetable gardens. But the wellbeing of the collective farmer is based on the income of the collective farm.

The World's Most Mechanized Farms

By Professor N. Vlasov

Professor at Moscow Molotov Institute of Mechanization and Electrification of Agriculture

OVERCOMING the ravages of the war and the 1946 drought, the Soviet Union achieved a great improvement in its agriculture. This is eloquently shown by the figures given by the State Planning Committee of the USSR in its recent statement on the fulfillment of the State Plan for 1947. The total grain harvest increased by 58 per cent. Harvest yields of other crops also increased considerably during 1947. The grain crop yield reached the prewar level.

The success of agriculture has enabled the Soviet State to abolish the rationing system, to reduce prices of consumer goods and to pass over to open trading. Soviet agriculture, developing on the basis of the latest achievements of science and technique, has all the conditions necessary for further progress. One of the most important of these conditions is the growth of its technical equipment.

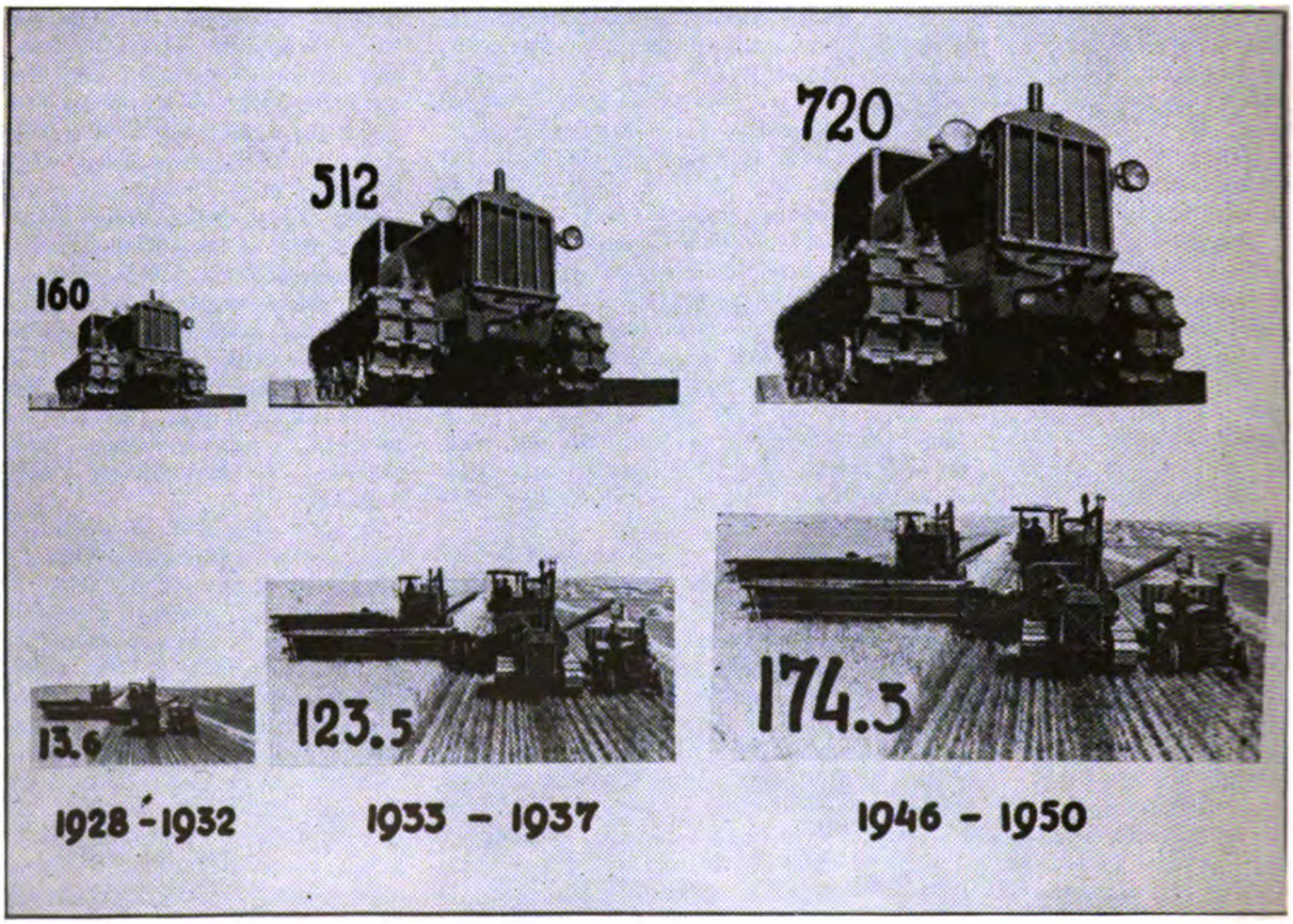
The tractor and agricultural machine building industries created under the Stalin Five-Year Plans are year by year increasing the supply of machines for Soviet agriculture.

Tsarist Russia, as Lenin pointed out, was an exceedingly backward country; it was equipped with modern implements of production four times worse than England, five times worse than Germany and ten times worse than the United States of America.

The USSR has become a country with very highly mechanized agriculture. In 1940 three-quarters of all the plowing on collective farms and half of all the sowing were effected by tractors; half of all the grain harvesting was carried out by combines. The level of mechanization of agricultural work in the principal grain growing districts, such as the Ukraine, North Caucasus, the Volga area and Siberia was still higher.

The level of the mechanization of farm work in the USSR is much higher than in other European countries.

In the Soviet Union, with its vast collective and state farms, unlimited



MECHANIZATION. The number of tractors and harvester combines (in thousands) in Soviet agriculture. Despite wartime destruction of thousands of machines, mechanization will have considerably increased by 1950.

possibilities are open for the applying of advanced technique in agricultural production.

A major role in the mechanization of agricultural production is played by the state machine and tractor stations (MTS as they are called for short) which for small fees till the land of the collective farms and carry out other field work.

In 1930 there were 158 MTS in the USSR with seven thousand tractors, and before the Second World War, in 1940, there were more than seven thousand MTS with half a million tractors.

The overwhelming majority of the MTS work in the grain districts of the USSR. The technical equipment of these MTS is high. On an average each of them has 60 tractors, from 20 to 30 harvester combines and many other large machines and implements.

The MTS place all their technical equipment at the disposal of the collective farms. Take as an example, characteristic of the grain districts, the Molotov collective farm in Altai Territory. It cultivates an area of about two thousand hectares* and is served by MTS teams which have at their disposal six tractors and four harvester combines. The collective farm owns four motor vehicles and 74 draft horses, and is served by a steam-driven power station. Its annual output amounts to between 1,600 and 1,800 tons of grain and much other agricultural and animal-husbandry produce.

Before the Second World War, engine-power constituted 70 per cent of the total draft power resources of Soviet agriculture, against 0.8 per cent in 1916.

With the growth of advanced technique in agriculture, people of new trades appeared in the Soviet villages. Before the past war, on the collective farms and MTS there were 943 thousand tractor drivers, 247 thousand combine operators, 215 thousand chauffeurs, 120 thousand tractor brigade leaders, 40 thousand mechanics and hundreds of thousands of field cultivation experts, vegetable growers, horticulturists, cattle breeders, etc.

State farms—large state agricultural enterprises—play an important role in grain production. Before the Second World War there were more than four thousand state farms in the USSR with a total area of more than 13 million hectares. State grain farms are well mechanized. Their technical equipment ranks them as the most highly developed of all agricultural enterprises. In 1940, 97 per cent of the plowing and 98 per cent of the grain sowing in the state farms was effected by tractors, and 87 per cent of the total area of crops was harvested by combines. The proportion of tractor draft-power in the state grain farms reached 94 per cent.

*One hectare = 2.471 acres.

STALINGRAD. Tractors roll again from the Stalingrad tractor plant, which was entirely destroyed by the German invasion.

The importance of state farms is not only that they produce much grain, meat, milk, wool, cotton, beet and other agricultural products. The state farms have greatly assisted in the collectivization of the peasant farms, by serving as models of the socialist organization of production on the basis of a high machine technique and the scientific application of advanced agronomic technique. State farms serve as an example of highly productive and highly profitable farming.

1947 was a successful agricultural year for the collective and state farms and MTS. Tractor work carried out in 1947 was 29 per cent more than in 1946. The average area worked by one tractor increased during the same period by 21 per cent and the quality of the work was much better. The result was that in 1947 the collective and state farms reaped a rich harvest.

By the end of the Five-Year Plan in 1950, the annual grain harvest should rise to at least 127 million tons against the 118.8 million tons obtained in 1940.

One of the decisive factors in the rehabilitation and development of grain farming is the mechanization of agricultural production.

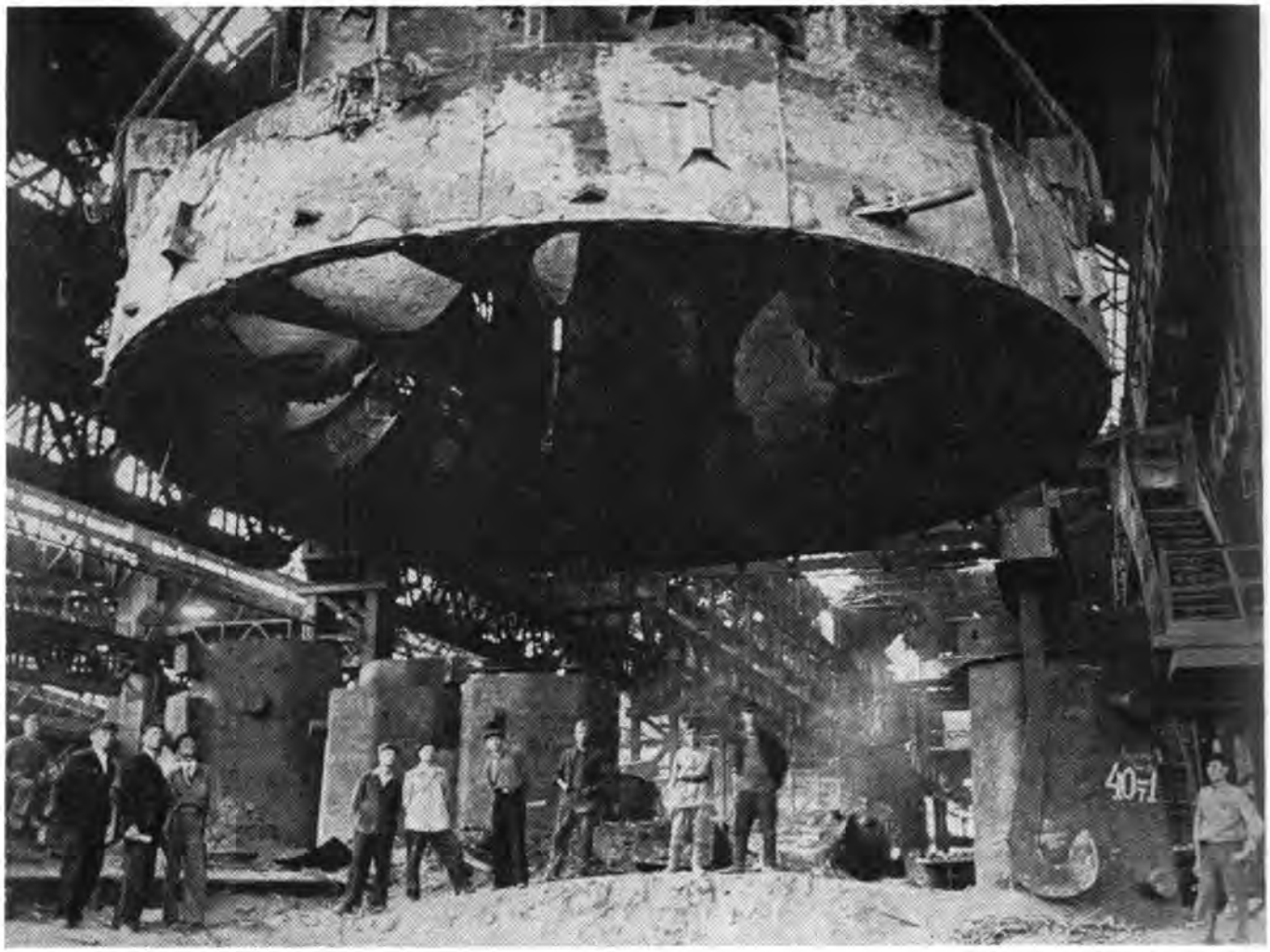
In the current Five-Year Plan period the factories producing tractors and agricultural machines will supply agriculture with at least 325 thousand tractors, 124 thousand harvester combines and hundreds of thousands of other machines.

The tractor and agricultural machine building industries are called upon to produce new, improved types of machinery to meet the demands of the high agronomic technique of field work, to make possible a considerable reduction in the expenditure of labor, and to raise the efficiency of agriculture.

By 1950, in accordance with the Five-Year Plan, 90 per cent of the plowing, at least 70 per cent of spring and winter crop sowing, 90 per cent of fallow plowing and 90 per cent of autumn plowing will be mechanized, and 55 per cent of the harvesting will be carried out by combines. The plan also provides for the mechanization of other work and an increase in the output of grain and of other products.

Along with mechanization, the electrification of agriculture in the postwar Five-Year period will be greatly increased. By the end of that period a third of the total number of collective farms and all of the MTS and state farms of the country will be supplied with electric power. Agriculture in the USSR will become not only mechanized, but also further electrified.

The growth of the mechanization and the electrification of Socialist agriculture provides a firm basis for its steady and ever-growing progress.



TURBINE WHEEL. This huge part for the reconstructed Dnieper Hydro-electric Station was made in Novo-Kramatorsk Works, Ukrainian SSR.

A Dream Comes True

By A. Shatrov

In a conversation which he had with H. G. Wells, the British author, in 1920, V. I. Lenin told him of the plans for the extensive electrification of all Russia, including her most outlying regions. Wells regarded these plans somewhat doubtfully and later, in one of his books, called Lenin "The Dreamer of the Kremlin."

Yes, Lenin was a dreamer at times. But a dreamer not in the sense in which the British author used the word. His dream of the electrification of Russia rested on real and practical principles. Lenin lived to do a good deal himself toward the electrification of the Soviet country. The work which he began continued after his death. It was during the period of Stalin's Five-Year Plans that electrification reached the height of its progress.

Following the construction of the first large power stations—the Shatura station which supplied electricity to Moscow, and the Volkhov station which supplied Leningrad—the lights of new and ever newer stations began to blaze in different parts of the country. Many industrial enterprises of the Ukraine got their energy from the famous Dnieper hydroelectric station (Dnieproges). Power stations built on mountain rivers began to operate in the Transcaucasus. Large electric stations were built and put into operation in Central Asia, Siberia, and the Urals.

The Soviet Union was being covered with a network of power lines. During the years immediately preceding the Second World War, electricity was swiftly finding its way to Soviet villages and hamlets, and was being put to use in agriculture.

Now, after the war, the electrification of rural regions is proceeding with particular intensity. The Five-Year Plan covering the period of 1946-1950 states that:

"There shall be a further development in the use of electricity in the collective farms, machine and tractor stations and state farms. Small hydroelectric stations shall be widely built in the rural areas, and where there are no water-power resources, stations driven by locomobiles or gas-generator

engines working on local fuel shall be built."

The Five-Year Plan provides for the construction of thousands of new rural power stations with a total capacity of two million kilowatts.

It would be a difficult task for the Government to carry out so gigantic a program through its own agencies, unaided by the peasants themselves, so in the interest of speed, Soviet peasants are taking an active part in the electrification of their villages. The example set by the Sverdlov Region, for instance, is interesting: every collective farm in the whole region now has electricity.

The Sverdlov Region is located in the Urals. Its administrative center—the city of Sverdlovsk—is separated from Moscow by a distance of 932 miles. It is an industrial region with many factories and mines, but agriculture is also developed to a large extent.

Before the war a rather insignificant number of rural communities in the Urals received electric current from the industrial enterprises, or had their own small power stations. But this was not enough. The Uralites dreamed of having electric light in every village and hamlet and of having electric motors humming on every collective farm.

The war was not yet over when a broad program for rural electrification was undertaken in Sverdlov Region. Work was begun in two directions. First, in those districts through which high-voltage transmission lines run to the factories and plants, it was possible to use industrial energy. But even this required a great deal of work. It was necessary to run branch lines from the villages to the main transmission lines and to install step-down transformers. The villages also had to be wired.

Secondly, in those districts where there were no industrial transmission lines it was necessary to build small rural power stations. In most cases these were hydroelectric generating stations. There are many small mountain streams in the Urals which had to be harnessed to provide energy for the collective farm turbines. For this purpose it was necessary to build dams, erect buildings for the power stations, and run transmission lines to the villages.

Thousands of collective farmers, plain Russian peasants, volunteered to do the excavation, carpentry and auxiliary work which was involved. Since the war had not yet ended and most of the men were at the front, an immense share of the work was voluntarily done by women. The peasant women dug the earth, hauled lumber and helped plant the poles. They worked with remarkable zeal in their desire to make a splendid gift—electricity to their husbands, sons and brothers who would soon be coming home.

The villagers were aided in their efforts by the city population and by the Urals factories. Every industrial enterprise sponsored the electrification of a collective farm. The cities dispatched teams of engineers, technicians and electricians to the villages. Factories began to turn out electrical supplies and materials in excess of their plan, to meet the requirements of the countryside. Scientists and designers got together to draft plans of simple and convenient types of power stations.

Rural electrification became a popular movement in Sverdlov Region. During the course of 1945, more than a thousand collective farms received electric current. Then the war ended and servicemen began returning to their homes. They took an active part in further electrification efforts. And thus, by the end of 1947, not one collective farm in the whole Region was left without electricity.

A tremendous job had been accomplished in somewhat less than three years. One hundred and seventy hydroelectric stations and 621 fuel power stations were built throughout the Region, and about 7,500 miles of new electric lines were installed.

Bright electric lights now illuminate the homes of the Urals peasants. Electric motors have come to the villages together with the lights. Electrical energy is now used in many phases of agricultural work, easing farm labor and making it more efficient.

We recently visited the Projector collective farm in the Achitsk District, which embraces about one hundred peasant homesteads. The small, thirty-kilowatt hydroelectric generating station there not only supplies light to all the homes and auxiliary structures, but also provides energy to nine motors. In the collective farm the threshing, sorting and drying of grain, lumber sawing, and pumping of water to the cattle-sheds is done by electricity. The farm mill is driven by an electric motor. Another motor runs a turning and a grinding lathe. The blacksmith shop has an electric welding apparatus. In the cattle yard a machine for cutting straw is likewise run by electricity.

One of the women of the collective farm, Alexandra Rozdyakonova, said: "Electricity has made our work much easier, especially for the women. It was no easy matter to carry water from the well or to turn the straw-cutter by hand. Now all you have to do is to turn on the switch."

The Zarya (Dawn) collective farm, also in Sverdlovsk Region, can serve as another example. Twenty-six years ago there was a small village on the site of the present collective farm. Fifteen years ago the people of the village organized a collective farm. The total value of its property at that time was estimated at 25 thousand rubles. Now it is estimated at five million rubles. During the five-year period prior to electrification, the collective farm gave the nation 7,800 centners* of grain. During the five-year period after electrification the farm delivered 20 thousand centners of grain.

The Zarya collective farm now has more than 7,400 acres of land, of which 4,153 are planted to grain crops. It also has six livestock farms: dairy, hog, horse, poultry, rabbit and sheep farms. They provide the collective farmers with necessary products and with a fat income.

The collective farm has a blacksmith shop and a variety of other workshops in which all machines and mechanisms are run by electricity. Electric energy also does the threshing, grading and drying of grain, the sawing of lumber, the pumping of water, and other sundry jobs. The kolkhoz has two power stations of two hundred kilowatts each: one is run by steam, the other is a hydroelectric station. Electricity has become a common factor in the process of agricultural production and in the domestic life of the farmers. It has lifted a great burden from the shoulders of the women.

Every collective farm in the Urals

*One centner = 110.23 pounds.

has from five to ten electric motors. In 1947 alone, electricity has saved the collective farms four and a half million days of manpower and two million days of horsepower, permitting these forces to be used on other jobs. In 1948 the number of electric motors in every collective farm will be considerably increased.

Electricity plays an important role in the cultural development of the Ural countryside. Thanks to electricity every village Soviet now has a stationary talking-picture projector. The use of radio is becoming more widespread. Schools, hospitals and village clubs are able to render better service.

It goes without saying that electricity has brought more joy to every peasant family. Bright electric light has replaced the flickering kerosene lamp.

A great thing has been achieved in the Urals! The entire Soviet nation rejoices at the way the Uralites have succeeded in electrifying the countryside. Following the example of Sverdlov Region, rural electrification is rapidly gaining ground in all other regions of the Soviet Union.

Lenin's dreams, his great plans to spread electricity throughout Russia have come true. Electricity is now not only the force that propels Soviet industry, it is becoming the energy upon which the further mechanization of agriculture will depend to an ever-growing degree.

Sunday Universities for Collective Farmers

Sunday universities, organized in the villages of the Kursk Region (RSFSR) are attended by 1,200 chairmen of collective farms and leaders of brigades and groups of collective farmers. There they study agronomic technique, mechanization of agriculture, plant cultivation, animal husbandry, etc. They also hear lectures on social, political and other subjects. The studies in these collective farm universities are conducted by teachers of the Agricultural Institute, Fodder Institute, Scientific-Research Institute of Animal Husbandry, Pedagogical Institute and agricultural and technical schools of the region.

Heroines of Labor

By V. Voinov

On January 3, 1948, the Soviet press published this year's first Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, which awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor to a group of agricultural progressivists who had attained the highest yield of grain in Kursk Region. The Decree lists the names of the first four Heroes, and all of them are women. They are: Anna Krylova, Anna Lobodenko, Pelageya Martynova and Natalia Slavgorodskaya.

During the years 1941-1943, Kursk Region was the arena of fierce battles with the German invaders. After the Hitlerites were driven out, collective farmers returned to their villages to find, instead of their thriving homesteads, their fertile fields and their well-equipped livestock farms, stretches of wasteland, the soil mutilated by shells and trenches, and on the wasted land the cinders of their former homes.

A little more than four years have elapsed, and the fame that the collective farms of Kursk Region once enjoyed has returned. New villages, farms, mills, machine-tractor stations, clubs and kindergartens have risen from the ashes. Collective farmers have moved from the dugouts and mud huts back into spacious, cozy homes. In 1947 the grain growers of Kursk region gathered an exceptional crop.

The true standard-bearers of collective farm prosperity and abundance in 1947 were the Kursk women. It is not by chance that they are winners among the best, and became Heroines of Socialist Labor. It is not without reason that most of the people from the Kursk Region who have been decorated with the Order of Lenin, were women.

Last autumn at the New World collective farm in this Region, the fields resembled a large golden sea in the midst of which the farm settlement, with its straight, broad streets and white houses, looked from afar like a great floating vessel. Pelageya Vasilievna Martynova, a collective farm woman, put a great deal of selfless labor as well as all her wisdom and her experience into these fields.

Ten years ago the managing board of the collective farm placed Pelageya Martynova at the head of a field team. With the aid of machines and advanced Soviet agronomical science, Martynova and her team grew excellent crops. Even in the drouth year of 1946, by using the method of artificial night watering, Martynova's team harvested a good crop.

Early in the spring of 1947 Pelageya Martynova and her team began the fight for a new crop. Guided by her own knowledge and experience as well as by the advice of the farm agronomist, she saw to it that the tractors plowed to the proper depth. Later, in certain sections, the sprouting crops were specially treated with chemical fertilizers. The team took great pains to keep the field free of weeds and harmful insects.

When harvesting time came, the golden ears bent under the weight of the full, mellow grain. The team harvested 32.9 centners of wheat per hectare* from its field. It was a great victory. But now the team is not inclined to consider this the best it can do. Heroine of Socialist Labor Pelageya Martynova promises to gather at least 40 centners of wheat per hectare in 1948.

When threshing was begun in the Red October collective farm of Glushkov District, Kursk Region, scores of collective farmers gathered around the sheaves of rye grown on the field of Anna Lobodenko's team. The team scored a yield of 30.3 centners per hectare. Many remembered Anna Lobodenko in 1934 when as a young girl she headed the farm's first team.

Anna Lobodenko attained splendid results through stubborn toil plus experience. Her team spread the field with hundreds of tons of natural and mineral fertilizers. In frosty winter weather and in snowstorms, the members of the team worked in the field erecting barriers to retain the snow on the ground. And now all the village

*One centner = 110.23 lbs.; one hectare = 2.471 acres.

(Continued on page 189)

Transport—Artery of the Economy

By D. Svetov and A. Korneyev*

* *Director-general of Traffic*

SOVIET transport, like every other branch of Soviet economy, is continuously improving its work. In its gains, one can clearly see the immense advantages of the planned socialist transport system. The increased freight turnover reflects the tremendous rise of Soviet economy in the postwar period.

The past two years of the current Five-Year Plan (1946, 1947) show that the Soviet transport system is coping with the immense tasks confronting it.

The railways, and first of all the railway network in the devastated areas, were rehabilitated and are developing according to plan; normal navigation was restored on the rivers and seas; and motor transport was considerably extended.

In the USSR, railways carry 85 per cent of all the freight. That is why such singular importance is attached to the restoration and development of the railway network. The freight carrying capacity of the railways is increasing from year to year. In 1946—the first year of the present Five-Year Plan—the freight turnover increased by 13 per cent as compared with 1945, and in 1947 by 11 per cent as compared with 1946. That is a very high rate of progress.

During the last few months of the second year of the Five-Year Plan, loadings further increased. This we owe to the selfless efforts of the Soviet railway workers who are determined to fulfill the five-year program in four years. Compared with the same months of 1946, loadings increased by 15 per cent in October, 1947, and by 18.8 per cent in November. The increase in turnover was particularly evident in the transportation of the more essential freights. Coal loading, for example, was above the prewar level, and 14.3 per cent higher than during November of the previous year. Transportation of grain and other foodstuffs increased very considerably in 1947.

The river and mercantile fleet also increased freight turnover. River transport completed the navigation season by the 30th Anniversary of the October Revolution (November 7, 1947), increasing freight turnover by 18.9 per cent as compared with the previous navigation season. Sea communication between the USSR and other countries also developed on a far greater scale in the postwar period. Soviet merchant ships fulfilled the program of the second year of the Five-Year Plan on December 16, delivering 15 per cent more freight than in the first year of the Five-Year Plan.

In November, 1947, 512 big trunk lines, works and enterprises of the railway system, including the Western, the Ashkhabad, the Stalingrad, the Turkestan-Siberian and other railways, reached the goals of the second year of the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule. The railways of the Northwestern area, among them the October, the Kirov and other lines, loaded more than 100 thousand cars of various freight over and above the year's program.

Serious measures were also adopted to improve the passenger service, the carrying capacity of which already exceeds that of the prewar period and reaches the anticipated level of 1950—the last year of the Five-Year Plan. Large-scale work was carried out on the repair and rehabilitation of the railway stations and cars. Comfortable express trains run on the more important lines which connect Moscow with Leningrad, Kiev, the Caucasus and the Crimea, better in every respect than what we had in the prewar years.

Railwaymen have spared no effort to improve the railway service. Many have pledged to fulfill the year's as well as the five-year program ahead of schedule. Locomotive driver Vassili Yushko covered more than 20 thousand kilometers beyond his year's quota by December 1. Bricklayer Ivan Rakhmanin fulfilled twelve and a half annual quotas in one year.

Tens of thousands of railway workers have completed their annual and five-year programs ahead of schedule.

The movement to repair in local

POBEDA. Locomotive of the Pobeda (Victory) type, made at the Bryansk works.

shops locomotives and cars that need factory rehabilitation is a vivid example of what the initiative of the railway workers may yield. This movement sprang up at the depot of the small railway station of Timoshevskaya, North Caucasus. Following this example many locomotive and car depots in the country began capital repairs on locomotives and cars on the spot. In two years they repaired 1,500 locomotives and more than a thousand passenger cars. Eight locomotive repair works and four car repair plants would have been kept busy for twelve months to rehabilitate this number of locomotives and cars.

The fulfillment of the great rehabilitation program made possible better utilization of the rolling stock, and thus ensured the increase in freight turnover. Thousands of kilometers of second tracks and new lines were laid, and more than 1,500,000 square meters of living space for railwaymen was built in the course of the past two years. Among the routes that received second tracks is that of Moscow-Prokhladnaya via Rostov and Kharkov. Rehabilitation of the Donbas railways is being pushed ahead and in 1948 will reach the prewar level.

The Soviet railway network is being re-equipped with modern rolling stock. During the third quarter of 1947, production of main-line locomotives trebled in comparison with the third quarter of 1946. Many sections of the network are already served by the new powerful "L" (Pobeda) locomotives, production of which began after the war.

The turnround of cars—the universal yardstick for measuring the work of railways—was accelerated by 32 hours during the course of the last two years. This was achieved by cutting down the idle time of the cars at stations, by developing "bunched traffic" and by the mechanization of loading and unloading. In this way the railwaymen were able to transport much more freight with the existing rolling stock.

The advantages of the Soviet socialist planning system, the initiative and selfless work of the Soviet people, the adroit utilization of all resources, has ensured the swift postwar revival of the railways and thus has promoted the economic growth of the USSR.

The tremendous possibilities inherent in the Soviet transport system and their own spirit of self-reliance has enabled the railwaymen to join the great movement of the Soviet people for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years. They have pledged themselves to reach the level marked for 1950 in 1949.

The workers of the river and merchant fleet are likewise striving to achieve this target.

THE network of waterways of the USSR totals nearly 500 thousand kilometers in length. Many of the large rivers which flow through Soviet territory are more than two thousand kilometers long.

In tsarist Russia less than 60 thousand kilometers of navigable rivers were used for shipping. Investments in inland water transport were insignificant. The basic capital investment per kilometer of waterway, for example, was one-twentieth of that in France and one-third of that in the USA.

A considerable part of the river fleet was destroyed, as were many river ports during the period of the Civil War and foreign intervention (1918-1921). Inland water transport made a speedy recovery in Soviet times and particularly during the period of the Five-Year Plans, when shipyards built many new seagoing and river vessels, tugs of a new type, as well as river tankers with a capacity of 12 thousand tons each. Large freighters and motor passenger vessels were launched. The network of rivers used for navigation increased to 110 thousand kilometers, and of those used for timber floating, to 210 thousand kilometers. This expansion took place chiefly in the northern regions of the country, as well as in Siberia and Central Asia.

The river fleet has been almost completely renovated. Considerable work has been done in mechanizing wharves, clearing and deepening the fairways and in building canals. The Baltic-White Sea Canal was built in the record time of 11 months in 1932-1933. The completion of the Moscow-Volga Canal in 1936-1937 made the Soviet capital a river port linked with three seas.

The greater part of the Soviet Union's oil, timber and building materials is transported by river vessels. The USSR occupies first place in Europe in river shipping.

Planned socialist economy has enabled the Soviet Union to solve its problems of development of transport, power and water supply, irrigation and fishing. The dam built at the Volkhov hydroelectric power plant, for instance, made the Volkhov River navigable. The famous Dnieper rapids disappeared and the river became navigable throughout its entire length with the completion of the dam at the huge Dnieper hydroelectric station. This station supplies power to industry and transport in the Dnieper areas and the Donets coal region.

A number of automobile plants established during the period of the Five-Year Plans have provided the country with trucks and passenger cars.

Planning in transport has eliminated competition between the separate services, between separate railways, shipping lines, etc. In the Soviet State, freight transportation is carried out in accordance with a single state plan which is part of the general plan of the national economy. This makes it possible to achieve the highest degree of efficiency in transportation of goods and in operation of the different branches of transport.

The German fascist invaders inflicted tremendous losses upon Soviet transport. They destroyed 65 thousand kilometers of railways, 13 thousand bridges, 4,100 railway stations and 317 locomotive depots as well as many seagoing and river vessels, ports and wharves.

The current Five-Year Plan, which is now being successfully carried out, provides not only for the complete restoration, but also for the further development of all branches of Soviet transport. In 1950 the freight carried on the railways of the USSR will be increased to 28 per cent, and that on inland waterways to 38 per cent, above the prewar level. Seagoing freight carriage will be increased to 2.2 times the prewar level.

Automobile transport continues to develop at a rapid pace. The number of vehicles will be doubled by the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan as compared with those of the prewar period. The network of Soviet airlines will be increased to 175 thousand kilometers in length.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR—Administrative Organ of the State

By Nikolai Kuprits, B.LL.

ACCORDING to the Soviet Constitution, the highest executive and administrative organ of state power of the USSR is the Council of Ministers (the Government) of the USSR. This body is appointed by the popularly elected Supreme Soviet of the USSR at a joint sitting of both Chambers—the Soviet of the Union and Soviet of Nationalities—and consists of: the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR; the Vice-Chairmen of this Council; the Ministers directing the various branches of national economy; the Chairman of the State Planning Commission of the USSR; the Chairman of the Arts Committee.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR is responsible to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and accountable to it, or to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR between sessions. The Constitution obligates the Council of Ministers of the USSR, or a Minister of the USSR to whom a member of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR addresses a question, to give a verbal or written reply in the respective Chamber within a period not exceeding three days. The Supreme Soviet of the USSR or, between sessions, its Presidium has the right to make complete or partial changes in the composition of the Government, to relieve any Minister of his post and to make new appointments.

The functions of the Government of the USSR are formulated in the Constitution as follows:

The Council of Ministers of the USSR coordinates and directs the work of the Ministries and of other institutions, economic and cultural, under its administration; adopts measures to carry out the national economic plan and the State Budget, and to strengthen the credit and monetary system; adopts measures for the maintenance of public order, for the protection of the interests of the State, and for the safeguarding of the rights of citizens; exercises general guidance in the sphere of relations with foreign states; fixes the annual contingent of citizens to be called up for military service and directs the general organization of the armed forces of the country; sets up, whenever necessary, special committees and central administrations under the Council of Ministers of the USSR concerning economic and cultural affairs and defense.

In accordance with the Constitution, decisions and orders issued by the Council of Ministers on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation, are binding throughout the territory of the USSR.

The various branches of state administration within the jurisdiction of the USSR are directed by the Ministries of the USSR, each headed by a Minister, i.e., a member of the Government.

The Ministers are appointed or released by the Supreme Soviet, and in the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, on the recommendation of the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, subject to subsequent confirmation by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Deputy Ministers are appointed or released by the Council of Ministers.

The Minister is the highest executive in the branch of administration in his charge and is personally responsible to the Supreme Soviet, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet and to the Council of Ministers for the work of his Ministry. The collegiums functioning in a number of Ministries are consultative bodies approved by the Government.

Orders and instructions are issued by the Ministers on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation and also of decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

The Constitution classifies the Ministries into All-Union and Union-Republican Ministries.

The All-Union Ministries direct the branches of state administration entrusted to them throughout the territory of the USSR, either directly or through bodies appointed by them.

The All-Union Ministries include, among others, those of Railways, Communications, of Iron and Steel and of Non-Ferrous Metals Industries, of the Coal and Oil Industries, of the Heavy Machine Building Industry, etc.

The Union-Republican Ministries, as a rule, direct the branches of state administration entrusted to them through the corresponding Ministries of the Union Republics; they administer directly only a definite and limited number of enterprises according to a list confirmed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The Union-Republican Ministries include the Ministries of the Armed Forces, Foreign Affairs, Internal Affairs, Justice, Finance, Trade, Agriculture, the Food Industry, etc.

Apart from the principal branches of Soviet state administration which are within the jurisdiction of the Ministries, there are branches administered by various central bodies of the Council of Ministers of the USSR—administrations, committees, commissions, offices, etc.

Irrigation Projects

Preparations have been started for building the Kara-Kum Canal—one of the largest irrigation projects in the country—in the Kara-Kum desert, on the territory of Soviet Turkmenia. The first section of this canal, stretching for 277 miles, will irrigate nearly 988,400 acres of desert, which will be turned into a flourishing oasis.

Construction work has also started on the first section of the largest irrigation project in the Uzbek Soviet Republic—the canal in the southern part of the Hungry Steppe—which will be irrigating 50 thousand acres of arid land.

Election Returns from Nine Republics

Radio Moscow has broadcast the following data on the elections held on January 11 to the local Soviets of the Byelorussian, Kazakh, Georgian, Azerbaijan and Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republics, and on January 18 and February 22 to local Soviets of the Estonian, Lithuanian, Turkmen, and Uzbek SSRs.

IN BYELORUSSIA, elections were held to 19 Regional, 175 District and 66 City Soviets; nine District Soviets in cities, 2,522 Rural and 106 Settlement Soviets. The percentages of the poll to the total electorate were:

	Per Cent
Regional Soviets	99.67
District Soviets	99.67
Urban Sovets	99.19
District Soviets in cities	99.22
Rural and Settlement Soviets	99.22

The number of votes declared invalid was 0.2 per cent.

The total number of Deputies elected was 64,887, all of whom are members of the bloc of Communist and non-Party people. They include 19,379 women (29.87 per cent), 17,318 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (26.6 per cent), and 47,569 non-Party persons (73.4 per cent).

In three constituencies the nominated candidates failed to get an absolute majority vote and were therefore not elected. In all these constituencies new nominations and elections will be held.

THE KAZAKH SSR held elections to 16 Regional, 202 District, 36 City Soviets, 21 District Soviets in cities, 2,659 Rural and 11 Settlement Soviets. The poll was as follows:

	Total Electorate	Poll	Per Cent
Regional Soviets	3,791,211	3,789,524	99.96
District Soviets	2,801,006	2,800,197	99.97
Urban Soviets	1,096,437	1,095,712	99.93
District Soviets in cities	578,684	576,717	99.66
Rural Soviets	2,325,174	2,324,499	99.97
Settlement Soviets	428,754	428,443	99.93

The number of voters who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were:

		Per Cent
Regional Soviets	3,773,623	99.58
District Soviets	2,790,701	99.66
Urban Soviets	1,085,047	99.03
District Soviets in cities	571,024	99.01
Rural Soviets	2,315,147	99.60
Settlement Soviets	425,258	99.26

The number of votes cast against the candidates were:

		Per Cent
Regional Soviets	15,408	0.40
District Soviets	9,279	0.33
Urban Soviets	10,400	0.95
District Soviets in cities	5,577	0.97
Rural Soviets	9,144	0.39
Settlement Soviets	3,090	0.72

A total of 1,394 ballots were declared invalid.

Altogether 53,219 Deputies were elected, all of whom were candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. They include 17,992 women (33.81 per cent), 27,851 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (52.3 per cent) and 25,368 non-Party (47.7 per cent).

In one constituency the candidate failed to get an absolute majority vote and was therefore not elected. In that constituency new nominations and elections will be held.

ELECTIONS took place to the Regional Soviet of the South Ossetian Autonomous Region and to District, City, Rural and Settlement Soviets of the Georgian SSR. Out of an electorate of 2,096,945, the total poll was 2,096,676 or 99.99 per cent. The details of the poll were as follows:

	Total Electorate	Poll	Per Cent
Regional Soviet of South Ossetian Autonomous Region	52,647	52,647	100
District Soviets	1,533,145	1,532,972	99.99
Urban Soviets	724,413	724,282	99.98
District Soviets in cities	363,831	363,690	99.96
Rural and Settlement Soviets	1,358,888	1,358,723	99.99

The numbers of voters who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were as follows:

		Per Cent
South Ossetian Regional Soviet	52,528	99.77
District Soviets	1,531,957	99.93
City Soviets	723,296	99.80
District Soviets in cities	363,134	99.85
Rural and Settlement Soviets	1,357,735	99.93

The number of ballots in which the names of the candidates were deleted, i.e., the numbers of votes cast against the candidates, were:

		Per Cent
South Ossetian Regional Soviets	108	0.20
District Soviets	977	0.06
City Soviets	908	0.16
District Soviets in cities	534	0.14
Rural and Settlement Soviets	945	0.06

Ballots declared invalid numbered 192.

A total of 26,652 Deputies were elected, including 58 to the South Ossetian Regional Soviet, 2,764 to District Soviets, 2,213 to City Soviets, 1,026 to District Soviets in cities, 19,960 to Rural Soviets, and 631 to Settlement Soviets. All the elected Deputies were candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. They include 7,995 women (30 per cent), 10,684 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (49.1 per cent) and 15,968 non-Party persons (59.9 per cent).

IN AZERBAIJAN, elections were held to the Regional Soviet of the Nagorno-Karabakh Autonomous Region and to 73 District Soviets, 30 City Soviets, 19 District Soviets in cities, 1,147 Rural Soviets and 72 Settlement Soviets. The poll figures were as follows:

	Total Electorate	Poll	Per Cent
Nagorno-Karabakh Regional Soviet	77,586	77,562	99.9
District Soviets	978,690	978,670	99.9
City Soviets	694,717	694,679	99.9
District Soviets in cities	554,222	554,184	99.9
Rural and Settlement Soviets	980,828	980,802	99.9

VOTERS. Four 18-year-olds, on the right in this picture, vote for the first time in the recent elections.

The numbers of voters who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were:

		Per Cent
Nagorno-Karabakh Regional Soviet	77,459	99.87
District Soviets	977,780	99.91
City Soviets	691,130	99.49
District Soviets in cities	550,701	99.37
Rural and Settlement Soviets	979,094	99.83

The numbers of votes cast against the candidates were:

		Per Cent
Nagorno-Karabakh Regional Soviet	97	0.12
District Soviets	879	0.09
City Soviets	3,478	0.50
District Soviets in cities	3,341	0.6
Rural and Settlement Soviets	1,657	0.17

Ballots declared invalid numbered 281.

A total of 23,348 Deputies were elected to all Soviets, including the Nakhichevan Autonomous Region and the Nagorno-Karabakh Autonomous Region. All the Deputies were candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. They include 8,207 women (35.15 per cent), 11,744 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (50.3 per cent), and 11,604 non-Party persons (49.7 per cent). The elections were held in all constituencies.

THE poll in the Kirghiz SSR was:

	Per Cent
Regional Soviets	99.94
District Soviets	99.97
City Soviets	99.97
District Soviets in cities	99.99
Rural and Settlement Soviets.....	99.97

The percentages of voters who voted for the candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc were:

	Per Cent
Regional Soviets	99.53
District Soviets	99.50
Urban Soviets	98.89
District Soviets in cities.....	98.94
Rural and Settlement Soviets.....	99.40

The number of ballots declared invalid was 358.

The total number of Deputies elected was 12,735. All the Deputies elected were candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. They include 4,265 women (33.49 per cent), 5,961 members or candidate-members of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (46.8 per cent), and 6,774 non-Party persons (53.2 per cent). Elections took place in all constituencies.

Returns of elections to local Soviets in the Soviet Socialist Republics of Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Turkmenia and Uzbekistan follow in condensed form. Tabulations have not yet been received on the Tajik elections.

MORE than 99 per cent of the electorate voted in Estonia and 99.6 per cent of the votes were cast for candidates of the Communist and non-Party bloc. Fourteen thousand five hundred sixty-five Deputies were elected, three-quarters of them non-Party people. One-third of those elected were women.

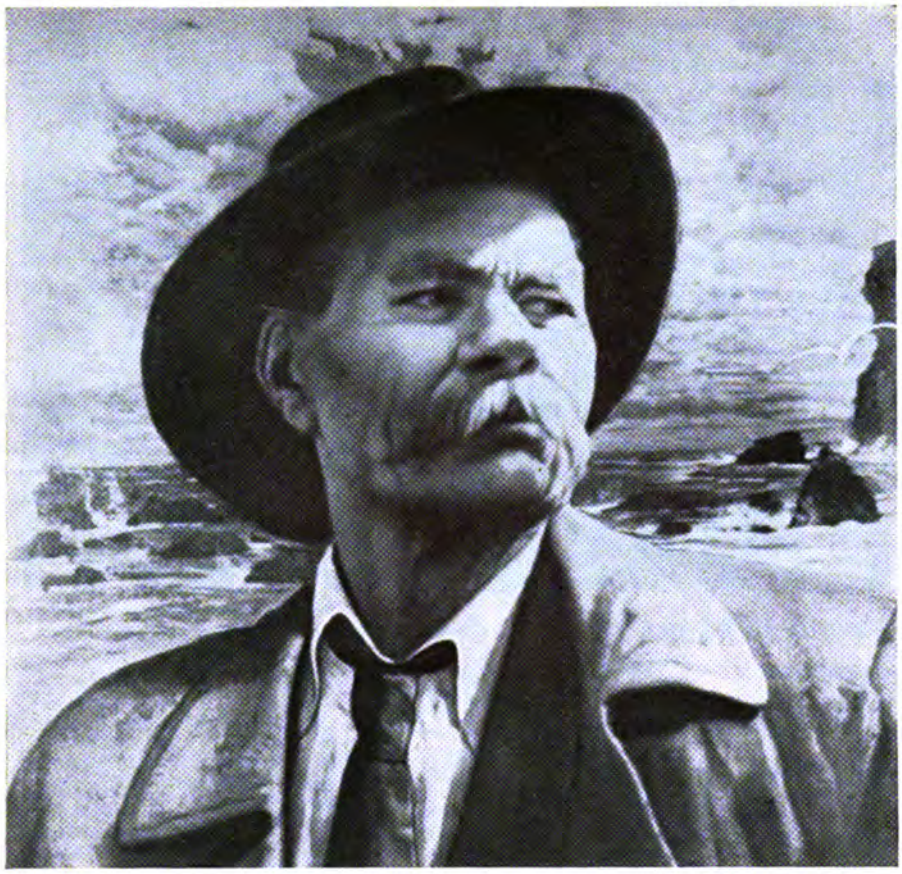
IN LITHUANIA, the percentage of voters varied from 99.6 percent in some districts to 99.8 per cent in others. All the 41,195 candidates elected were members of the Communist and non-Party bloc; 11 per cent of the new Deputies are members of the Communist Party, the remaining 89 per cent are non-Party people. Twenty-three per cent are women.

VOTING in Latvia ranged from 98.7 per cent of the electorate to 99.7 per cent. All the 26,939 candidates elected were members of the Communist and non-Party bloc; 18.3 per cent are Communists and 81.7 per cent are non-Party; 31 per cent are women.

IN TURKMENIA, 10,102 Deputies were elected, of whom 48.3 per cent are members of the Communist Party and 51.7 per cent are non-Party. Thirty-four per cent of those elected are women.

ACCORDING to a communique of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek Republic, 99.94 to 99.99 per cent of the electorate took part in the elections to the Regional, District, City and Village Soviets of Working People's Deputies held in the Republic on February 22. The number of votes cast for the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party was over 99 per cent of the number of votes cast. Some 40 thousand Deputies in all were elected.

All Deputies represent the Communist and non-Party bloc; 33.17 per cent of the Deputies are women, and 47.23 per cent are Communists.



GORKY. This portrait is by I. Brodsky

Maxim Gorky—A Memoir

By Nikolai Teleshev

(Editor's note: The author of this article is one of the oldest Russian writers.)

I CAN remember Maxim Gorky as a very young man when we first met fifty years or so ago in Nizhni Novgorod, the town that now bears his name. It was then that he printed in the local paper his famous words: "Around us life seethes, new consciousness is awaking, daring new tasks are arising, a new man is being born who will demand an answer to the questions: Where is truth, where is justice? Who is friend and who is enemy? . . ."

His stories, bracing and irrepressible, clothed in beautiful and vivid form, full of will power and the faith that "man can do anything," were most timely in those far-off oppressive days when the people of Russia began to seek escape from the heavy heel of absolutism. Students, workers, writers, and employees were all in a mood of protest. The young writer's first steps were attended by phenomenal and rapidly growing success. His appearance in literature produced a social upheaval.

It was at this time that we met.

He was a tall, spare man with a slight stoop. He wore his long, straight, hair brushed back from his brow, and had a small light mustache and a shaven chin. His eyes were deep-set, and his rare, almost imperceptible smile was charming. Characteristic of his speech was the stressed "o," common to many Volga people, but it sounded softer than is usual and less noticeable, lending his speech a peculiar independence and simplicity. His voice was deep, soft and pleasant. He usually wore a black cloth Russian blouse with a narrow belt, and high boots.

I am sometimes asked by young people what a "Wednesday" was—that literary "Wednesday" which was so much talked about at one time, and which at the beginning of this century took so important a part in literature and in life.

When I told Gorky, at the very outset of our acquaintance, about these Wednesday gatherings where young writers, who were just beginning to be known, read their work before it was published, and friends criticized it and did not stand on ceremony, he became very much interested in the circle and promised to join us as soon as he came to Moscow.

"What a good thing you have arranged this and live as writers should, in comradeship! The closer we are to one another, the harder it will be to wrong us. And there are plenty now who are only too glad to wrong the writers," he said.

From that time on, whenever Gorky visited Moscow, he always put in an appearance at our literary "Wednesdays." He attributed great importance to our circle; some of the members—Veresayev, Bunin, Andreyev, Kuprin, Neidyenov and Skitalets—were well-known Russian writers by that time, and men of the older generation, such as Chekhov, Korolenko, Mamin-Sibiriak and Boborykin, joined us, too.

These friendships gave Gorky the idea of publishing a journal called *Collected Knowledge* which had an immense success. The first issue was compiled entirely of stories by members of the Wednesday gatherings. As he was collecting the manuscripts from us, he suggested:

"Let's make a record of this custom. Come along to the photographer's and be taken together."

The photograph was taken, postcard size, of a group of seven: Gorky, Skitalets, Andreyev, Chaliapin, Bunin, Chirikov and I. This photograph went the rounds of all the magazines, I believe, except those of the Black Hundred, and even went abroad, where it was published because of the tremendous interest shown in Gorky.

Early in the spring of 1900 we met at Yalta. He was living in a house on

a height which commanded a wonderful view of the sea and the surrounding country. Everything was in full bloom. I remember that his rooms were always full of people, coming and going at all hours of the day. I do not know when he had time for himself.

We met every day—either Bunin and I went to see him or he came to our hotel, or to the gardens, and it was here that I came to a better knowledge and appreciation of Alexei Maximovich, his unusually wide reading, his intellect, his breadth of view. No matter what his subject, everything he said had simplicity and deep conviction, there were no showy phrases or attempts to dramatize. It was evident that his views and his hopes constituted the very core of his nature.

Gorky had a good and very pleasant singing voice and he was fond of singing. Four of us—Gorky, Chaliapin, Skitalets, and I—used to go out in a fishing-boat on the Black Sea that spring. There was not a soul or a vessel for miles around.

The sun glittered like gold on the strong, tense blue waves. Chaliapin would sing *Down on Mother Volga.* Gorky's soft voice and Skitalets' rich bass made up the chorus. The sole audience was I, at the helm. Chaliapin's glorious voice carried far over the waste of waters, as he sang of "stormy weather," and the two other voices joined in harmoniously.

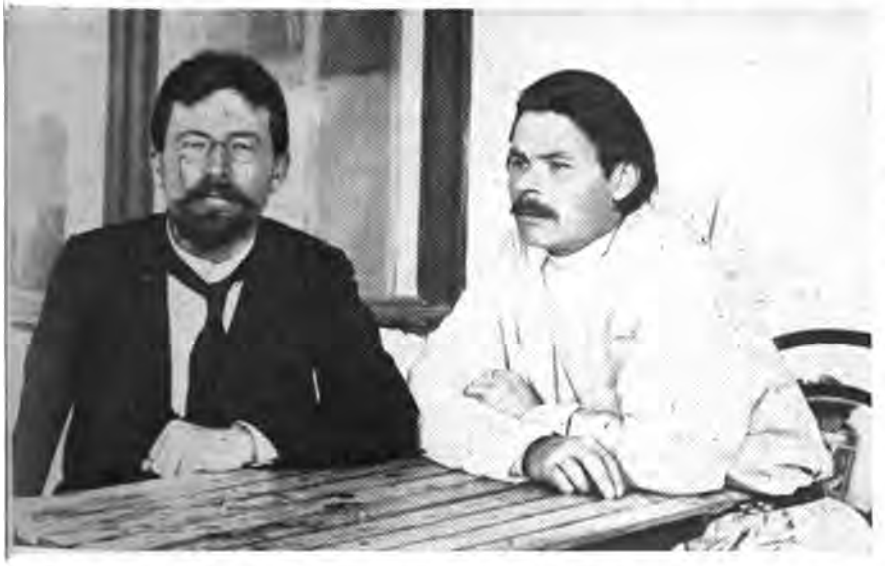
When Gorky brought his play *The Lower Depths* to the Moscow Art Theater, it was first read at one of our Wednesday gatherings by the playwright himself. He read very well, especially the part of the pilgrim Luka. During the course of his reading, he became engrossed and pronounced Luka's lines with a cheery good-natured smile. And sometimes his voice would tremble with emotion and when he read the scene in which the news spread through the doss house of the death of Anna, freed at last from her troubles and torment, he had to wipe away the tears that rose unbidden to his eyes. He was evidently imagining how it would all come out on the stage, and how someone would say: "Leave her in peace—she's had a hard life of it."

WITH STALIN. Gorky was Stalin's friend, as he had been Lenin's. Photograph made in 1931.

Many artists and writers were present at this reading. They sat on the window sills or crowded the doorways leading to adjoining rooms. Its success was exceptional—it was clear that the play would be an event. And that is how it turned out.

Gorky's life and writings, his views and his significance were incalculably great in the past and are particularly so in our own day. This was a true son of a great people, a man who loved liberty, who had a rare and vivid talent, who was an indomitable, exacting enthusiast and at the same time could be touchingly simple and tenderly considerate as a friend.

Maxim Gorky, who even in his youth stirred Russia to the depths, has written his name in clear and vivid characters on the pages of the history of Russian literature and public life. He was a great revolutionary author and thinker, the beloved writer of the working people. His world-wide fame, and the love the people feel for him, were won in the long years of struggle for a happier life for them; a struggle carried on with enthusiasm and with faith in the ultimate triumph of justice. Beginning with his earliest writings, all his books are saturated with the noble idea of liberation and victory for the people. Their love for Gorky, their own writer, their stormy petrel, will never grow dim.



AS A YOUNG MAN. Gorky and Anton Chekhov. This photograph was made at about the period described in this article.

A Pioneer of Surgery

By A. Lurie

SOVIET people revere the memory of the great men of their country, men who glorified it as statesmen, on the fields of battle, in science, culture and art. Soviet cinematography, which strives to meet the requirements of the picture-goer, has screened a number of films depicting the great deeds of Russia's best sons. Now in addition to films about Alexander Pushkin, Vasilli Chapayev, Alexander Suvorov, Mikhail Glinka, Mikhail Kutuzov and others, we have a film about the eminent Russian surgeon Nikolai Pirogov, who lived in the last century.

A contemporary of Gogol and Pushkin, Belinsky and Chernishevsky, Nikolai Pirogov was one of those progressive Russians of the Nineteenth Century who, by his work and public services, promoted Russian medical science, and by his discoveries established himself as one of the world's greatest surgeons.

Nikolai Ivanovich Pirogov was born to the family of an official in the War Ministry on November 13 (25, new calendar), 1810. At the age of fourteen he successfully passed the entrance examinations and was accepted into Moscow University, where he displayed exceptional ability; on being graduated he was sent to a special postgraduate institute under the Yuryevo (Derpt) University, to prepare for a professorship.

Pirogov's dissertation for his doctorate, on the subject of blocking the arteries in cases of inguinal aneurism (an extremely rare operation which, at that time, had only been performed once by the British surgeon Cooper) attracted general notice. In it, the twenty-year-old Pirogov displayed a brilliant knowledge of topographical anatomy and proved that problems of clinical surgery could only be correctly solved by the method of experimenting on animals.

In 1883, Pirogov was sent abroad to continue his studies, and perfected his knowledge of anatomy and surgery in the clinics of Berlin and Goettingen. Even at that time, the young Russian scientist showed his brilliant, original talent in that he sharply opposed the crude empiricism which then reigned in German surgery, boldly accusing famous German professors in surgery of ignorance.

"Who will believe me," wrote Pirogov, "when I say, that in such a country as Germany you may find famous professors who, from their chairs, speak about the uselessness of a knowledge of anatomy for a surgeon? Who will believe that their only method of finding an artery is by sense of touch—to feel the beating of the artery and to block any place from which the blood spouts! The authority of these scientists and their influence on young doctors is so great that I cannot refrain from expressing my indignation on this point!"

In the spring of 1835, Pirogov returned home. Here he displayed such exceptional skill in operating that his fame soon spread. His first operation of removing a calculus from the bladder (lithotomy), which he performed in the Derpt clinic in the presence of many curious witnesses, took him two minutes to complete! He performed a number of other operations just as successfully.

At the age of twenty-six (in April, 1836) Professor Pirogov began to lecture to Derpt students.

This young scholar displayed the full extent of his scientific genius in a remarkable research paper entitled *The Surgical Anatomy of the Arteries and Fascia,* which won the Demidov Prize of the Academy of Science, and was subsequently republished in many editions. In this classic work Pirogov far outstripped the most eminent surgeons of Germany and France. A year later, when in Paris, Pirogov visited the famous surgeon Velpeau and found the latter reading his work; Velpeau, on learning that his visitor was a Russian, inquired whether he did not know the Russian professor Pirogov. On discovering that Pirogov stood before him, Velpeau heaped praise upon him.

In this work, the young Pirogov presented a "methodological key" to the rationalization of all European surgery, then in bondage to crude empiricism. Pirogov's merit was his faultless knowledge of the anatomy of the fascia, i.e. the extremely delicate tissue which lies between the muscles. His teachings on the fascia are sti today regarded as one of the bas works in surgery.

In this way Pirogov was the founde of surgical anatomy in Russia, a branc of science that was then only in i embryo. This science regards th organs, vessels and tissues not separatel but in the aggregate in different par of the body, i.e., as the surgeon has t deal with them. Of no small merit wa Pirogov's new and valuable metho of studying the topography of organ and tissues by dissection.

Among others of Pirogov's works great value is attached to the follow ing: *A Full Course in Applied Anato my of the Human Body* (1835-1845) *Anatomical Portrayal of the Externa Appearance and Position of the Organ Contained in the Three Chief Cavitie of the Human Body* (1850); *Clinica Surgery* (1854); and, in the same year a work on osteoplastic operations on the foot. All these works have been translated into several languages and are classic handbooks for doctors and students.

One of Pirogov's great services to mankind was that he was one of the first scientists in the world to appreciate the narcotic properties of ether. This was in the years when the value of the anesthetizing property of ether was being disputed by the world's most eminent surgeons. The French professor Velpeau declared peremptorily: "Insensibility to pain during operations is a chimera about which it is not permissible even to think!" Pirogov boldly used ether as an anesthetic. "In July, 1847," he writes in his autobiography, "I used etherization for the first time on the battlefield. And, also for the first time, I made use of an immovable plaster bandage on the battlefield in cases of complicated fractures of the limbs. The benefits of anesthetization and of this bandage in field surgery were proved by us in practice prior to their use by other nations."

Pirogov spoke with pride of the priority of his discoveries in a number of the most important branches of science, regarding them as a contribution toward the development of Russian surgery. Pirogov was an ardent

patriot, desired that his country should march in the vanguard of other nations, and believed in the inexhaustible forces of the great Russian people. When, in 1854, danger threatened Russia in the South (the landing of the allies and the siege of Sevastopol), Pirogov left his academic pursuits and his comfortable home and, having received permission to organize nursing aid for the wounded, left for the besieged city of Sevastopol. "I love Russia, I love the honor of my country, and our title," he wrote to his wife. "This is inborn, you cannot tear it out of the heart or change it!"

The work of the "wonderful doctor" under the fire of the artillery on the bastions of Sevastopol aroused general admiration and respect. "Like a father for his children, Nickolai Ivanovich (Pirogov) cares for the wounded and the sick," wrote one of the nurses in a letter to her family. Legends were formed about his operating skill. In the Crimea, Pirogov first made use of his new principles of field surgery, which he subsequently outlined in a major work of two volumes entitled *The Principles of General Field Surgery*. The principles presented in this book are up-to-date still today and are applied in all armies of the world.

After the Crimean War of 1855-1856, Pirogov made his appearance in the sphere of public activities as the author of a number of works of a pedagogical nature. He demonstrated the necessity for the emancipation of women, general literacy, the equality of all nationalities before the law. Special attention was drawn by his article *Questions of Life,* published in the official military organ *Morski Sbornik*. In this, Pirogov, with great liberal-mindedness, asserted that the student must be brought up to become "not a narrow specialist but, first and foremost, a man." In the same article Pirogov sharply criticized the system of bringing up the youth, obtaining in tsarist Russia, and put forward demands which were fairly progressive for the times.

Pirogov attempted to implement his progressive opinions in his new post of school inspector of the Odessa (and later Kiev) districts (1856). However, under conditions of the tsarist regime this was impossible, and Pirogov was forced to resign in 1861.

From 1862-1866 Pirogov was abroad, in Heidelberg, where he had been sent to guide the studies of young Russian scientists preparing for a professor's chair. During this period, in October 1862, he went to Spezia in Italy to operate on Garibaldi, who was suffering from a bullet embedded in his leg; vain attempts to remove the bullet had been made by the greatest surgeons of the time. Pirogov performed a successful operation and saved the life of the Italian hero. On returning to his own country, Pirogov spent the greater part of his time on his estate of Vishnya engaging in surgical practice in which he displayed exceptionally great integrity. At the end of May, 1881, the fiftieth jubilee of Pirogov's scientific activities was celebrated in Moscow. However, a gloom was cast over the last day of the celebration by the news of Pirogov's sudden illness. An ulcer, which proved to be cancerous, formed on his gum. Six months later, on November 23, 1881, he passed away.

Pirogov was one of those remarkable talents who are the pride of the Russian people. He rendered great services to science, and his name is truly deathless in the annals of surgery. Many of the fruitful ideas which he elaborated and carried into life exercised a strong influence on the development of Russian and foreign medicine. Even at the present time, a century later, Pirogov's scientific works are up-to-date and of immense value.

It is important to note that Nikolai Pirogov, talented surgeon and scientist, carried out all his remarkable researches despite the difficulties he encountered under the conditions of the tsarist regime.

At the present time, in the Land of Socialism vast prospects are open to science. Soviet medicine has achieved immense successes and offers free aid in accordance with the most up-to-date methods of treatment to the many millions of the masses of the people throughout the vast Soviet Union. The Soviet people highly esteem such great scientists of the past as Mendeleyev, Pavlov, Sechenov, Bekhterev, Pirogov, the authors of glorious pages in the history of Russian science.

Heroines of Labor

(Continued from page 180)

folk and her best friend, Praskovya Kozmenko, whom she beat in the contest, shook Anna Lobodenko's hand and congratulated her on receiving the Government's highest award.

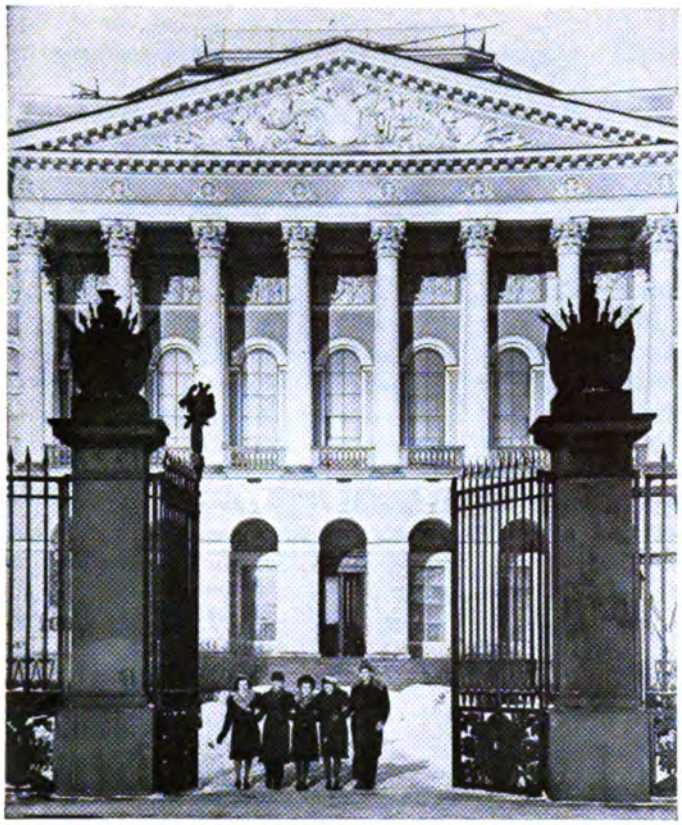
Natalia Slavgorodskaya from the Kosar collective farm, Volokonov District, is called a master of high yields. Even in the drouth year of 1946 her team harvested a better crop than any other team on the whole collective farm. Natalia Slavgorodskaya introduced a few essential amendments to the agro-technical plan for 1947. On her initiative additional fertilizers were fed to the field, the winter crops were repeatedly harrowed, and supplementary artificial pollination was effected. As a result her team gathered an average of 30.87 centners of rye per hectare from their field.

When Anna Krylova, team leader of the Red Plowman collective farm, Skorodnyanski District, was awarded the title of Heroine of Socialist Labor, the event was grandly celebrated by the whole collective farm. Guests from neighboring collective farms were invited to the feast. One of them, a 90-year-old peasant woman by the name of Kostrykina, who for many years has been receiving an old-age pension from the Government, said:

"I wish to thank our dear Stalin, who highly appreciates the work of our women. My congratulations to Anna and to all our collective farmers who proved worthy of this high reward. They are our pride. Everyone must strive to equal them."

Team leader Anna Krylova gathered 31.3 centners of grain per hectare. The work of such progressive farmers brings large returns.

Decrees bestowing the title of Hero of Socialist Labor upon collective farmers of other regions and republics of the USSR are now being published regularly. And again, among the Heroes of Socialist Labor as well as among those decorated with the Order of Lenin, we see the names of hundreds of women who can well be proud of their heroic labor and the results of their worthy effort.



FACADE. Main entrance of the State Russian Museum.

INTERIOR. Furniture in the Empire style, designed by Carl Rossi.

"COSSACKS OF ZAPOROZHYE." This famous painting by Ilya Repin is a favorite with Museum visitors. The Cossack are writing a reply to the Sultan of Turkey, who had proposed that they become his subjects.

A Leningrad Museum Of Russian Art

By Y. Listkova
Secretary of the Museum

THE Russian Museum in Leningrad is among the largest in Europe and comprises what is undoubtedly the best collection of Russian art in the world.

Built by Carlo Rossi, a famous architect, in 1819-1823, it is a remarkable architectural example of integrity of design and graceful proportion.

In 1895 it was acquired by the State for the purpose of founding a museum of Russian art, and was opened as such on March 19, 1898.

During the course of the last three decades it has expanded from a rather small and incomplete collection into a comprehensive treasury of national art. Important collections of paintings, sculpture, and examples of applied arts, the arts and crafts of the people, have been added to the basic collection; scientific research, educational and cultural activities have been extended. Based on the researches carried out by the Museum, an exposition has been arranged demonstrating the national characteristics of Russian art and its progressive traits.

The exposition rooms of the Museum where these enormous collections are housed show only part—true, the most valuable part—of them. All schools and trends in the history of Russian art from the eleventh to the twentieth centuries are represented comprehensively and consecutively. The oldest exhibits are evidence of the high achievements of art in the time of ancient Rus. Among them are such examples from the Kiev treasures of the eleventh and twelfth centuries as the famous icons of *The Angel with the Golden Hair* and of St. Nikola. Mention must be made of the icons painted by Andrei Rubliev in the fifteenth century and by Simon Ushakov in the seventeenth century; these are among the unique works of art in the Museum.

The portraiture of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries is represented by some brilliant examples of high artistic and cultural value. The work of Rokotov, Losenko, Levitsky, and Borovikovsky, each of whom had his own strongly-marked individuality, should be pointed out in this connection.

Academic art is represented in the Russian Museum by leading painters—Ugrumov, Bruni, Brullov, Aivazovsky and others. The painters of the Academy of Arts founded in the eighteenth century attained exceptional skill in large canvases with many figures. Their finest work has monumental expressiveness and consistent sense of over-all design. The most remarkable among examples of academic art is Brullov's *Last Day of Pompeii.*

The Romantics are represented in the Museum by Orlovsky, Sylvester Shchedrin, and Kiprensky.

The traits of realism which can be traced throughout Russian art reach a high level of expression in the work of artists like Venetsianov, Tropinin, Alexander Ivanov and Fedotov, and were very marked in the work of artists of the second half of the nineteenth century. The presence of ideas, significance, basic contact with the people and superb mastery of the media employed, distinguish the work of artists of this period, which is represented by Kramskoy, Shishkin, Gue, Kuinji, Vasnetsov, Repin, Surikov, Levitan, and Serov. Repin's pictures of *The Volga Tow-Path* and *The Cossacks of Zaporozhye,* Surikov's *Conquest of Siberia* and *Suvorov Crossing the Alps,* are justifiably regarded as masterpieces. Powerful imagery, perfection of technique and close contact with the people impress the spectator.

Great variety is seen in the collection of sculpture, which represents the development of this art in Russia from the eighteenth to the twentieth centuries. Outstanding among the masters are K. Rastrelli, Shubin, Martos, Koslovsky, Antokolsky and Troubetskoy.

The Russian Museum not only exhibits but makes a study of works of art; it is a research institute on a large scale, in systematic contact with scientific institutions, other museums and the foremost Soviet scholars of art.

"FIRST STEPS." Marble by F. Kamensky.

A prominent place is accorded in the Museum's research to problems of determining the authenticity of a work of art, the period, the artist and the persons or events it represents. The work of certain artists and the character of development of the art of a period is studied.

As a result of the Museum's efforts many names have been re-discovered, many undeservedly forgotten works of art have once more received the right to recognition.

Questions concerning the preservation and restoration of works of art receive a great deal of attention in the Museum. Large restoration workshops have been organized here.

During the half-century of its existence the Russian Museum has published a large quantity of special researches and popular literature. With a view to making its fine collections more widely known, new catalogues are being prepared.

Educational and cultural activities are conducted in addition to the research and preservation work. On Sundays and holidays, during school and college vacations, it is thronged. On some days the number of visitors ranges from five to ten thousand.

The new department of Soviet art which is to be opened in the Museum in the near future will give an exposition of the splendid achievements of contemporary artists of the USSR.

INSTITUTE. Professor V. Sarkisov with architectural students at the Azerbaijan Industrial Institute.

Education for All—the Gains Of Thirty Years

By Ivan Fedoseyev

THE brilliant progress of education in the thirty years of socialist construction is one of the major achievements of the Soviet Union.

In pre-Revolutionary Russia, education was the privilege of an insignificant minority of the population, a privilege of the propertied classes. According to official statistics only 7.8 per cent of the children in the country attended school in 1914.

Particularly great obstacles were placed by the tsarist Government in the way of public education in the national borderlands. More than 40 nationalities in tsarist Russia did not even have written languages.

The Great October Socialist Revolution opened the road to knowledge to the people of Russia. Education was entirely taken over by the State and the schools were assigned the task of training well-educated, highly developed and active builders of the new society.

"We want to make all workers and all peasants cultured and educated, and we shall achieve this in time," said J. V. Stalin, the leader of the Soviet State.

The Soviet Government is spending an ever greater proportion of the State Budget on education and on raising the cultural level of the people. More than 60 thousand new schools were opened during the 12 prewar years, and their total number attained 200 thousand. As compared with pre-Revolutionary times, the number of school pupils in 1941 increased five-fold.

Not only elementary and secondary, but also higher education developed rapidly in the country. Whereas there were only 91 higher educational establishments with 112 thousand students in pre-Revolutionary Russia, the present figures in the USSR are eight hundred of these institutions attended by 670 thousand students.

Technical schools (secondary vocational training establishments) likewise increased rapidly and there are now more than 3,400 of them in the USSR. The number of students of technical schools is now 35 times greater than before the Revolution and totals 1,200,000 students.

All schools and other educational institutions in the USSR belong to the State. This ensures uniformity of education and training, proper planning of schools and institutions, adequate material provision for them, uniform curricula and continuity. The state system of education enables all citizens of the USSR to take advantage of their right to education; it has eliminated haphazardness in the organization of education and its dependence on private or public charity.

Universal seven-year education for children is compulsory in the USSR and all costs of education are defrayed by the State.

The complete equality of the rights of the various nationalities of the USSR in all spheres of public life has also been realized in the sphere of education. Teaching in schools of all national republics is conducted in the native language.

Men and women are equal in every respect. In the Soviet schools the standards of general education are the same for boys and girls.

A harmonious system of education has been established in the USSR, a system embracing a developed network of general educational and vocational schools and higher educational establishments.

General educational schools in the USSR include the following:

1. Elementary schools for children from seven to ten years of age with a four-year course of tuition. The course of tuition in this school fully coincides with the first four grades in the seven-year and secondary schools.

2. Seven-year (junior secondary) schools for children from seven to thirteen years of age. The course of tuition in this school coincides with the first seven grades of the secondary school.

3. Secondary schools for children between seven and sixteen years of age in which the pupils study for ten years. The first four years cover the elementary school program and the junior secondary school program on completion of the seventh year.

During the war, schools for working youth were instituted for those desiring to complete their secondary education in their leisure hours, i.e., without leaving their jobs.

To the general educational schools belong also special schools for the blind, the deaf and dumb, and mentally deficient children.

On finishing a seven-year school, a pupil may enter a specialized secondary school (technical, medical, pedagogical, music or theatrical schools), with a course of three to four years of tuition, training specialists of medium qualification.

Those graduated from a secondary school may enter a higher educational establishment (a university, an institute, an academy) with a course of tuition of from four to six years. All students who show good progress in all subjects receive a state stipend.

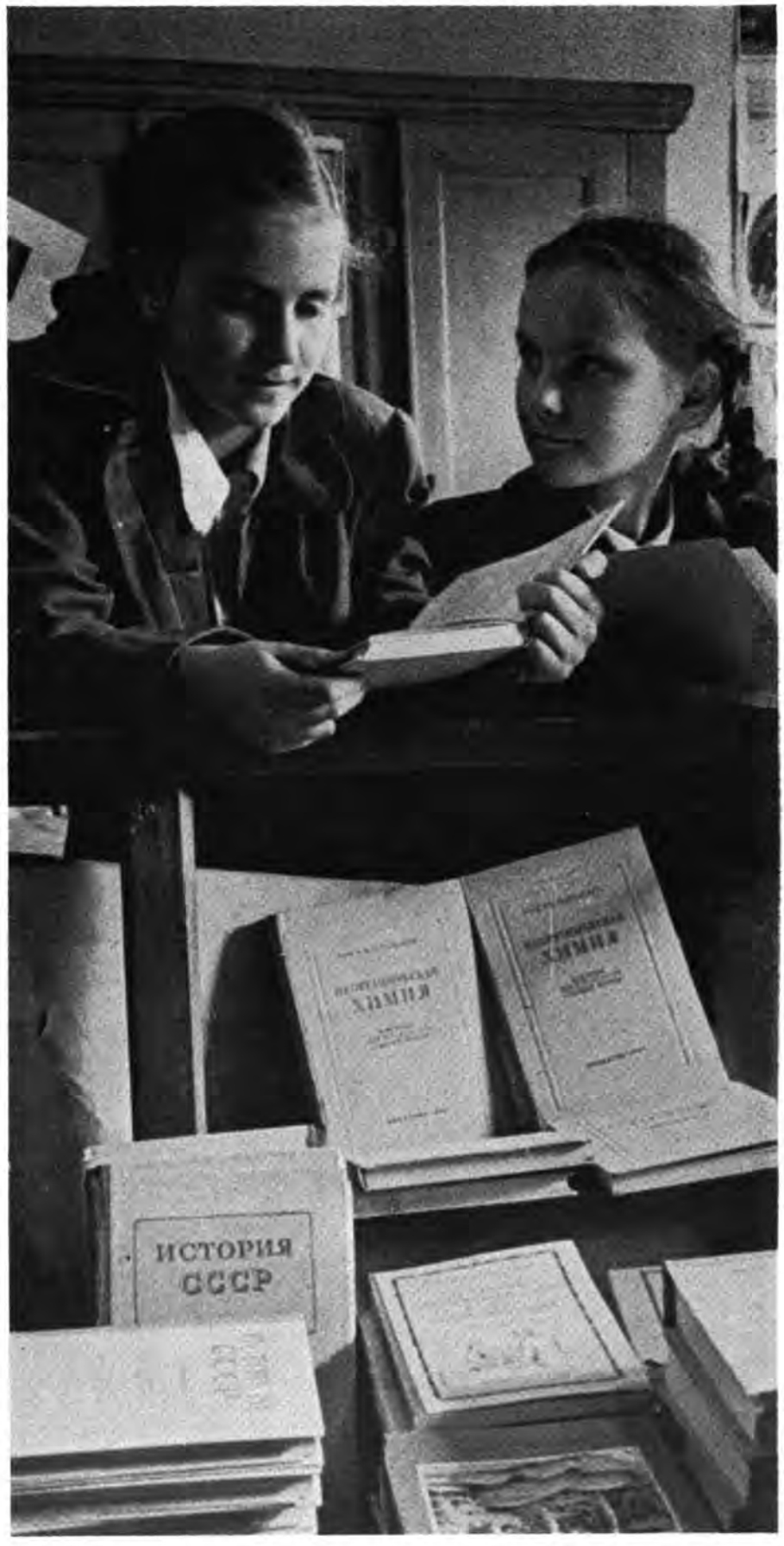
Various children's extra-mural institutions form part of the school system of the USSR. These include children's libraries and reading-rooms, clubs, palaces and houses of Pioneers, children's cinemas and theaters (theaters for young spectators), centers for young naturalists, centers for young technicians, children's tourist centers, children's parks of culture and rest, etc. In variety and number of these institutions, the USSR surpasses all other countries in the world.

The educational system of the USSR also includes various cultural institutions for adults: clubs, houses of culture, collective farm and rural clubs, village reading-rooms, parks of culture and rest, libraries, museums, lecture bureaus.

The Constitution of the USSR guarantees the universal right to education, and implements it thus:

"This right is ensured by universal and compulsory elementary education; by free education up to and including the seventh grade; by a system of state stipends for students of higher educational establishments who excel in their studies; by instruction in schools being conducted in the native language; and by the organization in the factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations and collective farms of free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the working people."

Such is the system of education in the USSR, a system providing all Soviet citizens with broad opportunities for education, for raising their qualifications, for satisfying their various intellectual interests.



TEXTBOOKS. Two high school students of Moscow select new textbooks at the beginning of a term.

An Exhibition of Children's Art

By Tatiana Lebedeva and Vladimir Sappak

THE showing of children's drawings which opened recently in Moscow was the third large exhibit of this kind held during the past few years.

Children from all parts of the Soviet Union—from Leningrad and Kiev, Byelorussia and the Caucasian villages—sent specimens of their work to the exhibition. More than 13 thousand drawings were submitted to the judges, among whom were noted artists like Sergei Gerassimov, Vera Mukhina and Vassili Baksheyev. From this large number about three hundred of the most interesting were selected for exhibition at the galleries of the Moscow Artists' Union.

The drawings form an original and inimitable record of the times. The child artist gives a truthful account of his surroundings, and much may be learned from his naive and always sincere work.

The drawings seen at the exhibition of 1946 were vivid and picturesque portrayals of the difficult days endured by the country in wartime, and of the heroic victories of the Soviet Army.

The drawings assembled at the recent exhibition reflect the postwar days of peacetime work and leisure.

Harvest at the collective farms, elections to the Soviets, holiday demonstrations, new kinds of buses, concerts at the collective farm, all kinds of construction work and new houses are shown. The vivid combinations of color are typical of the optimistic and vital awareness of life of the Soviet child.

"CAMEL." This sketch was done by ten-year-old Vladimir Kotov of Moscow.

Lenya Fomin, a Moscow boy, is a tracted by the salutes which mark th more important holidays in the USSI and in his attempt to emphasize th high pitch of enthusiasm of the momen he has drawn all the people in the Re Square holding flags on such a holida His device also suggests the mass cha acter of such celebrations.

Landscape is popular. The child keen, fresh perceptions seize on the mo typical and interesting aspects of his en vironment. Felix Akopyan, a boy o thirteen, draws the building of a co lective farm power station in an Armen ian village. Kim Istambekov sent fro Kirghizia a drawing of harvester-com bines at work.

Scenes of city life are frequen Young Moscow artists attempt the sub way stations. Senya Kleiman is ver successful with his water color of Len ingrad in winter. Though the drawin shows only a part of a columned build ing with a sculptured figure, the grar deur and austere beauty of the city ar present in this economical drawing The same may be said of the drawin by Raino Lache of his native Tallinn Mardon Shukurov, a twelve-year-old Samarkand boy, has drawn the beauti ful and ancient tomb of Tamerlane.

The attention of visitors to the ex hibition is attracted by some sketche by Volodya Kotov, a boy of ten. He the son of a teacher, and draws with bold expressive line. His ability is ev dently unusual.

Sculpture is also represented at th exhibition. A memorable example is th figure of an old woman carved in woo by Volodya Panferov, a boy of thirtee who is a student of the children's ar studio of the Stalin automobile plan Moscow. The figure of a Soviet partr san, modelled in clay by Kolya Tom sky, a boy of fourteen, has repose an strength.

Practically all of the drawings evi dence artistic gifts and healthy psy chology. The Soviet people attribut great significance to exhibitions of thi type, which stimulate the interest o parents and teachers in creative work as an important factor in the genera development of children.

SPRING LANDSCAPE. Twelve-year-old Kadyr Salahutdinov of the Uzbek Republic did this painting of a tractor on the fields.

ARMENIAN DANCE. Nonna Stepanyan, who is 15, painted this scene of an Armenian national dance.

A Sculptor and His Neighbors

By E. Braginski

THE children living at 17 Gorky Street, Moscow, made the acquaintance of sculptor Sergei Timofeyevich Konenkov in the following manner:

The lower half of the tall windows of the sculptor's studio are painted white. The children had heard that Sergei Timofeyevich is a famous sculptor and many of them had seen his works exhibited at the Tretyakov Art Gallery. They all wanted to see how he carved his gypsum and marble figures. They were hesitant about asking him to allow them to come to his studio, so they did what children are apt to do. They crawled up the cornice and pressed their faces against the upper part of the window. At that moment the sculptor happened to turn around. Seeing the flat noses of the youngsters pressed against the glass he laughed and went outdoors.

"Do you want to see my work?" Sergei Timofeyevich asked with a smile. "Come right in!"

Konenkov swung the door wide and the children timidly entered the spacious room filled with busts and statues. They started talking. Konenkov explained to the children how he worked on some of the statues and told them about his childhood days near Smolensk. As a boy he used to tend horses at night, but instead of looking after them he spent most of his time making drawings by the pale light of the moon. The horses would wander astray and after dawn he would have a terrible time rounding them up again.

"Do you like to draw?" he asked the children.

"Yes, of course!" the children replied in chorus. It turned out that several of them attend an art circle at the district schoolchildren's club.

"That makes us sort of colleagues, doesn't it?" Sergei said jokingly. "Come over on Sunday at 12 o'clock and bring your drawings with you."

The acquaintance developed into a close friendship. Every Sunday Konenkov's studio is now visited by as many as 30 boys and girls ranging in age from seven to thirteen. For two hours they learn to draw and sculpture under the guidance of the distinguished master.

On the Sunday when I came to the studio, we found 24 young artists seated on long benches before low tables. Pencils glided over sheets of drawing paper and in the deft hands of the youngsters pieces of clay were transformed into figures of people, animals and birds. Four of the children were drawing the head of the great Russian painter Surikov which Konenkov had carved out of marble. Among them was a red-haired boy, Yuri Mochenov, the son of a railroad engineer. I asked him: "What are you going to be when you grow up?"

"A traveller," Yuri replied without hesitation. "I will travel to various countries and draw everything I see. I like to draw."

Lyusya Ivanova, a pupil of the third class of school No. 131, whose blond pigtails blended with her bright yellow dress, told me that she has not yet made up her mind as to what she will be but very likely she will be a painter. Both Sergei Timofeyevich and the instructor of the art circle at the schoolchildren's club highly praised her drawings.

Thirteen-year-old Zhenya Suslov whom Konenkov refers to as a "very capable boy," admitted that visiting the studio is more fun than going to a football game. That was his peculiar way of expressing his fondness for the sculptor. Even if the two strongest So-

AT WORK. The children of 17 Gorky street and their famous friend, Sergei Konenkov.

viet football teams—the Moscow Dynamo and Red Army club teams—begin to play right now, he would not go to the game anyway! He wants to be an architect and must learn to draw well!

Molding a piece of clay with his fingers, ten-year-old Vitya Grigoryantz was trying to copy Konenkov's statue, *The Liberated Man*. The statue represents the figure of a mighty titan breaking chains with his hands. The youthful sculptor succeeded in conveying the main idea: that Giant's passionate craving for freedom.

The youngest of the artists was five-year-old Galochka who could not tell me her surname because she had forgotten it. Galochka was drawing quaint flowers on a scrap of paper.

Sergei Timofeyevich gathered the drawings and the clay figures and then explained to the children in detail the merits and drawbacks of each of them. The children listened to Konenkov with awed attention. Next time they work in the studio, the club or at home, they will remember all his remarks.

Sergei Konenkov arranged with the children to go with him to the Tretyakov Art Gallery.

At the Tretyakov, with its rich collection of painting and sculpture by the world's great masters, the young art enthusiasts will gain, under Konenkov's expert guidance, a further idea of fine artistic standards. The expedition is to take place soon, and the children are planning for it with the excitement accorded by childhood to such events.

The children in turn asked Sergei Timofeyevich to pay them a visit at the Moscow school children's club.

"But is it all right that I am so old? Maybe my beard is too long?"

"That is all right," said Vova Chernov convincingly. "We will tell the doorkeeper and he will let you in. All the kids will be glad to see you when you come."

"Well, if you think they'll let me in, then I shall come."

The bonds of friendship are growing stronger between the distinguished master of plastic arts and the children who love to model and to draw but who realize that love alone is not sufficient to attain high mastership and that therefore they must study with patience and perseverance.

An Actress of the East

From an article by Oleg Leonidov

If someone had told me thirty years ago: "When you are in Tashkent be sure to go and see *Othello* and *Hamlet* and Ostrovski's *The Dowerless Girl*, which are being played there in the Uzbek language," I should have smiled in mild surprise and regarded the suggestion as either a joke or the raving of a madman.

How could one speak of plays in the Uzbek language at that time when there was not a single theater in all Uzbekistan? And even if there were, how could Shakespeare's tragedies with the roles of Desdemona and Ophelia be staged when Uzbek women were not only prohibited from appearing on the stage but were not even allowed to visit a theater as spectators?

During the years of Soviet power, national theaters have been established in Uzbekistan, as well as in all the other republics of the USSR. There are now more than 40 such theaters in Uzbekistan.

Most popular among the dramatic actresses of Uzbekistan, and rightfully so, is Sara Ishanturaeva. From her lips Shakespeare's verse sounded like music. The actress captivated the public with her sincerity, intensity of feeling and grace.

Sara Ishanturaeva had a hard life before she became an actress. She was orphaned as a child and was cared for by a neighboring peasant family. Her education began in a Mosque-school and later in a Tashkent orphanage. In orphanage theatricals she played her first role—the stirring role of an orphan in a play of the same title written by Ali, a school teacher.

When she reached the age of 14 the Government sent her to the Vakhtangov theatrical school in Moscow.

As a budding actress Sara Ishanturaeva made her debut with a traveling company in Leningrad. Her first acquaintance with Shakespeare, which occurred in Leningrad's Russian State Academic Theater, had a marked influence on her future as an actress.

"The play," she says, "was *Othello* and the leading role was enacted by Yuri Yuriev, the famous Russian tragedian. And there I was, an Uzbek girl who not so long before wore a veil over my face and knew nothing beyond the clay walls of my hut, watching with bated breath. I realized there and then that we, Uzbek artists, must borrow from the Russian theater those basic qualities which give it leadership in world stage art—those of passion and unaffectedness. It is these qualities that our young art lacked."

SARA ISHANTURAEVA.

To this day Ishanturaeva retains her vivid impression of the play she saw that night in Leningrad. Always, in her roles on the Uzbek stage, she tries to apply the principles of naturalness and passion found in Russian dramatic art.

Sara Ishanturaeva is now a People's Actress of the Uzbek Republic and a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Having gained fame as an outstanding actress, Sara Ishanturaeva has not drifted away from the common people, but is even more attentive than before to their wants, their interests and their joys. Her constituents turn to her with all kinds of personal and public matters, and she takes a lively hand in Uzbekistan's cultural advancement. In all her activities life and art are merged into one, and that, perhaps, is why this talented daughter of the Uzbek people is so realistic in the roles of both classical and modern plays.

Boxing in the USSR

By Y. Moroz

PUGILISM in Russia has a history that dates back many centuries. Lermontov in his *Song of Young Kalashnikov and Tsar Ivan the Terrible,* describes a match attended by the Tsar in the sixteenth century. And Russian folklore tells of legendary heroes who matched their skill in still earlier times.

There were fights known as "Wall to wall." These were staged in towns, and in rural districts in particular. The young men of two villages would line up on the opposite banks of a frozen river, come toward each other and meet midway. The brutal nature of this sport prompted the Soviet authorities to ban it, and to give boxing (introduced in Russia some 50 years ago), and heavy athletics, wide popularity.

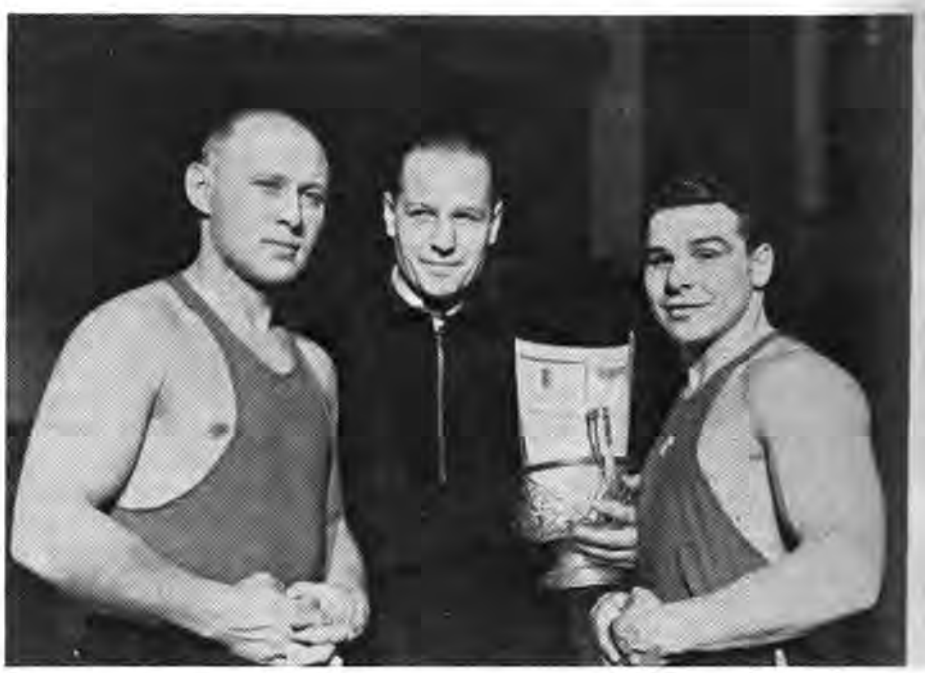
Today boxing is one of the most popular sports in the country. A great number of matches are staged every year in eliminations for the championship of the USSR, city championships, championship in trade unions, Ministries, enterprises, collective farms, and so on, and there is an ever growing number of participants. As many as 20 boxers are entered in each weight class of the USSR championships.

Boxing, like all other sports in the Soviet Union, is strictly amateur. There are no professional boxers in the USSR, nor have there ever been any. Training is conducted by various public trade union sports societies such as the "Stroitel" (building workers), "Krylya Sovetov" (aircraft industry workers), "Nauka" (students' union).

All those desiring to learn to box are given a special medical examination by the club's physician and his O.K. is the beginning and the end of the formal side of membership in the club. Boxing circles are organized wherever workers, trade union members, students, or farmers express the wish to engage in this sport.

All club fees, group expenses and such costs as payment for instructors and physicians are borne by the trade unions, and no personal expense is involved.

Boxers train for two or two and one-half hours three times a week, in their spare time. Their work-out includes running, calisthenics, punch technique, drills with pins, Indian clubs, medicine ball, etc., three or four rounds of shadow boxing, and a training match of two or three rounds with ten or twelve-ounce gloves.



CHAMPIONS. N. Korolyov, heavyweight boxing champion of the USSR (left) with S. Scherbakov, Soviet welterweight champion (right) and V. Mikhailov, trainer of the Moscow boxing team.

The boxers are divided into categories according to their ability. After five to eight months of training the beginner has his first match with a member of some other club, but of the same weight class.

The bout consists of two rounds, two minutes each with a one-minute interval between rounds. Whether the beginner wins or loses, he is registered in the third category. All his future bouts will consist of three three-minute rounds with a one-minute interval between rounds. The boxer's promotion to second category comes after three victories (e.g. in city championships, club championships, etc.) in his class. After five victories in the second category the boxer is promoted to the first category. If a first category boxer wins one of the first three places at the USSR championships, or a city championship, he is placed in the Master of Sports category. If a boxer of a lower category defeats a boxer of a higher category the former is placed in the same class as the latter.

The All-Union Committee on Physical Culture and Sports grants the title of Honored Master of Sports to accomplished boxers who widely impart their experience to younger sportsmen, and to those who have written a theoretical work on boxing or have made some other contribution toward its promotion.

Boxing rules in the Soviet Union are the same as those for amateur boxers in other countries of Europe and America. There are eight weight categories and eight-ounce gloves are used. If the bout does not finish by a knockout the winner is judged by points calculated according to the number of clear punches, cover technique and attack, etc. There is one referee in the ring and three ringside judges.

Some of the leading Soviet boxers have from 150 to 180 matches to their credit. Since the end of the war many of them, such as Korolev, Stepanov, Ogurenkov, Shcherbakov, Greiner, Avdeyev, have won matches with boxers from other countries.

Notes on Soviet Life

A SERIES of symphony concerts for collective farmers has been organized by the Ukrainian State Philharmonic. The first of these concerts took place recently in the club of Chervonaya Ukraina collective farm and was attended by more than seven hundred men and women of nearby collective farms.

★

More than two hundred movie installations were acquired by the collective farms of the Ukraine last year. Over six hundred collective farms in the Republic now have their permanent movie installations which show the latest films.

★

A review of rural theatrical ensembles of the Moscow Region took place recently. More than two thousand ensembles uniting about 30,000 collective farmers, workers and clerks of machine and tractor stations and state farms participated in the review.

★

Grain drying sheds, designed by Soviet engineers, are going up in many of the rainy districts of the USSR. Some four hundred sheds of a type designed by the Soviet engineer, Gogolev, which handle five tons of grain daily, were in operation during the harvesting period in Sverdlovsk Region. Two thousand such sheds are now being erected in this region. Many collective farms have drying sheds which handle 10 to 12 tons of grain a day.

★

As a result of the steps taken by educational authorities in the western regions of the Ukraine, adult illiteracy has been eliminated in 26 districts of Lvov Region, 13 districts of Tarnopol Region and four districts of Chernovtsy Region. Four hundred and sixty-six thousand adults have been taught to read and write during the past three years. A further 242 thousand illiterate and semi-literate adults are at present attending special courses in the western regions, which were formerly separated from the Soviet Ukraine. Illiteracy is expected to vanish completely from the above-mentioned regions, as well as from Izmail and the Carpathian regions in 1949.

L. E. Grafov, Deputy Minister of the Coal Industry of the Western Areas, stated that much will be done this year for the further mechanization of coal mining in the collieries of his Ministry. The mines will receive hundreds of new improved machines designed by Soviet engineers. These will include coal cutting machines, scrapper transporters, rock and coal loading machines.

Underground transport will be supplied with hundreds of electric locomotives. Heavy duty rails are to be laid on the main underground lines, and they are being equipped with automatic signalling and block systems. Haulage of coal will be almost 100 per cent mechanized.

★

Enterprises of the Ministry of the Iron and Steel Industry did much home building last year. During 1947 6,662 houses were made available. Nearly 1,500 houses were built by the enterprises and sold on the installment plan to their workers. The rest of them were built by the workers themselves with the aid of loans granted by the enterprises and the State. Entire settlements of workers' cottages have arisen around the iron and steel works. Nearly six hundred families moved into their own houses near the Magnitogorsk Iron and Steel Works, 722 families in the Middle Urals and four hundred families in the Krivoi Rog Ore Basin. The Yelenovsk Administration in the Donbas has exceeded the plan for individual housing construction by almost 100 per cent and assisted 260 miners to build houses for themselves.

★

Among the more than 2,500 lecturers who have spoken at the collective farms of the Kursk Region are 1,524 teachers, 502 doctors, 445 agronomists and 67 engineers. With the co-operation of the rural intelligentsia, the local authorities arranged during the past year more than 21 thousand lectures and talks for collective farmers on scientific, social and political subjects.

More than half a million farm buildings, 590 thousand dwellings and 19,700 clubs and other cultural institutions were destroyed in the Ukrainian countryside during the years of German occupation. With the aid of the Soviet State, restoration of Ukrainian villages is proceeding at a rapid pace. Five hundred thirty-two thousand homes for collective farmers, 152 thousand buildings and 19,600 clubs and other cultural institutions have been built since the liberation of the Ukraine. All the people in Zaporozhye, Nikolayev, Kherson, Erogobych and Transcarpathian Regions, made homeless by the Nazi invaders and compelled to live in dugouts, have now moved into new homes. The peasant families still living in dugouts in the Voroshilovgrad, Stalino and Lvov Regions will be provided with new dwellings in the very near future.

★

Production of pre-fabricated standard houses is increasing in the Soviet Union. Since the end of the war, parts plants have been formed in the various districts of the country which produce ready-made wooden houses. The parts are shipped to the building sites. A new big plant for the production of prefabricated houses is now being built near Leningrad. It will manufacture houses for one and two families. Houses for two families will be equipped with central heating. This plant will produce annually a total dwelling area of 1,614,600 square feet.

★

The 100th Literary Friday was held at the Culture Palace of the Gorbunov Works, Moscow, a few days ago. These weekly evening gatherings at which the workers have an opportunity of hearing noted artists, are known as Literary Fridays. The lecturer usually gives a survey of the period in which the action of a book, play or poem is laid, and combines it with an account of the author's life and work. The popularity of such evenings may be judged by the fact that they have been visited up to date by about 20,000 persons. Following the example of the "Literary Fridays," "Musical Tuesdays" are being arranged in this Culture Paiace.

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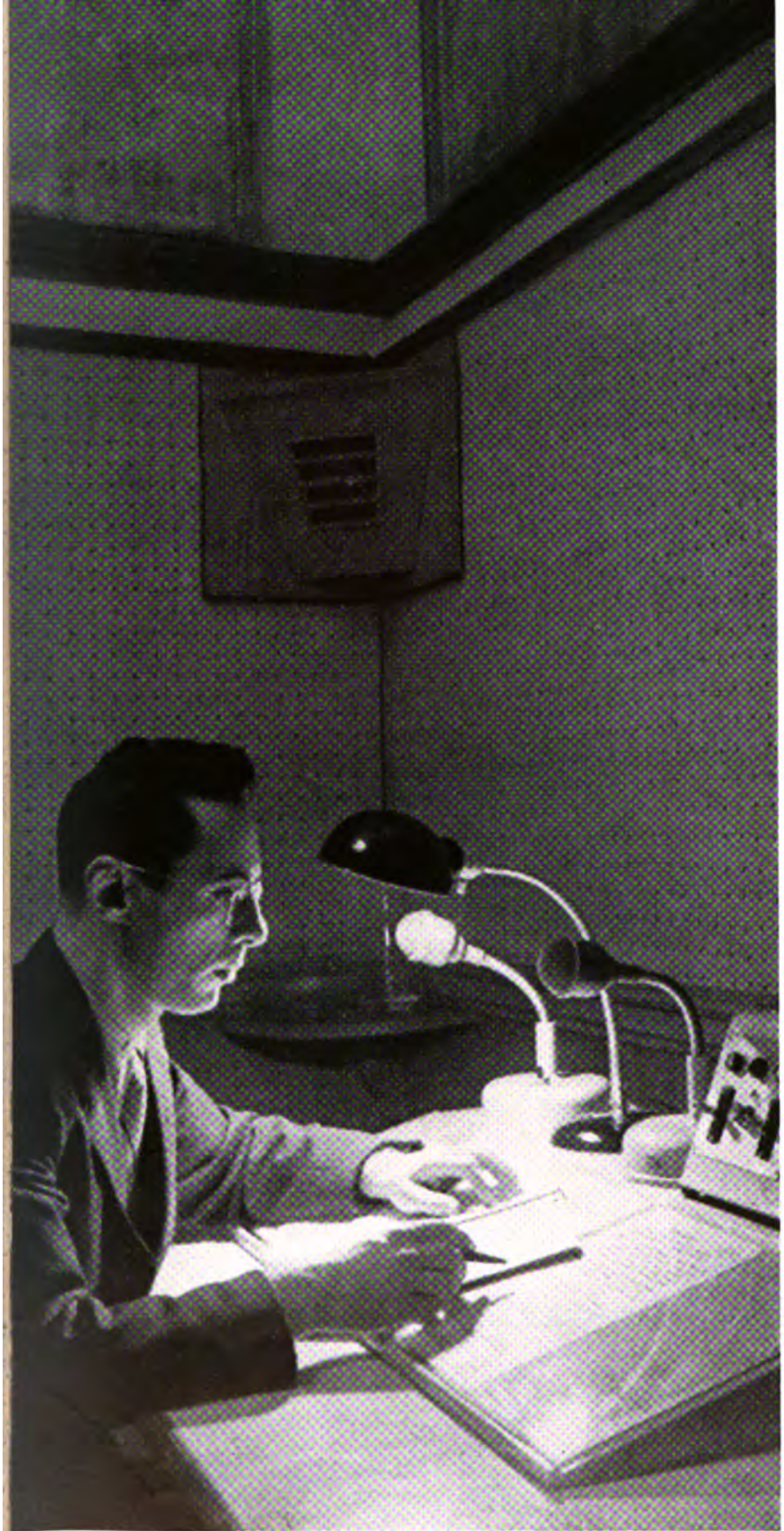

RADIO ANNOUNCER. Yuri Levitan, a leading announcer of Radio Moscow. FRONT COVER. Dance with scarf, by Tungus Markarimova of the Uzbek Republican Dance Ensemble. BACK COVER. A Soviet Far Eastern fisherman, Sergei Ilyichev.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

The Soviet-Finnish Treaty

The following editorial was published in "Pravda" under the title "An Important Stage in the Development of Soviet-Finnish Relations."

THE Treaty of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance between the Soviet Union and Finland which has been published in *Pravda* is an important stage in the development of Soviet-Finnish relations. This treaty answers to the mutual wishes of both peoples to prevent a recurrence of German aggression, to strengthen the friendly, good-neighborly relations between the USSR and Finland, which tally with the vital interests of both countries. It accords with the constant striving of the peoples of the USSR and Finland for co-operation in the interests of maintaining international peace and security in accordance with the aims and principles of the UN. Naturally, the signing of this treaty will be hailed with satisfaction not only by the nations of the USSR and Finland but by all the friends of peace and progress.

The Soviet-Finnish treaty is convincing proof of the consistency of the Soviet Union in carrying out its foreign policy based on respect for the state sovereignty of other countries. The treaty again shows the desire of the Soviet Union to establish friendly relations with its neighbors—relations built on the basis of the sovereign equality of the contracting parties.

This is the policy to which the Soviet Government has steadily adhered since the first days of the existence of our socialist State.

It is well known that one of the first steps of the Soviet Government was to grant Finland state independence.* In accordance with the principle of the right of nations to self-determination, the Soviet Government recognized the absolute freedom of the Finnish people to arrange their own life. As long ago as the first days of the Great October Socialist Revolution, J. V. Stalin declared himself in favor of the voluntary and honest union of the people of Finland with the Russian people and against any form of trusteeship or surveillance over the Finnish people. These principles determining Soviet policy toward Finland have remained unchanged.

As V. M. Molotov pointed out in his speech at the signing of the Soviet-Finnish treaty, the conclusion of this treaty has become timely. Both countries, which suffered cruelly from German aggression, are interested in it. "We shall both be responsible before our peoples if we permit repetition of such aggression," wrote J. V. Stalin to Paasikivi, the President of Finland, expressing the wish to "create conditions for a radical improvement in the relations between our countries with the purpose of strengthening peace and security," and proposing a Soviet-Finnish treaty of friendship, co-operation and mutual assistance.

Soviet-Finnish negotiations for the conclusion of the treaty were conducted in a friendly atmosphere. The treaty was based on a project submitted by the Government of Finland. Necessary amendments proposed by both sides were also made.

According to the signed treaty, if Finland or the Soviet Union via the territory of Finland should become the object of military aggression on the part of Germany or another country allied with Germany, Finland, faithful to her duty as an independent State, will fight to repel the aggression. For this, Finland will use all the forces at her disposal to defend the inviolability of her territory on land, on sea and in the air, acting within the boundaries of her frontiers in accordance with her obligations under the present treaty and in case of necessity, with the assistance of the Soviet Union or side by side with the latter.

In case of the above mentioned occurrences, the Soviet Union will render Finland the necessary assistance, both sides coming to an agreement with each other about this.

Finland and the USSR will consult with each other in the event of their establishing the danger of a military attack as provided for in Article I of the treaty.

This exact definition of mutual obligations decisively refutes the provocative fabrications of certain circles of the reactionary press, which allege that the Soviet Union wishes to acquire military bases on the territory of Finland; that the treaty will allegedly make it possible to use Finnish troops beyond the borders of Finland, etc.

In concluding this treaty, the USSR and Finland have confirmed their resolution to develop and strengthen economic and cultural relations.

They have confirmed their intentions to participate most sincerely in all the measures intended to maintain international peace and security. The treaty once more stresses the obligation of the contracting parties to adhere to the principles of mutual respect for each other's state sovereignty and independence and of non-intervention in the domestic affairs of another country.

Thus the Soviet-Finnish treaty, as was pointed out by V. M. Molotov, places Soviet-Finnish relations on a new foundation.

The entire course of the negotiations devoted to the preparation of this treaty showed that both sides regarded it as an important act calculated to deepen and strengthen the good-neighborly relations established between the USSR and Finland after the war.

In his speech at the signing of the treaty, the Finnish Prime Minister Mauno Pekkala, on behalf of the Finnish delegation, expressed gratitude to the Soviet delegation and personally to V. M. Molotov, the USSR Foreign Minister, for the friendly attitude toward Finland and her Government expressed during the negotiations, thanks to which it was possible to achieve results answering to the specific conditions of Finland and satisfactory to both sides. "The Finnish delegation," he said, "knows and well remembers Generalissimo Stalin's friendly words spoken for the first time in 1917 with regard to Finland, and which have remained forever in the memory of the Finnish people. Therefore, we note with special satisfaction the happy fact that Generalissimo Stalin wished by his presence to emphasize the importance of the treaty signed here."

Soviet public opinion unanimously hails the signing of the treaty that represents a foundation on which the alliance and friendship between the peoples of the Soviet Union and Finland will grow broader and stronger.

* Finland before 1917 was part of the tsarist Russian Empire.

Text of the Soviet-Finnish Treaty

Treaty of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance Between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Finnish Republic

THE Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the President of the Finnish Republic, with the object of further promoting friendly relations between the USSR and Finland, convinced that consolidation of good-neighborly relations and co-operation between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Finnish Republic meets the vital interests of both countries, considering Finland's aspiration to stand aside from the contradictions of interests of the Great Powers, and expressing their unswerving aspiration to co-operate in the interests of the preservation of international peace and security in conformity with the aims and principles of the United Nations organization, have decided to conclude for these ends the present Treaty, and to appoint as their plenipotentiary representatives: for the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, Vice-chairman of the Council of Ministers and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the USSR; for the President of the Finnish Republic—Mauno Pekkala, Prime Minister of the Finnish Republic, who upon exchanging their credentials, found in due form and full order, have agreed upon the following:

ARTICLE I

IN the event of Finland or the Soviet Union, across the territory of Finland, becoming the object of military aggression on the part of Germany or any State allied to the latter, Finland, loyal to her duty as an independent State, will fight to repulse the aggression. In doing so, Finland will direct all the forces at her disposal to the defense of the inviolability of her territory on land, on sea and in the air, acting within her boundaries in accordance with her obligations under the present Treaty, with the assistance, in case of need, of the Soviet Union or jointly with the latter.

In the cases indicated above, the Soviet Union will render Finland the necessary assistance, in regard to the granting of which the parties will agree between themselves.

ARTICLE II

THE high contracting parties will consult each other in the event of a threat of military attack envisaged in Article I being ascertained.

ARTICLE III

THE high contracting parties affirm their intention to participate most sincerely in all actions aimed at preserving international peace and security in conformity with the aims and principles of the United Nations organization.

ARTICLE IV

THE high contracting parties reaffirm the undertaking, contained in Article III of the Peace Treaty signed in Paris on February 10, 1947, not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in coalitions aimed against the other high contracting party.

ARTICLE V

THE high contracting parties affirm their determination to act in the spirit of co-operation and friendship with the object of further promoting and consolidating the economic and cultural ties between the Soviet Union and Finland.

ARTICLE VI

THE high contracting parties undertake to observe the principles of mutual respect for their State sovereignty and independence as well as non-interference in the domestic affairs of the other State.

ARTICLE VII

IMPLEMENTATIONS of the present Treaty will conform to the principles of the United Nations organization.

ARTICLE VIII

THE present Treaty is subject to ratification, and will be valid for ten years as from the day of its coming into force. The Treaty will come into force as from the day of the exchange of ratification instruments, which will be effected in Helsinki within the shortest possible time.

Unless either of the high contracting parties denounces the Treaty one year before the expiration of the above-mentioned ten-year term, it will remain in force for each of the next five-year terms until either of the high contracting parties gives notice in writing of its intention to terminate the operation of the Treaty.

In witness whereof the plenipotentiary representatives have signed the present Treaty and affixed their seals thereto.

Made in Moscow on April 6, 1948, in two copies each in the Russian and Finnish languages, both texts being equally valid.

(Signed) On the authorization of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

VYACHESLAV MOLOTOV

On the authorization of the President of the Finnish Republic

MAUNO PEKKALA

Stalin's Speech on the Treaty

Following is the text of Joseph Stalin's speech given at a dinner in honor of the Finnish Government delegation, April 7, 1948:

I SHOULD like to say a few words concerning the significance of the treaty of friendship and mutual assistance between the Soviet Union and Finland, signed yesterday.

This treaty marks a turn in the relations between our countries. As we know, for 150 years, there existed a mutual distrust in the relations between Russia and Finland. The Finns distrusted the Russians and the Russians distrusted the Finns.

From the Soviet side, an attempt was made in the past to dissipate the distrust between the Russians and Finns. That was when Lenin proclaimed Finland's independence in 1917. It was an eminent act from the viewpoint of history. But unfortunately it did not dissipate distrust—distrust remained distrust. As a result, there were two wars between us.

My wish is that after the long period of mutual distrust, in the course of which we twice were at war with each other, we should pass on to a new period in our relations—a period of mutual trust.

What is needed is that the treaty we have signed should dissipate that distrust and create a new basis for relations between our peoples, and that it should mark a major turn in relations between the two countries, toward trust and friendship.

We want this to be well understood not only by those present in this hall, but also by those outside this hall, both in Finland and in the Soviet Union.

We must not think that distrust between nations can be wiped out all at once. It is not something which can be accomplished in a hurry. For a long time there remain survivals of distrust, vestiges which will require a great deal of work and effort to remove, so as to create traditions of mutual friendship between the USSR and Finland and make them enduring.

Treaties may be equal or unequal. The Soviet-Finnish treaty is an equal treaty, for it is based on the full equality of the parties to it. There are many who do not believe in the possibility of relations of equality between a large and a small nation. But we Soviet people hold that such relations are possible and necessary. The Soviet people hold that every nation, whether large or small, has its qualitative distinctions, its specific features, which belong only to it and which no other nations possess. These distinguishing features are the contribution which each nation makes to the common treasure house of world culture, augmenting and enriching it. In this sense, all nations, small and large, are on an equal footing and each nation is equivalent to any other nation.

That is why the Soviet people hold that Finland, although a small nation, figures in this treaty as an equal party in relation to the Soviet Union.

You will not find many political leaders of great powers who regard small nations as the equals of large nations. Most of them look down upon small nations. They are willing, on occasion, to offer small nations unilateral guarantees. But, generally speaking, these leaders do not care to conclude equal treaties with small nations, as they do not regard small nations as their partners.

I propose a toast to the Soviet-Finnish treaty, to the turn toward the better in relations between our countries, which this treaty signifies.

Molotov's Statement

After the signing of the treaty on April 6, V. M. Molotov made the following speech:

THE Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation and Mutual Assistance signed today between the Soviet Union and Finland constitutes an important stage in the development of Soviet-Finnish relations. This treaty is aimed against a repetition of German aggression, and serves the interests of the development of friendly relations between our countries and the consolidation of peace in Europe.

It must be admitted that the time is ripe for the conclusion of such a treaty. Accordingly, the well-known letter addressed by the head of the Soviet Government, Generalissimo Stalin, to the President of Finland, Mr. Paasikivi, expressed a desire to "create conditions for a radical improvement of relations between our countries with the purpose of strengthening peace and security."

In view of this, negotiations between the Soviet Union and Finland for the conclusion of a treaty were conducted in the course of the past few days, and the draft presented by the Government of Finland was used as a basis for this treaty. In the course of the negotiations between the Soviet Union and Finland, necessary amendments and additions were also made in accordance with the proposals of both parties.

The Soviet Government expresses its confidence that the present treaty will contribute to broad and amicable co-operation between the USSR and Finland and that the signing of this treaty will be received with gratification not only by the peoples of our States but by all friends of peace and progress.

May the alliance and friendship between the peoples of the USSR and Finland live and gain strength!

Permit me, Mr. Prime Minister, to congratulate you personally and the entire Finnish Government delegation on the signing of the treaty, which lays a new foundation for relations between the Soviet Union and Finland.

A Second Price Reduction in the USSR

From *Pravda* (abridged)

The State retail prices of a number of goods were reduced by 10 to 20 per cent in the USSR on April 10. The list of goods includes passenger automobiles of the Moskvich make, motorcycles, bicycles, radio sets, perfumery, cigarets, cigars, vodka, wines, beer, caviar, a number of plastic articles, hunting rifles, sewing machines, cameras, musical instruments, and other goods.

This is the second price reduction since the currency reform and end of rationing four months ago. It considerably raises real wages.

A NEW reduction in state retail prices decreed by the Soviet Government with a view to raising still further the living standard of the people became effective April 10. This price reduction will again raise real wages and salaries, real incomes of collective farmers and the purchasing power of the ruble.

Less than four months have passed since the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union adopted the historic decision on currency reform and the abolition of rationing.* A new ruble with full value was put into circulation December 16, 1947. That date also witnessed the abolition of rationing and the revival of normal trade. The high prices in the special stores were abolished and replaced by reduced uniform state retail prices. The population received tremendous material advantages: from the reduction in state retail prices alone, effected December 16, 1947, the working people of the Soviet Union will receive a clear saving of more than 57,000,000,000 rubles during the year.

The immediate effect of the currency reform, combined with the reduction in the low prices on bread and cereals charged under the rationing system and the abolition of high prices in the special stores, was a rise in the real wages and salaries and in the value of the cash income of the rural population. The Soviet people received with deep gratitude the expression by Stalin of the solicitude of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet State for the welfare of the working people of the USSR.

As should have been expected, the currency reform had a beneficial effect on the entire economic life of the country. It increased the pace of the restoration and development of the national economy. Life has become easier, and the diet of the people is better.

The currency reform raised the significance of money in the national economy and created greater incentives for higher labor productivity. The Soviet State has still further strengthened its might.

The reduction in prices on manufactured goods and foodstuffs effected on December 16, last, was merely the first of a series of price reductions. In his historic address to the electors on February 9, 1946, J. V. Stalin indicated that "special attention will be devoted to extending the production of consumer goods, to raising the living standard of the working people by steadily lowering the prices of all goods . . ." The steady reduction in prices is the firm policy pursued by the Communist Party and the Soviet Government. This policy of steadily raising the living standard of the working people is an expression of the aspiration of the Party of Lenin and Stalin to create the conditions for a prosperous and cultured life for all the people, for every working man and woman.

In the decision on currency reform and on the abolition of rationing, the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union pointed out that "the normalization of the currency circulation, the growth in the production of consumer goods, and the increasing volume of retail trade will make it possible to reduce the prices also in the future, i. e., will lead to a further rise in real wages and in the incomes of the collective farmers." The Council of Ministers has now deemed it necessary to effect a second series of price reductions on a number of commodities.

The new reduction in prices became possible thanks to the general upsurge in the national economy of the USSR and the growth in the production of consumer goods. The key branches of socialist industry have fulfilled the plan for the first quarter of the current year ahead of schedule.

As compared with last year, there was a considerable increase in the production of pig iron, steel and rolled metal, of electric power, chemical products, coal and oil, automobiles and tractors, machine tools, locomotives and railway cars and agricultural machines. New installations of shops, factories, mills and mines are being put into commission every day. Along with the development of heavy industry, light industry and the food industry are confidently forging ahead. The production of consumer goods and cultural utilities has at the same time been launched in special shops of the enterprises of heavy industry. New successes have been scored also by local industry and producers' co-operatives. All this shows that the Soviet country is successfully carrying out the provisions of the Five-Year Plan, that the labor of millions of Soviet people, their self-sacrificing effort to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in four years, is yielding rich fruit.

The further progress of the national economy in the Soviet Union, the growth of the production of consumer goods, the Bolshevik struggle for higher labor productivity and the reduction in the cost of production, will make it possible to raise the living standard of the Soviet people still higher. This is the goal of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government. All the Soviet people are interested in this. And in the land of socialism, the interests of the people have always been and will always be regarded above everything!

* See text in Information Bulletin, #21, December 24, 1947, Page 2.

ENTRANCE. As the visitor enters the exhibition, its various subdivisions are compactly presented to his view.

"Thirty Years of the USSR"

THE Exhibition "Thirty Years of the USSR", presented by the Embassy of the USSR at the Museum of Science and Industry of the City of New York, will continue through April, it has been announced.

The visitor to the exhibition, which consists mainly of photographic stories-in-pictures of the history and economic progress of the Soviet Union since the October Revolution, is struck by the extraordinary growth of industry, agriculture, and cultural life in all parts of the USSR, despite the warfare and invasions to which the Soviet State has been subjected.

Here, for instance, is a chart showing the growth of the national income of the USSR, superimposed on a photographic montage of industrial, agricultural, and other scenes. It shows the steady and ever-accelerating climb of Soviet prosperity—from 21 thousand million rubles in 1913 to 128.3 thousand million rubles (in stable prices of 1926-1927) in 1940. The chart is topped by the goal for 1950, the final year of the current Five-Year Plan, when the national income is to reach 177 thousand million rubles.

As with all the displays in the exhibition, this one pays honor to the people whose labor alone makes this prosperity possible. A panel of pictures of workers in various fields and of various Soviet nationalities flanks the chart displays. A smaller chart depicts the complete disappearance of unemployment, which is unknown in the USSR.

A panel of charts and photographs shows graphically the structure of the supreme legislative body of the country, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, and indicates its broad representative character by a break-down of its composition as to the sex, occupation, party affiliation, etc., of the deputies. Also on this panel are pictures of the members and alternates of the Political Bureau of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, and a series of pictures of typical deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—workers, peasants, intellectuals, women of the East in their colorful national dress.

Another panel in the same section of the exhibition, using as its theme the first article of the Constitution of the USSR, "The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is a socialist state of workers and peasants", gives the social composition of the population of the USSR and the changes since 1928. It, too, is supplemented by photographs of typical persons, and by a poster illustrating the equality of the peoples of the multinational Soviet State.

Particularly moving to the spectator who knows how oppressed, economically and culturally, were the peoples of the tsarist semi-colonial borderlands, are the displays which show the present cultural levels of the non-Russian peoples of the USSR.

These displays are colorfully presented against panels of national design, and are supplemented with photographs showing scientists, artists, actors and other intellectuals of various Soviet nationalities. Also in this section of the exhibition is a chart on book publication, showing that the works of Pushkin, for instance, have been published in 76 languages of the Soviet peoples.

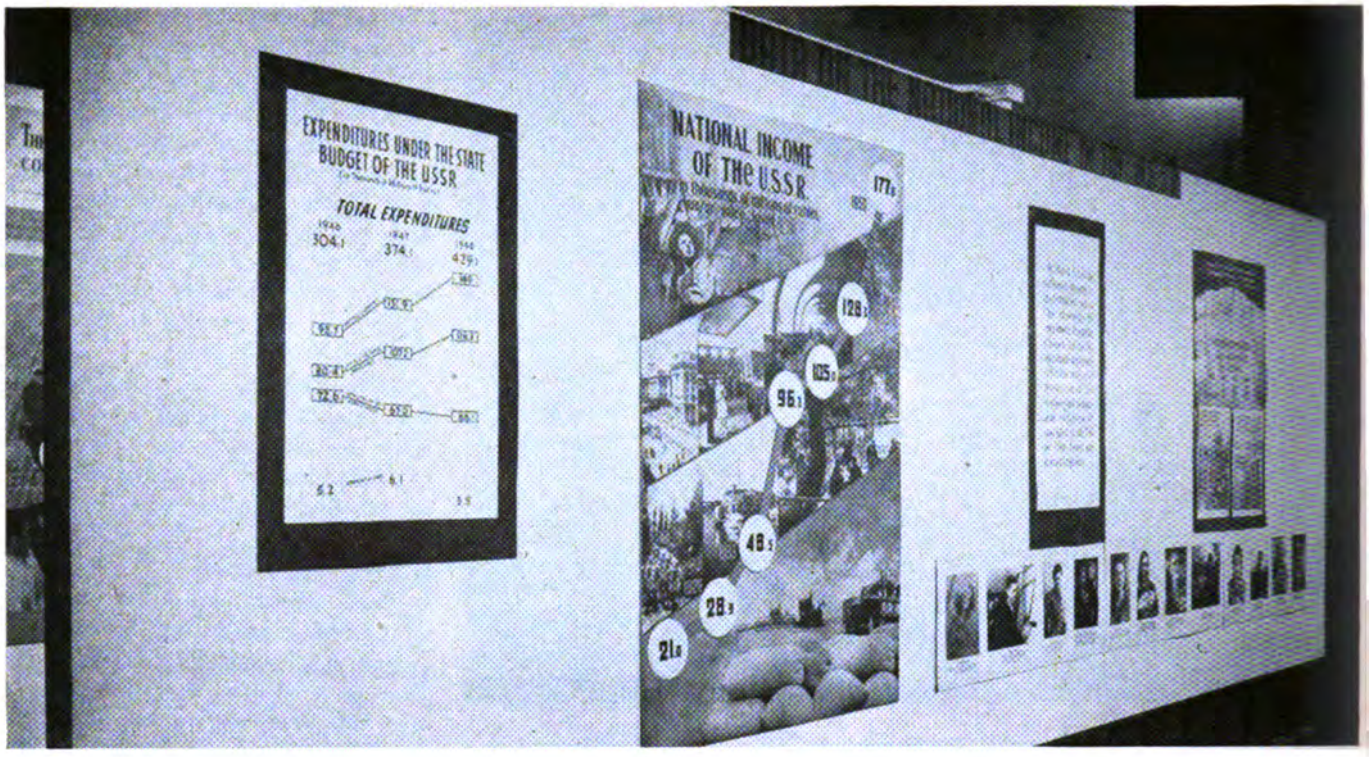
An interesting section of this cultural aspect of the exhibition is the group of Soviet paintings and examples of graphic art, including book illustrations. All of these exhibits are themselves displayed, not represented by photographs.

The section displaying samples of exports from the USSR to the USA has proved of much interest to American spectators.

A chart shows that in 1947, 21.2 per cent of the manganese ore imported by the United States came from the USSR; 24 per cent of the chrome ore; 44.1 per cent of the chrome ore of metallurgical grade; and 28.6 per cent of the peroxide. In addition to these industrial exports, furs, paper products, and table delicacies, also exported from the USSR to the USA, were shown.

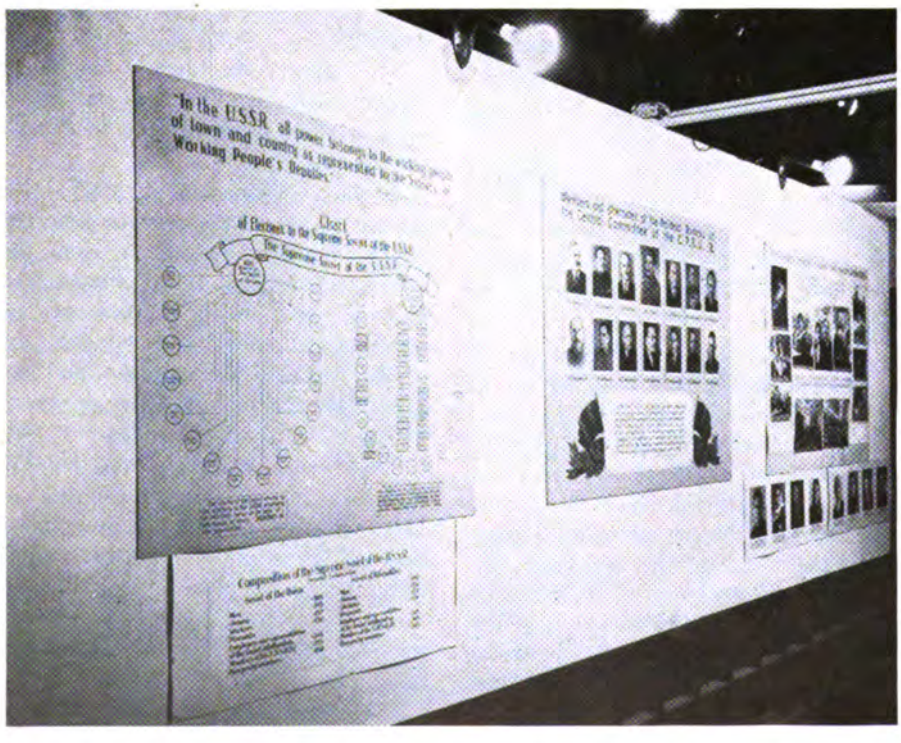
At opposite ends of the exhibition are displays showing historical exhibits dealing with the Revolution, Civil War, and foreign intervention, and with the Second World War—struggles through which the USSR successfully passed.

The exhibition ends with a panel showing the end of the recent war, and the joyous return of the Soviet peoples to peaceful labor.

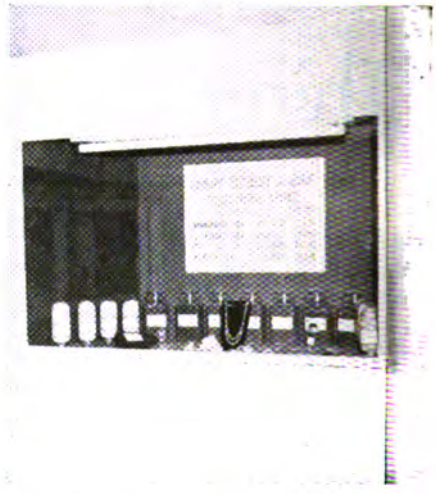


FINANCIAL DATA. A display showing the ever-increasing prosperity of the USSR.

The Soviet Exhibit



POLITICAL INFORMATION. A panel showing the structure of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and other political facts.



EXPORTS TO USA. Metals and chemicals (above) and table delicacies.

INDUSTRY. The swift growth of Soviet industry is depicted in this panel.

AGRICULTURE. The inspiring story of the huge Soviet collective farms is told here. Only after petty individual farming gave way to vast mechanized farms did the countryside become really prosperous.

Billions for Culture

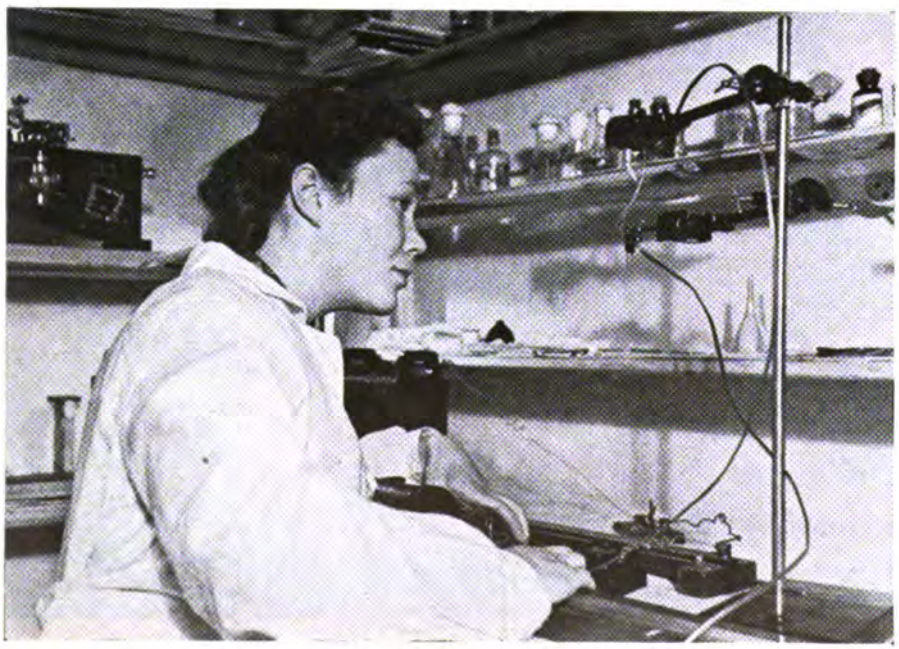
By A. Palladin

THE State Budget adopted by the recent session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR sets revenue at more than 429,000 million rubles, and expenditure at more than 388,000 million rubles. The labor of the Soviet people has created such sources of accumulation as will enable the Soviet Union to rise to a new, still higher level of economic prosperity and cultural development this year.

In the State Budget of the USSR as a whole, and in the budgets of each Soviet Republic, expenditure on culture and public health is increasing along with the increase of expenditure on industry, transport and agriculture. In the 1948 State Budget, expenditure on culture and public health is fixed at 116,300 million rubles—9,800 million more than in 1947. Of this sum 59,100 million rubles is allocated for education. Large sums are earmarked for the upkeep of elementary and secondary schools. The number of pupils in the general educational schools will this year exceed the prewar level and will total 33,200,000. The number of students in the higher educational establishments will amount to 722 thousand which exceeds the figure planned for 1950, the last year of the postwar Five-Year Plan. The success of the Soviet Government in creating favorable conditions for education and for such a rapid growth in the number of students will appear all the more striking when we remember that on the territory of the USSR which was occupied by the Hitlerite hordes, the enemy burnt, demolished and plundered 82 thousand schools and completely or partly destroyed 334 higher educational establishments.

Not a single other country allocates such huge sums for education and culture as does the USSR. As compared with last year, expenditure on scientific research institutions will increase by 7.2 per cent, which will create conditions for a broader development of research in all branches of the national economy.

In the Soviet Union, development of science and culture keeps pace with the powerful rise in the economy, which last year had already attained the prewar level. Such progress of science and culture is conceivable only in the land of victorious socialism, where the social and state system has opened boundless vistas for the creative initiative of the masses and the development of Soviet society.



EDUCATION. N. Lassi, student at the Karelo-Finnish University.

MAGAZINES. An editor indexing reviews.

Allocations for culture and public health are continuously growing in the constituent republics of the USSR. In 1947, under the Budget of the Russian SFSR, 31,234 million rubles were spent on social and cultural measures. More than half of this sum—17,086 million rubles—covered expenditure on education.

The economy and culture of the remotest regions and cities are changing. Take, for instance, Novosibirsk, a young city. In recent years it has been transformed into a most important industrial and cultural center of the eastern part of the USSR. The West Siberian Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, as well as seven higher educational establishments, several technical schools and 23 scientific-research institutions are functioning in Novosibirsk. In this city there are branches of the Soviet Writers', Artists', and Architects' Unions; and books, a regional newspaper and the literary magazine *Siberian Lights* are published. A state opera and ballet theater has been opened in Novosibirsk.

This year the budgets of the constituent (Union) republics will reach almost 88,000 million rubles. Two thirds of this sum, approximately 60,000 million rubles, goes to finance social and cultural measures, and more than half of this amount is allocated for education.

In the Ukrainian Republic, which suffered greatly from the Nazi invasion, 10,435 million rubles, or 67 per cent of the Budget, is to be spent on social and cultural measures and public health. The science and culture of the Ukrainian people will thus develop further. The network of schools, clubs and libraries will be considerably extended. Twenty-nine thousand, four hundred and ninety schools attended by about six million children are now functioning in the Ukraine. Higher educational establishments totalling 158, and attended by 129 thousand students, have been rehabilitated. A considerable number of schools, institutes, libraries, clubs, theaters and medical institutions have been established in the western regions of the Ukraine since they joined the Soviet Union. State universities are functioning in Lvov, Uzhgorod, and Chernovtsy.

In the Estonian SSR, which also was occupied by the enemy, the culture of the Estonian people, national in form and socialist in content, is developing rapidly. The fulfillment of last year's Budget in the Republic shows that never before in the entire history of the Estonian people have science, art and literature had such favorable conditions for their development. Nearly 149 thousand children—25 per cent more than before the war—are now attending the elementary and secondary schools. The number of students in the higher educational establishments of Estonia is 5,800, as compared to 4,700 in 1941. There were 2,100 students in the technical schools of the Republic before the war, and now there are 9,300. More than 15 million books have been issued in Estonia since the liberation of the Republic from the German fascists. This figure is greater than the number of books issued during the many years of rule of the bourgeoisie in Estonia.

Rapid progress of culture is to be observed in every Union and Autonomous Republic of the USSR.

The 1948 State Budget of the USSR is directed toward accelerating the pace of rehabilitation and development of the national economy, toward enhancing culture and science, toward a further rise in the standard of living of the Soviet people. By strengthening the economy of the country, the Soviet people will this year achieve new successes in cultural construction.

THEATER. A ballet performance at the Bolshoi Theater, Moscow.

LIBRARY. The Lenin Library in Moscow, one of the world's largest.

MUSEUM. A gallery of the Hermitage Museum, Leningrad.

Fertile Deserts of the USSR

By N. Mochalin

Head of Building Administration of the Ministry of Water Conservation of the Kazakh SSR

In the southern part of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic there lies a vast plain which, from time immemorial, Kazakh nomads called the "Hungry Steppe." The soil of this steppe, almost two and one-half million acres in area, is suitable for agriculture, but the land could not be cultivated owing to the absence of water. Nothing living could exist in the steppe.

Only with the coming of Soviet power did life come to the "Hungry Steppe." Thousands of Kazakh families have settled here. Collective farms were organized in the steppe. The Pakhta Aral state cotton-growing farm, one of the largest of its kind in the world, arose on it. The crop yields in this state farm average from seven to eight tons per hectare*. Here, too, has been formed the largest state viticultural farm in the Kazakh SSR, which produces splendid wines. On the lands of the former "Hungry Steppe" now grow grain, fruits, vegetables, melons. Herds of many thousands of cattle graze on rich pastures in these steppes.

How and when did these amazing changes take place?

The "Hungry Steppe" came to life during the years of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, when the Kazakhs, with the fraternal aid of the Russian people, set about creating industry and large-scale collective farming in their country. Within a brief time, intricate irrigation systems were constructed on the "Hungry Steppe;" deep canals were dug along which the life-giving water of the Syr-Darya, the largest river in Central Asia, flowed to the lands of the desert. The total length of the canals in the steppe exceeded 1,800 miles. The Kirov Central Canal has 50 branches, which make it possible to irrigate thousands of acres of collective farm lands. But this is only a beginning.

Soviet power has made the Kazakh people the masters of their land. The Kazakh peasants, who had led a nomad life for ages, have abandoned forever their travelling tents and have settled down to agriculture. To raise crop yields became a question of major national importance for the Kazakh SSR. And when the building of canals began in the arid districts of the Republic, the collective farm peasantry helped all it could to speed this construction. On their own initiative and on a voluntary basis the collective farmers with their own resources built powerful irrigation systems in the deserts and on the steppes.

In the arid Kzyl-Orda Steppe, a canal more than 12 miles in length was built by fast methods in 20 days. In building the Kzyl-Orda Canal 7,062,800 cubic feet of earth were excavated. More than 24,700 acres of arable land and hayfields were irrigated in the remote, once infertile Nurinsky district. A network of canals approximately 250 miles long now irrigates the collective farm fields of this district, from which Kazakh peasants are annually reaping rich harvests.

With the mass participation of the collective farm peasantry, 75 large systems, irrigating almost 250 thousand acres of previously waste lands, were built up by fast methods during the two years between 1939 and 1941. In these constructions more than 1,059,000,000 cubic feet of earth were excavated and 423,768 cubic feet of concrete laid. More than 125 thousand collective farmers, men and women, took part in this new construction.

Efforts for adding to the cultivated land in the Kazakh SSR continued in wartime. For instance, a powerful irrigation system, providing water for 12,355 acres of land, was built up

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

FRUIT OF THE DESERT. A Kazakh girl with fruit grown on irrigated land.

around the city of Karaganda, the major Kazakh coal center. On these irrigated lands the Karaganda coal miners gather rich harvests of potatoes and other vegetables.

In the south of Karaganda Steppe, in the district of Lake Balkhash, where in the middle of May the land is entirely burnt out and becomes black, five large reservoirs containing more than 280 million cubic feet of water were built in recent years. Irrigation canals, totalling 93 miles in length, were dug here, which made it possible to grow potatoes and other vegetables for the workers of the famous Kazakh copper smelting works. Gardens and parks, and even a Botanical Garden (one of the largest in the Kazakh SSR) arose near the city of Balkhash.

Before the Revolution, the area of irrigated land in Kazakhstan was quite insignificant. Today it amounts to 3,706,500 acres. The total length of the irrigation systems in the Republic has increased to 24,855 miles. The irrigated land under cotton and rice has more than trebled. Sugar beet, tobacco, hemp, castor oil and rubber-bearing plants, vegetables and melons are now growing and yielding good harvests on the irrigated lands. There are scores of thousands of acres of these lands.

Everything has not yet been done by any means. The rapid development of socialist agriculture and animal husbandry in the Republic has raised the problem of rapidly putting under cultivation new desert lands and providing water for the huge pastures of the Kazakh SSR. This task is included in the postwar Five-Year Plan.

The Kazakh people are successfully coping with this task too. A huge ferro-concrete dam is being built across the Syr-Darya River, which will make it possible to irrigate more than 370 thousand acres of land in the Kzyl-Orda desert and on which rice plantations will be laid out. This is only one of many irrigation systems that are now under construction.

Such a gigantic scope of irrigation work in the Kazakh SSR became possible only under the conditions of socialist agriculture in which exploitation of man by man is unknown, and when the broad masses of the population joined in the work, work in which the Soviet Government rendered the greatest assistance.

OASIS. A canal in the desert.

SHELTER BELT. Tree belts like this, planted on the plains, are instrumental in saving the soil.

Saving the Soil from Erosion

By Assistant Professor L. Koretskaya

EROSION of the soil, as a natural process, is manifested in many agricultural districts of the USSR. Strong winds are frequent in the North Caucasus, the Volga area, the Bashkir Autonomous Republic (in the Southern Urals), in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic and Siberia. In the humid subtropics torrential rains threaten to wash away the soil. Characteristic for the central regions of the European parts of the USSR, the Far East, East Siberia and several other districts is a short and boisterous spring, resulting in a tempestuous flow of waters, which likewise creates conditions for a superficial washing away of the soil.

It is generally known that erosion of the soil may be intensified or stayed, depending upon the method of cultivating the land and upon the level of agricultural efficiency.

Petty individual peasant farming predominated in pre-Revolutionary Russia, with the result that the land was utilized without any system, and was often exploited rapaciously. This led to a sharp intensification of the erosive processes in many agricultural districts of the country. In some of the gubernias (provinces) the area of washed-out lands reached 15 to 20 per cent of the total area.

Under Soviet conditions every possibility of combating erosion has been utilized. In this, the decisive condition is the fact that there is no private ownership of land in the Soviet Union: the land belongs to the State, which makes it possible to carry out measures for eliminating erosive processes according to plan and on a general state scale. The efficacy of the struggle against erosion was immensely enhanced after millions of petty peasant farms united in large collective farms, which carry on their operations in conformity with the general State Plan.

In the USSR erosion is combated primarily by the rational utilization of lands. For this purpose forest belts to protect the land from winds are planted, forests of agronomic im portance are carefully protected an grass sowing is extended. Huge sum are spent on the building of irrigatio systems, binding of sands, etc. All thes measures, tending to prevent erosion c the soil, are looked upon and enforce as a matter of the utmost state im portance.

Practice has shown that one of th radical conditions for the preventio of erosive processes is the planting forest shelter belts and the preservatio of forests at watersheds. The syste of forest belts in the open steppe, ela orated by the outstanding Russi pedologist V. V. Dokuchayev, was most valuable contribution to the e ficiency of agriculture. The forest bel on the fields of the Kamennaya Step Experimental Station (now the Inst tute of Agriculture of the Black Ear Belt in Voronezh Region) planted b Dokuchayev in 1891, now ensures rise in the yield of grain crops by

least 25 to 30 per cent as compared with sowings in the open steppe.

Afforestation and planting of water-protective woods on a large scale are carried on in the USSR. During the eight years before the war more than a million acres of forests of agronomic importance were planted, mainly in the steppe districts of the USSR. About 180 million acres of forests were reserved as a special water protection zone, where disorderly tree felling is prohibited and tree planting has been organized for the systematic restoration of forest sectors.

Another effective measure for the prevention and elimination of erosion is crop rotations with grass and bare fallow. Collectivization of agriculture has ensured planned multi-field crop rotations. The postwar Five-Year Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR calls for the completion of the system of proper crop rotations with the application of grass sowings, in all collective and state farms of the country by the end of 1950.

The grassland system of crop rotations improves the structure of the soil, which is one of the most important agronomic measures in combating erosion. The teaching on the grassland system of agriculture was worked out in detail by the late Soviet Academician V. R. Williams. The basic principle of his teaching is the restoration of the cloddy structure of the soil under the influence of the root system of perennial grasses.

Sowing of mixtures of cereal and leguminous grasses facilitates the accumulation of organic substances and mineral elements of nutrition in the soil, ensures high crop yields and hinders the ruinous action of precipitation. Subsequently, the powerful root system of the cultivated plants helps to bind the soil still more firmly and to raise its resistance to the action of erosive processes. During the postwar Five-Year Plan period, the area of grass sowings and crop rotation is to be increased to more than 50 million acres.

Sowing of annual leguminous grasses between the beds is practiced in crop rotations in districts with a preponderance of row crops. The continuous cover of vegetation remaining after harvesting of the crops protects the soil from washing away during the rainy period.

There are nearly 1,250 million acres of natural pastures and hayfields in the USSR. A proper system of pasture rotation helps to strengthen the surface of the soil. Sowing of turf-forming grasses, top-dressing the sowings with mineral fertilizers, etc., is carried out in these areas.

The success of the collective farm system has made it possible to carry out land cultivation in deserts and semi-deserts on a vast scale. With the aid of drought-resisting species of trees and grasses, large sandy areas in Central Asia—the Kara-Kum, Gzyl-Kum and other deserts—have been cultivated.

Irrigation construction is extending annually. Collective and state farms of the Central Asian republics have reclaimed from the arid deserts hundreds of thousands of acres of land on which they are growing most valuable industrial and food crops. In 1939 the collective farmers of the Uzbek and Tajik Soviet Republics built the great Ferghana Canal, more than 170 miles in length, which irrigated more than 300 thousand acres of new lands. The Nevinnomysky Canal has been put into operation in North Caucasus. Building of a huge irrigation system is developing in the Kara-Kum Desert. Putting of the lands in this district under cultivation creates favorable conditions for strengthening the cover of the soil.

The planned, organized and systematic struggle against erosion precludes any possibility of the spreading of this evil on a large scale.

Long-Term Farm Credit

By S. Nosyrev

Assistant Manager of the Agricultural Bank of the USSR

LONG-TERM credit plays a very important part in the development of collective farming. State agricultural credit is granted on easy terms to collective farms for purposes of development, for electrification, for increasing the quantity of livestock, for organization of new branches of farming.

Distinguishing features of this credit are its accessibility and cheapness. Interest at the rate of three per cent per annum is charged for a loan, whereas for money deposited by collective farms in the Agricultural Bank of the USSR interest is paid at the rate of 3.75 per cent per annum. Collective farms thus pay less interest for loans than they receive from the State for their deposits. The Agricultural Bank makes good the seeming loss on these operations from other sources of revenue.

Thanks to this cheapness of credit, most collective farms take advantage of it. The volume of loans is growing year by year. As compared with 1943, the amount of credit allowed to collective farms in 1944 was twice and in 1947 seven times as much.

The collective farms of Sverdlovsk Region, for instance, completed the entire electrification of their farms last year. A great deal of other important work has been carried out by the collective farms of the Region with the aid of loans. Last year they received nearly 20 million rubles in loans. The economically weaker collective farms receive loans on easy terms repayable in 15 years.

With the aid of state loans, electrification was effected last year in 943 collective farms of Moscow region, where scores of hydroelectric power stations were built and electric light installed in 40 thousand peasant houses.

In the Soviet Union as a whole, collective farms effected a tremendous program of construction and acquired a great number of cattle with the aid of state loans.

Besides long-term credits to collective farms, the Agricultural Bank of the USSR grants loans to farmers individually for building dwellings and for acquiring cattle. The volume of this credit in postwar times has increased considerably owing to the great care of the State for the population which suffered at the hands of the German invaders. Nearly two million Soviet citizens have received long-term state loans.

For this year, the plan provides for an increase of loans to collective farms of 50 per cent as compared with 1947.

"Old Village" Is Reborn

By G. Limonov

STAROSELYE (the name means "Old Village"), situated far from any railway in the Gorodishchev district of Kiev Region, has won a prominent place among Soviet communities, though it is only a village. Staroselye was the birthplace of the movement for high crop yields of sugar beet, a movement that spread among the beet growers of the Ukraine, Kursk, Voronezh, Kazakhstan, Georgia and all other beet growing districts.

The records of the initiators of this movement—Maria Demchenko and Marina Gnatenko, who harvested more than 50 tons of beet per hectare* —have long since been surpassed. The names of new champions of high harvests have become known throughout the country, but the name of Staroselye has not faded, as the fame remains of those who by their labor have raised the prosperity of their country.

This village before the war had achieved a high level of economic and cultural development in Soviet times. Year by year its land yielded greater incomes to the collective farmers, and their prosperity grew. Life in the village differed little from the life in a district town.

The collective farmers built a power station, a telephone exchange, a spacious ten-year school, a House of Culture where the Staroselye women's choir often appeared. In the fall and winter, music and dancing festivals were organized in the House of Culture. These festivals were attended not only by the villagers but also by guests from neighboring districts.

There was a department store in the central street of the village and a pleasant cafe next to it. A little further down the street stood a theater, a hospital and a drugstore. Staroselye had its own race-horses which were trained in its own stud and often participated and won prizes in Republican contests.

Staroselye villagers would often go to Kiev to attend premieres of plays. And artists from the Ukrainian capital would often appear in Staroselye.

I often visited this village. I saw that the collective farmers led a full and many-sided life. They were interested in everything that went on in the Soviet Union. They read the latest literature and would discuss till late at night questions of politics or science. They were proud of the fact that their village, which before the Revolution had consisted almost entirely of farmhands, had produced 30 agronomists and 30 teachers, that the children of the former unskilled agricultural laborers were students in the universities and academies of Moscow, Leningrad and Kiev. They were proud of the fact that some of their fellow villagers had risen to high posts in the administration of the State, that among them were members of the Supreme Soviets of the USSR and of the Ukrainian Republic.

In 1941 war came. The Hitlerites broke into the village, ran amuck and plundered its riches.

Together with the Soviet troops, I passed through the village, I saw its ruins and met my old acquaintances near the dugouts.

"We waited for you," they said to us. "We knew that you would come!"

Generals Yefrem Lyalchenko and Denis Gorkusha, born and bred in Staroselye, led their troops to the liberation of the Soviet Ukraine. The fame of Hero of the Soviet Union Grigori Lyalchenko of Staroselye spread through the country. Thirty officers and hundreds of soldiers—sons of Staroselye—fought the enemy on all fronts; they fought for their country and for their village.

"We shall find it hard, but we won't give up," the inhabitants of liberated Staroselye said to me. The Germans could not kill in them the spirit of creativeness inherent in the Soviet people.

Once again I visited Staroselye in the fall of 1947, and I could hardly believe my eyes. Gone were the ashes and ruins. The collective farm had built seven hundred new houses, was rehabilitating many public buildings, and continued to build stables and cattle yards.

The village still lacked much. But Staroselye had again acquired its prewar appearance, though not quite exactly. There was much that was new in the village. For instance, Staroselye is now being built according to a new plan designed by prominent architects.

At the time of my visit they were harvesting sugar beet. It was already known that the fifth brigade, under the direction of Marina Gnatenko, Member of the Supreme Soviet, had obtained a yield of 50 tons of sugar beet per hectare, and that the group led by Odarka Pidpalko had secured a still higher yield—60 tons. It was already estimated that each member of this group, in addition to his usual earnings, would receive for the high beet harvest more than four thousand rubles in cash and 992 pounds of sugar.

Beet is the chief crop on the Staroselye collective farm and the basis of its riches. A dam is now being built across the small river Vilshanka. When the dam raises the level of the water in the river, all the beet plantations will be irrigated; this will result in a crop yield of at least one hundred tons of beet per hectare.

The old man Vasili Gnatenko, father of Marina, said to me:

"It was hard to rise, but rise we did! Our people are stubborn. It is not for nothing that from among us are 50 persons decorated with Orders of the Soviet Union and 15 participants in the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition. And the rest do not want to lag behind the foremost. The hardest days are behind us; now everything will be fine."

In this spirit the people of Staroselye are typical of the Soviet people as a whole, and particularly of those of the thousands of villages which, built to prosperity before the war by the work of their people, suffered virtual annihilation at the hands of the invading Germans, and now have arisen again through the efforts of their farming populations.

The pride of Staroselye has not died. Its old name no longer fits it. For Staroselye is now a new village!

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

A Soviet Farm Chairman

By Ludmilla Uvarova

IVAN YEGOROV, Chairman of the Pobeda (Victory) collective farm near Moscow, is well-known far beyond his native village. This middle-aged but vigorous man, by his skill and energy, has made his collective farm one of the best in Moscow Region.

The collective farm is situated on the shores of the "Moscow Sea," a large reservoir that was formed after the building of a dam across the Volga in connection with the construction of the Moscow-Volga Canal. At night the electric lights gleam brightly from the windows of the houses in the village. The collective farm possesses tractors, up-to-date agricultural machines and trucks. All the collective farmers and their families are leading a prosperous and cultured life.

Born and bred in the village of Nastasino, Yegorov was one of the organizers of the collective farm. Before the Revolution the peasants of Nastasino lived in abject poverty. The land they had was not enough to feed them, and many left the village in search of work in towns. At 12 years of age the future chairman of the Pobeda collective farm learned weaving and saddlemaking and worked hard to help his parents feed their big family.

Ivan Yegorov sometimes recalls those days when he contrasts them with present conditions, which enable him to give his children a higher education. His son is a student of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy in Moscow, and his daughter is finishing her course at a medical institute. Yegorov himself is well acquainted with Moscow professors, prominent agricultural scientists, who respect and value this energetic, sagacious farmer.

Yegorov is a member of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. His election was an expression of the great respect which he enjoys among the local population. He devotes himself to the interests of his constituents and helps them all he can in their labor activities and their private needs. Collective farmers often come to him for advice and always receive comprehensive replies to the questions of interest to them.

Ivan Yegorov

On the initiative of the chairman, creches, a kindergarten, a new hospital and a spacious stadium have been built on the collective farm. A fund to aid war invalids, former servicemen and their families has been established and the collective farm provides them with foodstuffs and fuel free of charge if need be. When collective farmer Praskovia Cherkasova, a soldier's widow and mother of five children, fell ill, accommodation was obtained for her in a sanatorium in the Caucasus.

Yegorov assisted the gifted girl Nina Androsova, daughter of a collective farmer, in entering the Moscow Conservatory of Music. She recently came to her native collective farm and gave a concert.

The chairman is planning to establish a music school for gifted children on the collective farm and also an agricultural school, to lay out a large park and berry gardens, to build many new houses.

Yegorov is interested in and values everything new and progressive. He follows the achievements of science and makes bold experiments. Creative ideas of Soviet scientists find practical application on the Pobeda collective farm. For instance, the collective farm adopted Academician Tsitsin's method of sowing wheat, which resulted in increased harvests. The crop yields of grain and vegetables are rising year by year on the collective farm. Agronomists, collective farm chairmen, rank-and-file farmers from other regions frequently visit the Pobeda collective farm to learn its advanced methods.

Yegorov has been abroad a number of times. As a member of Soviet Government delegations, he visited Western European countries. He told us how peasants abroad were much surprised when they learned that he, a plain farmer, was a member of the Soviet parliament, and that his children were students at universities and institutes.

Yegorov often attends meetings of Moscow scientists where agricultural problems are discussed. Academicians, professors and agronomists always listen with great interest to his opinions.

The chairman of the collective farm lives in one of the pleasant houses provided for all of the collective farmers. His study contains two well-filled bookcases, and on his large writing-table lie brochures and journals, in which articles of interest to him are marked for further reading. On the table may also be found many letters from acquaintances and often from people he has never met. Yegorov answers all letters in detail. Collective farmers are frequent visitors to his study. Many old farmers remember him when he was still a boy, but they greatly respect their chairman.

A number of members of the collective farm were assisted by the chairman to acquire a higher education and to become foremost workers in agriculture. Not a few of the collective farmers have been graduated from agricultural colleges and other institutes. From their midst have emerged teachers, doctors, engineers, designers, as well as agronomists. Yegorov pays great attention to children. He often visits the local school, takes an interest in the progress of its pupils, and organizes for them vacations and cures in children's camps and sanatoriums in the summer.

TASHKENT. A department store in the ancient Uzbek capital.

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic

From articles by Abdujabar Abdurakhmanov* and Abdulkhai Rakhmankulov

* *Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic*

THE flowering of a native culture, agriculture and industry in the Republics of the East since the establishment of Soviet power forms one of the most dramatic illustrations of the improvement of the lot of the peoples of the USSR since 1917.

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic, once a colonial and oppressed borderland of tsarist Russia—its ancient culture and language then suppressed; its cities of Tashkent, Samarkand and Bukhara fallen into decay and ruin; its people, who in ancient times included some of the leading scholars of the world, poor and uneducated—now has greatly changed and is a good example of this new life which has come to the East.

Now again Uzbek culture flourishes; the "white gold" of the cotton is heavy in the fields of the modern collective farms; a considerable industry, owned by the whole people, has arisen.

Automobiles and autobuses run through the streets of Tashkent, now a city of 800 thousand population; on the highway wires are being stretched for a trolleybus line, and here, too, an occasional caravan of camels may be seen leisurely making its way into the city. The trees planted around the ancient ponds glisten in the mirror of the water surface. Alongside small native cottages stand multistoried modern buildings of Uzbek architecture; a modern hotel, institutions and stores. Here you find both ancient tea-houses and monumental edifices like the Uzbek State Opera House with portals and arches—such are the picturesque contrasts in present-day Tashkent, capital of Soviet Uzbekistan.

In place of the former narrow, crooked lanes of the old town are arising broad, straight streets and avenues lined on both sides with bubbling aryks (irrigation ditches) and shapely trees. Beautiful parks have been laid out on former wastes.

Situated on the crossing of caravan routes, Tashkent was always a trading city. Before the Revolution it had only two or three small cotton ginning mills, a like number of breweries and several workshops.

During the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, within a very short period, Uzbekistan, formerly a backward colony of tsarist Russia, has turned into a flourishing, advanced Soviet Republic. The Uzbek people have created a powerful industry, a large-scale socialist agriculture and have raised their national culture to a high level. These great transformations of the land of cotton have also changed the Uzbek capital beyond recognition.

Some 20 years ago the southwestern outskirts of Tashkent were desolate waste. Today we see here the tall buildings of a textile mill producing cotton and silk fabrics. Alongside it has arisen a small town with well appointed cottages for the workers of the mill, a Palace of Culture and a large park.

Another big enterprise of the capital is the machine building plant serving the textile industry, whose annual out-

put of machines is sufficient to equip several textile mills. The Tashkent Agricultural Machine Building Works supplies the cotton growing collective and state farms of Central Asia with tractor seed-drills and cultivators, harvesting, cotton ginning and other machines. Tashkent factories now also produce excavators and equipment for power stations.

The inhabitants of Tashkent are rightly proud of their electro-chemical plant which is supplying socialist agriculture of the Soviet republics in Central Asia with mineral fertilizer.

A chain of hydroelectric power stations has been built on the River Chirchik and the Boz-Su Canal flowing from it, which supplies electricity to the factories of the capital and its outskirts. Tashkent will shortly receive additional power from the Farkhad hydroelectric power station which is being built on the Syr-Darya River.

Tashkent industry is producing all kinds of consumer goods including food products. Daily, trains from the capital carry footwear, textiles, crockery, electric bulbs, knitted goods and other commodities to all parts of the country.

Tashkent is not only a city of industry, but also the cultural center of Soviet Uzbekistan. The city boasts of 16 higher educational establishments including the Central Asian State University and the Industrial Institute with numerous departments which train a national intelligentsia. The Uzbek Academy of Sciences founded after the Revolution sponsors 13 scientific-research institutes, and other scientific institutions, where hundreds of Uzbek scientists are working.

The Tashkent Institute for the Study of Eastern Manuscripts possesses scores of thousands of ancient manuscripts. Many of them are unique and are not to be found in any other library in the world. Among them is the only autograph of Gafiz, an Iranian poet of the fourteenth century, a manuscript of the famous conqueror Sheibani-Khan, who overthrew the dynasty of the Timurides in Samarkand, also many extremely rare ancient eastern miniatures.

There are more than 10 theaters in Tashkent. Along with the works of national authors, the theaters produce in the Uzbek language the best works of Gogol, Ostrovsky, Maxim Gorky, Shakespeare, Schiller, Lope de Vega, Goldoni.

The ancient cultural and scientific achievements of the Uzbek people, whose country was once a center of world civilization, have left their traces, through all the years of tsarist oppression, in monuments, remnants of old irrigation systems, etc. The Uzbek people, remembering their glorious past, can now truly say that their future matches it.

The remnants of complex irrigation systems constructed thousands of years ago which have been preserved to this day prove that agriculture had attained a fairly high level on the territory of Uzbekistan in remote times. Not a few historical monuments have been preserved in Samarkand, Bukhara, Kniva and other Uzbek towns.

From the Uzbek people have come such outstanding representatives of the science and culture of their epoch as

FACTORY. Assembling spinning frames at a machine building plant in Tashkent.

"WHITE GOLD." Cotton in the fields of the Uzbek SSR. The Republic leads the country in cotton production.

Al-Khorezmi, author of the first treatise on algebra, who lived in the ninth century; Avitsenna, the philosopher and physician of the eleventh century; Ulugbek, the famous astronomer of the fifteenth century; Alisher Navoi, the poet and founder of the Uzbek literary language, whose works still arouse admiration. But the Uzbek people did not have its own national state. Uzbekistan was broken up into small possessions which were frequently raided by foreign conquerors. Only after the Great October Revolution were the lands of the Uzbek people reunited into a single sovereign national state: the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic.

The Stalin policy on nationalities and the establishment of Soviet democracy awakened the creative forces of the Uzbek people. With the day-to-day assistance of the Russian people, Uzbekistan during the period of the Five-Year Plans has created a highly developed large-scale industry and a socialist agriculture equipped with the most up-to-date machines.

Whereas before the Revolution there were in Uzbekistan only a few primitive cotton ginning factories and oil mills, the country today has such large industrial enterprises, besides those already mentioned in Tashkent, as the Ferghana textile mills, the Samarkand and Margelan silk weaving mills, the Chirchik Electro-Chemical Works. Metallurgical, chemical, machine building and other industries have been created anew in Uzbekistan.

The natural resources of Uzbekistan are being tapped more and more. Large deposits of oil and coal are being worked, a powerful mining industry, including rare metals, has been created.

Light industry, including the production of textiles, and the food industry have greatly developed and are providing the population with foodstuffs and other consumer goods.

Enormous reserves of water power are latent in the numerous rapid rivers of Uzbekistan. Scores of large hydroelectric power stations, supplying electricity to the entire national economy of the Republic, have been built during the Five-Year Plan period. A number of new power stations are now under construction, among them being the Farkhad Hydroelectric Power Station.

Uzbekistan produces more than two-thirds of the cotton grown in the USSR. In the period since the advent of Soviet power, cotton production increased more than threefold, production of silk cocoons doubled, karakul sheep breeding, horticulture and viticulture developed considerably.

Socialist large-scale industry was the basis for the rapid development of agriculture, especially for the cultivation of crops on irrigated fields. The cultivated area during the last 30 years increased by almost 2,500,000 acres, whereas before the Revolution the increase in the area of irrigated lands during 65 years totalled only 200 thousand acres.

PAINTER. Shamora Khasanova, first Uzbek woman painter.

Large irrigation systems have been constructed on the rivers Syr-Dara, Zeravshan, Kara-Darya. The Stalin Great Ferghana Canal, almost 168 miles in length, was built in record time by the Uzbek people. It runs through almost the entire Ferghana Valley and connects the river Naryn with Kara-Darya. Construction of the second section of the huge Katta-Kurgan reservoir, 600 million cubic meters of water in capacity, is now in progress. This reservoir will regulate the waters of Zeravshan. The development of irrigation has made it possible considerably to extend the cotton plantations which already cover 2,471,000 acres.

Cultivation of sugar beet, rice, tobacco and other valuable crops is being introduced on a large scale.

Pastures for many thousands of karakul sheep have been created in the deserts, and well built settlements for stock breeders have arisen.

Thousands of tractors and scores of thousands of agricultural machines are working on the fields of the collective and state farms. The collective farms of Uzbekistan are served by 208 machine and tractor stations. Advanced agrotechnique and a high degree of mechanization of agricultural work have lightened the labor of the peasants and markedly raised the productivity of labor. The Uzbek people are proud of many of the foremost collective farms and outstanding farmers who are harvesting more than ten tons of cotton and more than 80 tons of sugar beet per hectare*.

CHILDREN OF UZBEKISTAN. Happy childhood is ensured here, as elsewhere in the USSR.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

The standard of living and culture of the working people is rapidly rising.

Under tsarism only about two to three per cent of the Uzbek population could read and write, whereas today the Uzbek SSR is a country where almost the entire population is literate. Free universal education in seven-year schools has been introduced in urban and rural areas. More than a million children are attending the 4,500 schools in the Republic.

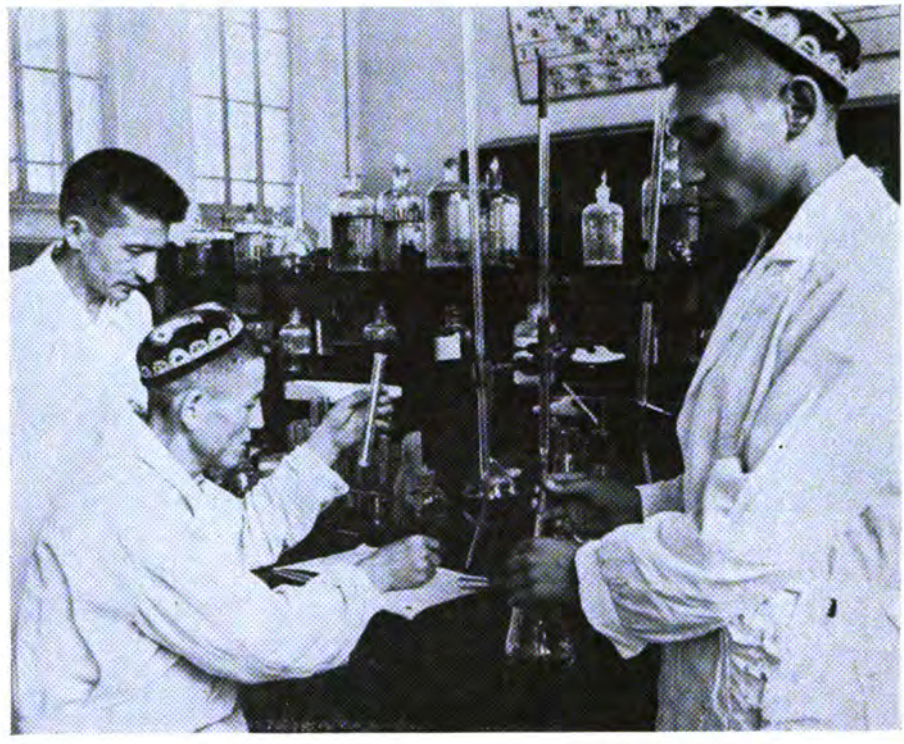
There are now in the Uzbek SSR 36 higher schools including the Tashkent and Samarkand universities, which are educating a national intelligentsia. Before the Revolution there was not a single Uzbek specialist with a higher education in the country. Now there are many thousands of Uzbek engineers, physicians, teachers, agronomists, scientists and technicians.

Nearly four thousand physicians are working in the 428 hospitals and 1,677 polyclinics, outpatient clinics and other medical institutions. Sanitary measures and hygienic instruction have led to the disappearance of many diseases from which the population suffered in the past.

Before the Revolution the veiled and oppressed Uzbek woman was deprived of rights. Public life was closed to her. Today many Uzbek women are highly qualified specialists, working as physicians, engineers, pedagogues, agronomists; they participate in scientific activities of all kinds. Women have become active builders of the economic and political life of their country.

National art and literature are developing rapidly in the Uzbek SSR. The Uzbek Academy of Sciences in Tashkent sponsors the scientific work of more than 20 institutes and research institutions, observatories, experimental stations, laboratories. It is headed by the outstanding Uzbek mathematician Academician Tashmuhamed Sarymsakov.

Uzbek writers, poets and composers are working fruitfully. Works of Russian and foreign classics and composers are performed in Uzbek opera houses and dramatic theaters and are very popular. The Uzbek people display the greatest interest in the works of Leo Tolstoi, Pushkin, Maxim Gorky, Ostrovsky, Fadeyev, Sholokhov and other writers. The great works of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin, translated into the Uzbek language, are also very popular.



UNIVERSITY. Once condemned to illiteracy, the Uzbek people now have fine educational facilities. Students at Central Asian State University.

The appearance of cities and villages of Uzbekistan has entirely changed.

Comfortable, well-appointed houses have been built on the sites of former hovels in the rural areas of the Republic. Many of the collective farm villages have been entirely rebuilt. You will now hardly find a village without a club and a cinema.

The labor enthusiasm of the free Uzbek people, who are building up their socialist State, has been strikingly manifested in constructions of great importance for the further economic progress of the country.

When Hitlerite Germany attacked the Soviet Union, the Uzbek people, at the call of Stalin, rose like one man in defense of the socialist Motherland and its liberty and independence. In that severe struggle the peoples of the Soviet Union, welded by invincible friendship, won a historic victory over the enemy. For the valor and heroism displayed in battles, the high title of the Hero of the Soviet Union has been conferred on 60 Uzbek soldiers and officers. Scores of thousands of Uzbeks have been rewarded by the Government with Orders and medals.

During the war the working people of Uzbekistan supplied the front with munitions and foodstuffs.

When the war came to an end the Uzbek people resumed their peaceful labor, their efforts for the further development of the country's economy and culture. The postwar Five-Year Plan for the Republic provides for the construction of a number of new large industrial enterprises and irrigation systems which will transform the desert zones into districts of industrial and agricultural production.

Along with this, the Uzbek people are preparing for still greater national economic tasks, work on which will be inaugurated after the completion of the current Five-Year Plan. These include the construction of the gigantic Kelif Canal and the huge water reservoir on the Syr-Darya river for the irrigation of new lands and for improving the water supply of the existing cotton plantations.

Great successes in the development of their national economy and national culture have been achieved during the last 30 years by the Uzbek people under the leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. The Uzbek people are confidently marching onward to further progress and prosperity.

A Soviet Woman

Anna Severyanova, a Soviet woman and the daughter of a railwayman, provides an example of how women may rise to high position in the USSR in all fields.

She is director of the Trekhgornaya textile mills in Moscow, which employ thousands of mill workers, engineers, and office workers. She is one of a number of Soviet women who occupy high posts in industry and head large and complex industrial organizations.

Now 40 years old, she was nine when the October Revolution took place. She began her work in industry as a textile worker, and in 1933 became secretary of the Communist Party organization at the Trekhgornaya mills. In this post, her work made her very popular with the mill workers.

She was at the Leningrad Front for three years during the war, and returned to Moscow and the textile mill after this term of war service. Shortly after her return, she was appointed director of the mill.

As factory director, she has

IN THE PLANT. Anna Severyanova (left foreground) begins her day at the mill with a round of the production departments. She is shown inspecting the work of a new loom in the weaving mill. With her is Nikolai Shmelev, superintendent of the weaving mill.

HOUSING DEVELOPMENT. An architect shows her the site of a housing project for the mill workers.

CONFERENCE. A production discussion.

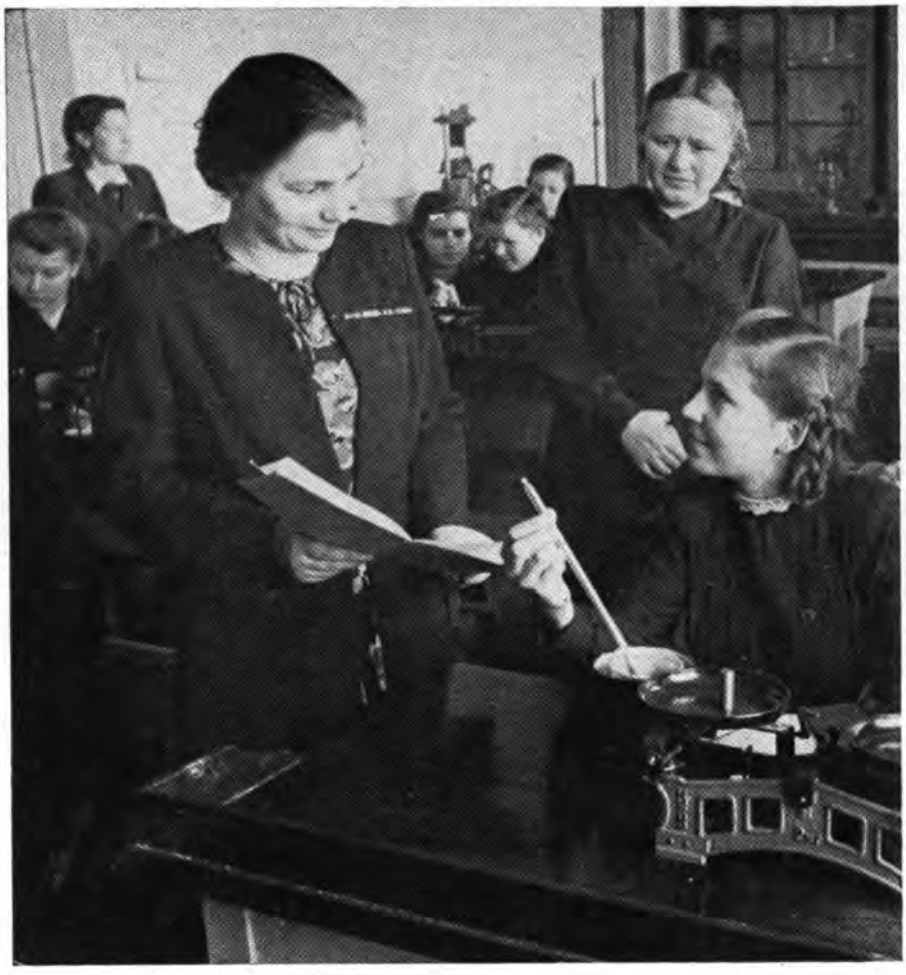
Factory Director

proved, as many another Soviet woman has also, that she is a first-rate administrator.

In 1947, Trekhgornaya mills won six first and second prizes in the nationwide socialist competitions of textile workers. The workers of the mill have now declared that they can fulfill their five-year plan in four years through labor - saving methods and devices, and are expected to produce millions of yards of fabrics in excess of the plan.

Anna Severyanova's duties are not limited to production matters alone. She supervises the construction and maintenance of the modern housing settlement for the mill's workers, of the factory polyclinic, overnight sanatorium, country rest home, kindergartens and nurseries, evening schools, clubs, and other such facilities.

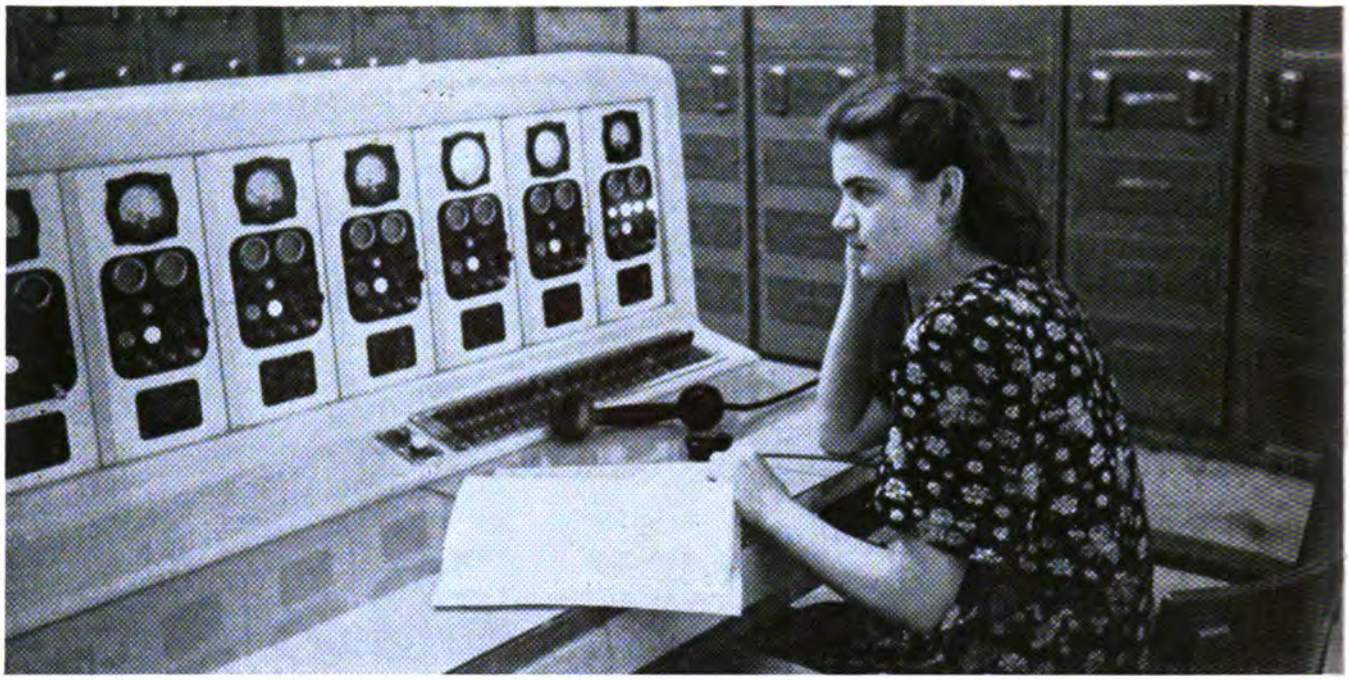
In addition to all this, she does not neglect her home life. She is the mother of two daughters, with whom she studies, skiis, and engages in other sports. They are proud of their mother, and the family life is a full and happy one.



VISITING A SCHOOL. The mill personnel has taken "patronage" over a high school. Pupils chat with Severyanova.

"NIGHT SANATORIUM." She visits mill employees resting at the mill's overnight rest home.

AT HOME. With her daughters in the evening.



DISPATCHER. Lydia Gryaznova, dispatcher on duty, waiting for the Moscow station to go on the air.

Radio Broadcasts in the USSR

By P. Korzinkin and Georgi Kazakov

"THIS is Moscow!" Broadcasting of more than 250 radio programs from the Soviet capital begins with these words.

Russia is the birthplace of radio. A little more than 52 years have passed since the Russian scientist, Alexander Popov, made one of the greatest discoveries in the history of mankind—the possibility of sending wireless signals.

Moscow radio stations now transmit up to one hundred hours of various programs every day for listeners in the Soviet Union and abroad. The growth in volume of broadcasting from Moscow is seen from the following figures:

The number of hours of programs broadcast from Moscow stations amounted to seven thousand in 1930; 12 thousand hours in 1935; 23 thousand hours five years later, and will exceed 35 thousand hours in 1947.

Every day Moscow broadcasts 30 to 40 concerts, totaling more than 20 hours. Besides music, the amount of textual material which is transmitted from the Soviet capital's stations in different languages daily is sufficient to fill 30 issues of a six-page newspaper.

Leading Soviet actors, composers and writers participate in Moscow's radio programs. Sound recordings of noted singers of the past, such as Chaliapin and Sobinov, are included in the programs heard from Moscow. The All-Union Radio Committee has a collection of 25 thousand musical recordings.

The three main daily programs for Soviet listeners are broadcast from Moscow on 18 different wavelengths, and are well heard in all parts of the vast country. In addition to these programs, there are special programs for listeners in the Far East, Siberia, Central Asia and other regions where there is a considerable discrepancy between

SPORTS BROADCAST. Vadim Sinyavsky broadcasts a football match.

Moscow standard time and local time.

Moscow broadcasts are picked up in all countries of Europe, are heard in North and South America, in Africa, Australia, India and China. Moscow radio stations transmit special programs for foreign listeners. A special one-hour concert program is arranged for them daily.*

Great progress has been made in the Soviet Union in developing radio, in building up a large-scale radio industry and constructing new broadcasting stations. Millions of persons in the Soviet Union and beyond its boundaries hear the voice of Moscow. The entire radio listening world knows the call signals of the Soviet capital, bells playing the opening notes of the popular Soviet song, *Soviet Land, So Dear to Every Worker.*

In addition to the broadcasts from the capital, there are many programs which originate and are broadcast locally.

As many as 1,600 cities throughout the Soviet Union have their own local radio broadcasts.

Local broadcasts are directed by republican, territorial and regional radio committees, whose task is to see that local programs reflect the life of the given republic or region.

Local radio broadcasts are conducted in as many as 70 different languages. Even such numerically small nationalities as the Tungus or Chukchi, who until Soviet times had no written language of their own, can now hear broadcasts in their native tongue. And these are not mere episodic programs, but regular well produced daily broadcasts.

AMATEUR. Natasha Bunatyan, a schoolgirl, ready to go on the air. R. Polykovskaya produces the program.

One distinguishing feature of local programs is the extensive participation of the public at large. Each republic and region has hundreds of its own radio correspondents. These are workers, collective farmers, intelligentsia. Thousands of persons take part in the daily programs.

Local programs are noted for their great variety. They include, first and foremost, news of life in the given republic or area. In big cities and capitals of the Union Republics the local news bulletins are given over the air several times during the course of a day. Republics having a multi-national population give these bulletins in several languages. Local scientists, engineers, teachers and physicians often speak over the air. Much time is given to popularizing the latest achievements of agriculture. These programs naturally concentrate on the principal branches of farming. The main subject in the agricultural programs of the Uzbek SSR is cotton; in Kursk Region, sugar beet; in Smolensk Region, flax. Among the speakers are scientists and noted agronomists as well as collective farmers who have raised large crops.

Local broadcasts also feature literary and dramatic programs. Writers and poets frequently come before the microphone.

Amateur art looms large in local programs. One can often hear Tchaikovsky's music rendered by collective farmers or workers, members of amateur music circles.

Listeners maintain close contact with the local studios which arrange special all-request programs and regularly carry answers to listeners' inquiries.

The content of local programs, as well as of all Soviet broadcasts, is in no way dictated by commercial or advertising interests of various departments, organizations, enterprises or private persons.

The interests of the people are the guiding principle in Soviet radio broadcasting. The extensive development of local broadcasting reflects the striving of the Soviet State to meet the most diverse interests of the people at large.

* See inside back cover for time schedule.

OPERA. E. Yemelyanova (left) announcer, and sound-engineer K. Barskova.

How a Local Union Spends Its Funds

By E. Leonov

SITUATED next to the Krasnaya Oborona factory, one of the largest garment factories in the Soviet capital, is the fine building of the factory club, which is very popular among the garment workers.

Large posters in front of the club announce plays, concerts, and lectures regularly arranged for the factory workers. These cultural and educational undertakings are financed by the factory committee of the garment workers' union from its budget.

Every factory trade union committee has its own funds, accruing from membership dues paid in the amount of one per cent of earnings. The funds are spent by the factory committee in accordance with its approved budget.

A considerable proportion of these funds is allocated for cultural and educational activities among the members.

Many of the factory workers participate in the various amateur art activities of the club, which has a dramatic society and vocal ensemble, brass and string orchestras and a ballet group. These activities are directed by experienced instructors paid from the factory committee's fund.

The club has a library with several thousand volumes, and the committee's budget allocates a fund for the purchase of new books, and for subscriptions to newspapers and magazines available to visitors in the reading hall of the club.

Sports are very popular among the workers, engineers and technicians of the factory, and the activities of the voluntary sports society "The Flame", are likewise financed by the union. The factory committee allocates funds for paying the physical culture instructors, purchasing sports equipment, outfits, etc.

Another item of expenditure in the budget of the factory committee is prizes for the most active trade union functionaries. Among the social insurance agents awarded prizes recently were the operators Kudryashova and Antonova. They regularly visit sick workers, and see to it that they are given all the necessary aid, check up on the payment of benefits from the social insurance fund and assist the personnel of the factory dispensary in carrying through health measures.

Functioning under the auspices of the factory trade union committee is a mutual aid society. It is a voluntary organization. Its basic capital is allocated by the trade union committee, and the rest accrues from regular contributions made by its members. These contributions are repaid to the members upon their withdrawal from the society.

A large item of trade union expenditures is aid to large families and to woman workers whose husbands were killed at the front. This is merely in addition to the large-scale state aid rendered through the Ministry of Social Maintenance and the social insurance system.

A couple of concrete examples will illustrate the aid given to its members by the factory local.

There is, for example, the presser Praskovya Tishchenko. Her husband was killed in the war. She has five children. The widow receives a monthly state pension for the maintenance of her children. But the trade union organization gives her additional aid regularly. Quite recently Tishchenko received a special grant from the trade union committee. Last summer two of her children were sent to a camp and one to a sanatorium near Riga. All the expenses were paid by the union.

Anna Smirnova, an operator, likewise lost her husband in the war. She receives a state allowance for her two children. The trade union committee sent her children to a summer camp and sanatorium last year, and Smirnova herself spent her vacation in a rest home. The social insurance fund which is administered by the trade unions bore the expenses.

UNION CLUB. Library of the magnificent clubhouse of the workers of the Stalin automobile plant.

Progress in Latvia

By S. Altmanis

THE State Planning Commission has published the figures on the fulfillment of the State Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the Latvian SSR in 1947. The figures show that Soviet Latvia last year took a big step on the road towards its postwar rehabilitation and developed according to plan.

Latvian industry last year topped the annual plan of production by 17 per cent. As compared with 1946, total output of industry increased by 49.3 per cent, and as compared with 1945 by 200 per cent. Industrial production surpassed the prewar level by November, 1947.

Productivity of labor in Latvian industry increased by 25.9 per cent as a result of the renovation of equipment, further mechanization and automatization of production processes and the rationalization measures and innovations introduced by Stakhanovites.

While the industry of the Republic, as a whole, exceeded the 1947 plan by 17 per cent, as stated above, the percentage was still higher in some of its branches. The meat and dairy industry, for instance, topped the plan by 20 per cent, the food, and pulp and paper industries by 26.6 per cent.

As compared with 1946, output of electricity, machinery equipment and consumers' goods in Soviet Latvia considerably increased.

The 1947 plan had already been completed by 362 large industrial enterprises in September, October or the first days of November.

Of considerable interest are the figures given by the State Planning Commission regarding the pace of growth of industrial production in Latvia. Thus, the plan for the first quarter of 1947 was topped by 1.3 per cent, the plan for the next quarter by 15.7 per cent, and for the third quarter, by 22.3 per cent. A record output was attained in October 1947 when output exceeded the plan by 40.8 per cent. Such a pace in the growth of production has never been known in Latvia in the whole of its history.

The following are some of the industrial objects built in Latvia last year: a big cement works, a large machine repair factory for the timber industry, a paper mill, a peat briquetting factory with an annual productive capacity of 70 thousand tons of briquettes, and a superphosphate works, second for capacity in the USSR. The third and last turbine of the Nazi-wrecked Kegum hydroelectric power station and the second turbine in the Riga steam-driven power station were rehabilitated and put into operation; the result of this was that Latvia attained the prewar level in the production of electricity by the middle of 1947, and surpassed it by the end of the year.

Last year 447 large apartment houses were built or rehabilitated in the towns of Latvia, and 4,116 houses in the rural areas. Altogether, since the end of the war, 17 thousand Latvian peasants, whose homes had been burnt or demolished by the Germans, have built themselves new houses with the aid of the Soviet Government, which provided them with building materials and granted them long-term loans.

Very considerable successes were also achieved last year by Soviet Latvia in agriculture. The total quantity of grain harvested in 1947 was 45 per cent more than in 1946. The agriculture of the Republic was further replenished last year with hundreds of powerful caterpillar tractors and thousands of other agricultural machines. Besides this, the Soviet Government supplied the peasants with 85 thousand tons of mineral fertilizers. For the purpose of comparison it may be mentioned that in bourgeois Latvia there was a total of only 70 old tractors, and all of them were on a few of the large estates.

The State Planning Commission reports also that the number of manual and mental workers in the national economy of Latvia increased last year by 35 thousand persons, of whom 15 thousand are in industry. Factory apprentice and trades schools last year trained 6,770 skilled workers for Latvian industry.

CANNERY. Food processing in Latvia.

The number of pupils in the schools of the Republic increased last year by 13,396 and now exceeds 290 thousand —50 thousand more than before the war. There is now in Latvia not a single child of school age who is not attending school. The number of students in the higher educational establishments of Latvia increased last year by 1,012 and now exceeds nine thousand—two thousand students more than before the war. In addition, there are now in the Republic 63 specialized high schools and other special secondary educational establishments which are attended by 14 thousand students, exceeding the number in 1946 by 1,166.

Last year, 17 new sanatoriums and five rest homes were opened in Latvia. In all, 54 sanatoriums and 35 rest homes were functioning in the Republic in 1947. More than 70 thousand working people took cures and rest in these institutions at the expense of the state social insurance.

Such are the results of the fulfillment of the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan for Soviet Latvia. They are the fruits of truly heroic efforts of the Latvian people in the rehabilitation of their war-ravaged national economy and culture, efforts directed towards a further improvement of the material well-being and progress of Soviet Latvia.

"The Karelo-Finnish SSR"

By Mikhail Dolgopolov

THE latest in the series of Soviet documentary films dealing with life in the various Soviet Republics is *The Karelo-Finnish SSR*. The previous films in the series, all of them produced in 1947, were devoted to the Soviet Republics of Latvia, Estonia, Kirghizia, the Ukraine, Byelorussia and Tajikistan.

What is now the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic was virtually an undeveloped wilderness in tsarist times. It was only after the Revolution that this area began to develop its industries and timber resources.

The film gives a graphic idea of the enormous devastation caused by the Hitlerite invaders in this Soviet Republic. Traces of the destruction are still in evidence. The invaders reduced 272 enterprises to ruins, burned many towns and villages, wrecked the great White Sea-Baltic Canal, demolished schools, club buildings, theaters. The results of the postwar rehabilitation and further development of the Karelo-Finnish Republic are therefore all the more striking.

The film shows how the people of the Republic are working enthusiastically to rehabilitate their country, to heal the wounds inflicted by the war.

Timber is the main industry of the Karelo-Finnish Republic. The forests here cover an area of almost 25 million acres. The film shows the work going on in the forests—the felling of trees, the floating of timber, the excellent work of thousands of loggers.

The timber of Karelia is needed for the rehabilitation of Soviet towns and villages. It is needed in mines and on construction jobs. Its output is therefore steadily increasing. According to the plan, the Karelo-Finnish Republic will supply in 1950 five times as much timber as it did in 1945.

The paper and pulp industry is also recovering and developing. The spectator sees the excellently equipped paper mills of Kondopoga and Segezh, now completely restored. There is an endless stream of trains hauling huge rolls of paper from the Karelo-Finnish Republic to many cities in other parts of the Soviet Union.

The film shows the White Sea-Baltic Canal. This canal, the longest in the world (141 miles), was restored in 1946. The work was accomplished in record time.

The Karelo-Finnish Republic abounds in lakes, of which there are thousands. There are more than 70 rivers suitable for the floating of timber. Their total length is more than nine thousand miles. Water power is the main source of electricity in the Karelo-Finnish Republic, and the film shows the construction of a new large hydroelectric power plant.

The fish industry, naturally, plays a large part in the economy of the Karelo-Finnish Republic. The film shows the highly mechanized herring and cod fisheries. It also shows the building of new powered fishing boats.

The spectator gets a view of the new life in the villages of the Republic. Formerly, no grain was grown in these parts, owing to the severe northern climate and the poor soil. Today, collective farms, using up-to-date scientific methods, grow wheat and obtain yields as high as 1.8 tons per hectare*.

The film then goes on to show the cultural progress of the Republic. The building of the Karelo-Finnish State University is flashed on the screen, and the announcer tells us that by the end of 1950 the university will have more than 1,500 students. We also learn that by then 1,500 new teachers and more than 2,500 other professionals will be graduated from colleges and vocational high schools in this small Republic. Elementary and middle schools will have an attendance of 95 thousand. The Academy of Sciences of the USSR is opening a branch in the Karelo-Finnish Republic.

The film takes us to a collective farm club where we see a show with actors from the town taking part. On a clearing in a forest the National Kantele Ensemble is rehearsing a new program.

The film, *The Karelo-Finnish SSR*, tells a true story, and tells it well. It is a document showing eloquently how the Soviet system has transformed a once backward region of tsarist Russia.

* One hectare = 8.471 acres.

TIMBER. Lumbering is a principal industry of this Republic.

An Actor Loved by Millions

By G. Lvov

Among the popular Soviet film artists, one of the greatest favorites with the public is Boris Chirkov. This popularity is explained not only by the number of parts he has played but also by the special features of his talent, his ability to embody the characters he plays, characters so widely different as the composer Glinka in the film of that name, the old peasant in *Chapayev*, the village school-master in *The Teacher*, and Ataman Makhno in *Parkhomenko*.

His gift as an actor was particularly striking in the trilogy about the revolutionary worker, Maxim, a film made before the war. The author has succeeded in drawing the more typical traits of a hero of our own day, one of the Russians who fought with supreme devotion for the Revolution, which he helped to prepare and carry out. The actor is inseparable from the character in this film; when people point him out, they say "There's Maxim!" and he often receives letters asking about this hero's life.

Chirkov's acting is distinguished by simplicity, a subtle simplicity. He is not one of those actors who take only leading roles. He may often be seen in a small part, an episode, but the acting is always memorable.

"I like playing people of different epochs, ages, and social position," Chirkov said. "I would like the public to see me anew, as it were, in each film. Variety in the parts I play prevents my repeating myself and getting into a rut. At the same time it confronts me with new and more complex tasks. In this respect my recent study of the role of the great Mikhail Glinka was particularly difficult, though this made it all the more interesting. Here everything was new and unexplored, and therefore I found it especially engrossing, just as at one time, I found Maxim wholly engrossing."

Boris Chirkov returned not long ago from a visit to Czechoslovakia. He speaks with sincere affection of the people of that country, who are building a new life for themselves, of the love and gratitude they feel and demonstrate for the Soviet Union, of the invariable success of Soviet films shown in Prague and other cities. The actor also saw Hollywood, French and other films.

"MAXIM." Boris Chirkov (third from left) as "Maxim" in the film "Vyborg District."

"It is hard for a healthy, sane person to look at them," he said. "They are so full of abominable perversions, pathology, and horrors heaped upon horrors. Hollywood takes the palm in this respect of course, but the French are nearly as bad. For example in *L'Eternel Retour*, love is cheapened in a repulsive way. The impression is the same as from contemporary Western painting."

Not long ago Boris Chirkov finished work on a new color film, *Brave Sails* by the producer A. Ptushko. The subject is the postwar Five-Year Plan. The Soviet people in it are an engineer, a chairman of a collective farm, a woman scientist. It shows the country in the scaffolding of immense building operations. Chirkov plays the part of Samoseyev, chairman of the collective farm, who, after fighting at the front, returned home to work.

"New roles and new work are ahead of me," Chirkov said. "One thing I want to do is a film I thought of some time ago and intend to produce, about the average man, one of the millions who have been given a good start in life by the Soviet system."

Boris Chirkov is also known as a superb diseur. This year he thinks of renewing his work on the stage; at the Film Actors' Theater he is giving readings from Alexander Tvardovsky's long poem *Vassili Tyerkin*. This will be an original compositional arrangement with the one actor.

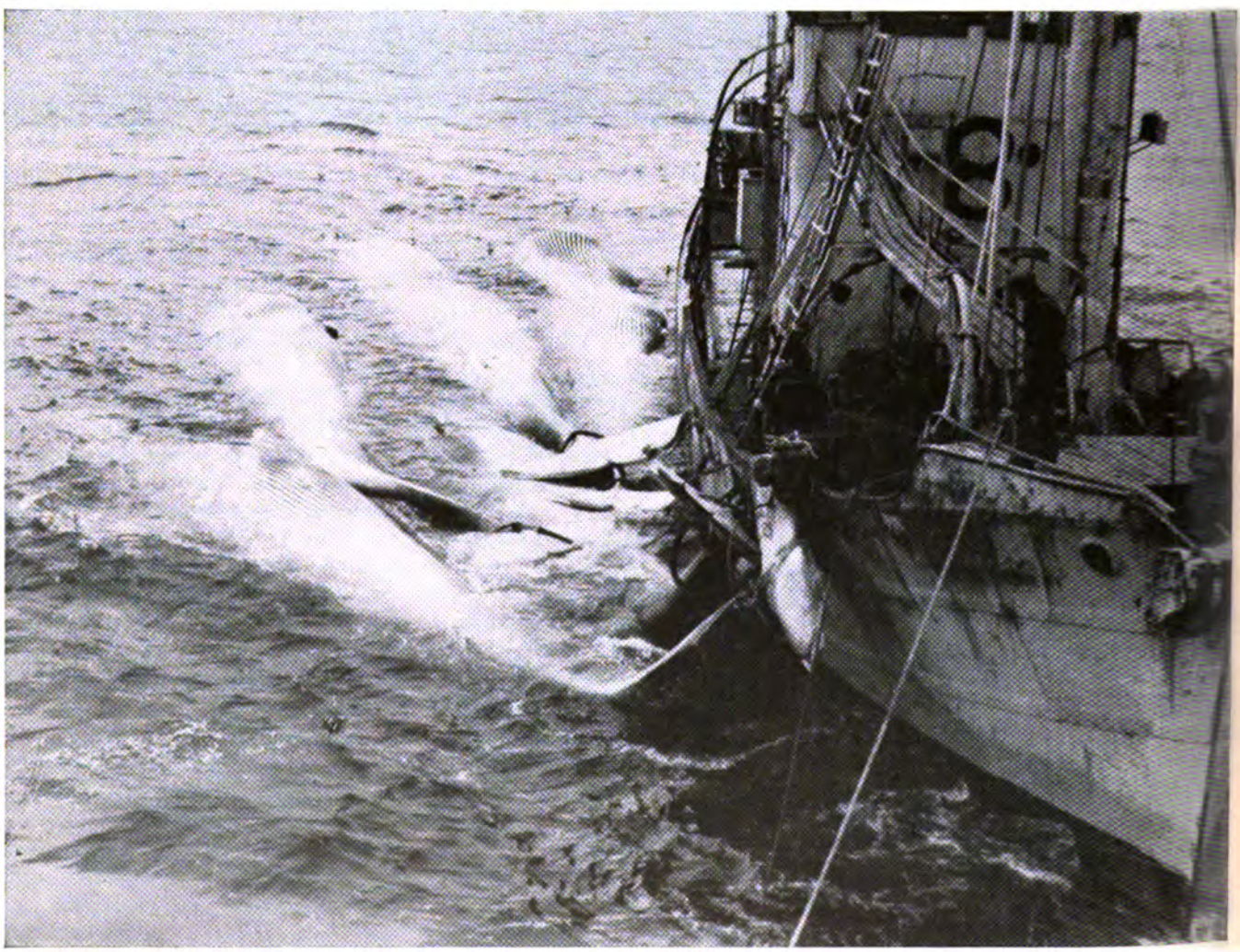
The film actor's study is lined with books. He is a passionate collector. There are sets of standard authors, classics, contemporary literature and rare editions—all of the utmost value in the creative work of the Soviet actor, which demands a high level of culture and wide knowledge. The paintings in this study are excellent. He likes true realism in paintings; truth in art is the principle to which all this actor's work is subordinated.

The Cruise of the "Slava"

THE "Slava", a huge whaling flotilla base ship, with its smaller whaling and supply ships of the flotilla, has ended its whale-hunt in the Antarctic as of April 1, and is proceeding to its base at Odessa, where it will arrive at the end of May. At Odessa, there are factories for the processing of whale products. Whale oil is used for the production of solid edible fats; the meat produces meal for cattle feed. Other parts of the whale produce vitamin A and medical ingredients, as well as ingredients used in perfume manufacture.

On these pages are pictures of the capture of the whales, and of the life of the crew on the expedition, which lasted for months.

PROCESSING. A whale is skinned after the kill.

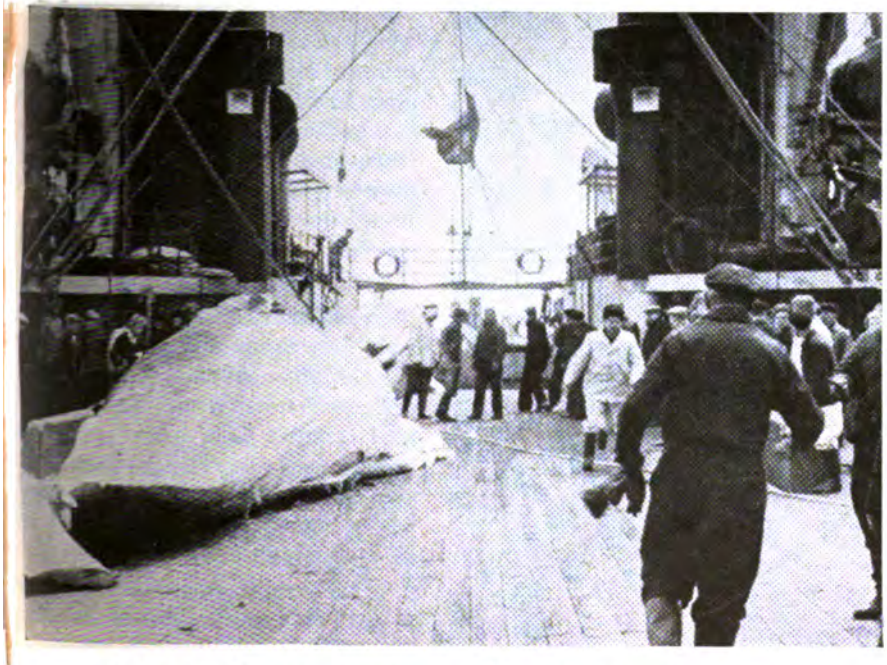


DAY'S CATCH. A small whaling vessel tows five whales to the base ship, the "Slava."

HOISTING ABOARD. The body of the whale goes aboard the big ship.

HELMSMAN. J. Tifanov takes a bearing.

"NEPTUNE." Crossing the Equator.



ON DECK. The crew prepares to skin and store the whales.

SMALL GAME. Hunting provides sport.

Army and Navy Theaters

By Mikhail Dolgopolov

THERE are about twenty theaters of the Soviet Army and Navy in the Soviet Union. They concentrate their attention in the main on plays dealing with the history of the armed forces, and the life of servicemen.

The plays staged are not all of this type, however. The best of the Russian and foreign classics, Ostrovsky, Gorky, Griboyedov, Gogol, Shakespeare, Schiller, Goldoni and Lope de Vega are shown.

A special place among the theaters of the services is taken by the Central Soviet Army Theater, founded nearly twenty years ago in 1929.

Not long before the war the Soviet people presented their Army with a palatial theater. The plan of the building is a five-pointed star. It stands in a large square in the capital. The size of its stage may be judged by the fact that 1,500 actors, cavalry, and motor vehicles can be accommodated on it at one time. The high degree of mechanization and equipment provides the widest possible scope for the producers and designers. The seats—1,900—are arranged in the form of an amphitheater.

Alexei Popov, Stalin Prizewinner, People's Artist of the Russian SFSR, one of the leading Soviet producers, is the art director of the Central Soviet Army Theater.

The whole history of the theater is illustrative of its ability to find the right approach to its audience. The memorable pictures it has created of the heroic exploits of Soviet soldiers and officers, the plays that show their devotion to their country, their will to victory, awaken a lively response in the audience. During the war a play by Captain Yuri Chepurin, who took part in the Stalingrad battles, was shown. The characters were Stalingrad's defenders; the subject was the battles for that city.

ARMY THEATER. The Central Soviet Army Theater in Moscow.

Particularly vivid and convincing on this stage are the great military leaders of the past, for example, Suvorov and Kutuzov in the plays bearing their names. The theater won the Stalin Prize for its presentation of the romantic *Long, Long Ago,* based on the feats of Sura Azarova, a brave Russian girl who joined the partisans during the Napoleonic invasion of 1812.

Recently this theater produced *The Southern Front,* by the playwright Arkady Perventsev. He has ably illustrated the genius of Stalin's strategy and tactics, using the example of military operations in the Crimea.

The theater is rehearsing a new play, *The Last Defense Lines* by Yuri Chepurin. In this play the heroes of Stalingrad meet on the last day of the war.

Soviet Army theaters similar to that of the capital are open in Tashkent, Odessa, Rostov and other cities. The Red Banner Baltic Fleet Theater is widely known. The acting at these theaters of the services is on a very high level, and the number of actors in their companies is being constantly augmented by young people from the theater schools and studios and also from among the more outstanding members of army and navy amateur theatrical circles.

In addition to the permanent Army and Navy theaters in the USSR, there are travelling ensembles that tour the military areas. The Soviet Army Musical Theater is a great favorite. It stages the best classical operas, and gives symphony concerts of the works of Soviet composers. The settings are on a very high artistic level.

All the touring ensembles travelled to military areas for the entertainment of the Army and Navy during the recent Army anniversary celebrations.

Alexander Ostrovsky, Russian Playwright

By Leonid Timofeyev

Professor of the Moscow State University, Member of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the Russian SFSR

APRIL 12 marked the 125th anniversary of the birth of the great Russian playwright Alexander Ostrovsky, whose works are one of the greatest manifestations of Russian culture and have played an enormous role in the development of this culture.

The influence of Ostrovsky's works is apparent in many ways in the development of the whole of Russian dramaturgy, including the plays of Gorky and of the playwrights of our day. A wonderful school of actors developed around Ostrovsky's works. Some of the greatest Russian actors and actresses, such as Sadovsky, Martynov, Fedotova, Yermolova, Savina, Komissarzhevskaya played his characters. The great Russian writer Goncharov was profoundly correct when he wrote to Ostrovsky in 1882: ". . . we Russians can say with pride that we have our own Russian national theater. In justice, it should be named the Ostrovsky theater."

The art of Alexander Ostrovsky is a new, original expression of Russian art and world dramaturgy.

However, the writer's originality was by no means the result of national narrow-mindedness, of isolation from world culture.

Ostrovsky was a remarkable master of style. He had a splendid grasp of the most varied shades of the Russian language; merchant and intellectual, official and actor, landlord and businessman, peasant and bourgeois—each one in an Ostrovsky play speaks his own, colloquial tongue.

A remarkable connoisseur of Russian folk art, Ostrovsky composed the wonderful dramatic fairy tale *Snow Maiden*. Rimsky-Korsakov, the famous composer, based his finest opera on this fairy tale.

The truly popular nature of Ostrovsky's works is determined by his close ties with the life of the people. "In order to be a writer of the people," he said, "it is not enough to love the homeland . . . it is necessary also to know your people well, to be near and intimate with them."

He particularly valued the drama because it opens broad opportunities before the writer for influencing the masses of the people. "Dramatic poetry," he wrote, "is nearer to the people than all other branches of literature. Dramas and comedies are written for the whole people."

His favorite thought was that the work of the theater is, first and foremost, patriotic work. Championing the necessity for the creation of a Russian theater in Moscow, he wrote:

"A Russian theater in Moscow is an important and patriotic matter. Historical dramas and chronicles develop the consciousness of the people and imbue them with a conscious love of their homeland . . . a national theater inspires the patriotism of the people."

The high, patriotic fervor underlying Ostrovsky's works is determined by the fact that his works raise questions of universal importance, that he reflected the social contradictions of the day with that profound artistic truth which answered to the aspirations of the people, fighting for their liberation. The form of his works was exceptionally popular, and made them accessible to the widest circles of theatergoers and readers.

In a letter written in 1886, Leo Tolstoy gave an exceedingly exact appraisal of this basic content of Ostrovsky's works:

"I know by experience how the people read, listen to and memorize your works, and therefore I would like to help you to become, as soon as possible, that which you really are—undoubtedly a writer of the people in the widest sense of the word."

With tremendous indignation Ostrovsky attacked all that which was humiliating and oppressing man in tsarist Russia. That is why in the gallery of characters created by Ostrovsky a great place is taken by the various predatory types great and small, common to that period—the Dikies, Kabanikhas, Kuroslepovs, Murzavetskys, Puzatovs, Podkhalyuzins.

However, the predatory, stubborn and stupid characters in Ostrovsky's plays are contrasted to characters of true Russian people with warm hearts, honest souls, firm will and moral stamina. The playwright drew these characteristics with particular strength in his characters of Russian women. The great Russian critic Dobrolyubov correctly pointed out that the character of Dasha in Ostrovsky's *Poor Bride* is possessed of exceptional "strength of conscious resolution."

Varying widely in character, his women are similar in their inner nobility, in the daring with which they enter into an uneven struggle with their environment and conquer it even while they perish.

Together with Neschastlivtsev (*The Forest*), Kulijin (*The Storm*), Meluzov (*Talents and Admirers*) these characters reveal to us the chief content of Ostrovsky's works, full of faith in the strength of Russia, in her better future.

A high humanist content, an accusing fervor, faith in the future of Russia and in the strength and talent of the Russian people—such are the characteristic features of Ostrovsky's works, which closely bind him to the democratic writers.

In his life-asserting optimism lies the basis of the great popularity which Ostrovsky enjoys with Soviet theatergoers. He wrote more than 50 plays. The majority of these, even today, are constantly played on the stages of hundreds of professional theaters and by many thousands of amateur companies.

The best Soviet playwrights have acquired much from Ostrovsky. The traditions of stage art based on Ostrovsky's dramaturgy have been preserved particularly fully on the stage of the State Academic Maly Theater, with which Ostrovsky was closely connected in his time.

The formation in the USSR of a special jubilee committee, including prominent figures in science and art, in order to mark Ostrovsky's 125th birth anniversary throughout the Soviet Union, manifested the love and respect of the Soviet people for Ostrovsky.

Circus in the Soviet Union

THE circus, one of the oldest forms of theatrical spectacle and one loved the world over, is greatly liked in the Soviet Union, where, like other forms of theatrical art, it is subsidized and encouraged by the State.

During the course of the past 29 years, 30 new circuses have been established in the USSR. Almost every large city has a permanent circus building, where performances are given throughout the year.

In addition, the people of smaller cities and villages see the circus too, for troupes of circus performers make frequent tours of the more remote districts. More than 11 million persons attended circus performances in the USSR during 1947.

The tours are arranged by the State Administration of Circuses, which arranges all details and provides the costumes, paraphernalia, etc.

There is nothing haphazard about the training of circus performers. Like other theatrical enterprises, the principal circuses—those of Moscow and Leningrad—maintain schools where talented youngsters are trained. There is also a special central school in Moscow. Pupils in these schools and studios receive an allowance from the State while in training, and upon graduation, funds are placed at their disposal to finance the creation of original numbers.

Working conditions for performers are good. Every employee of the state circus receives a definite salary, and is never unemployed. He need not seek impresarios, conclude fettering contracts, or pay for the preparation of his act or its traveling expenses.

The circus is regarded as a legitimate theatrical enterprise, and distinguished performers have been decorated with Orders and medals of the USSR. Leading circus artists are awarded the titles of People's Artist or Honored Artist, titles also given to distinguished actors.

Among the new acts at the Moscow Circus this season is one which has attracted much attention. For it, People's Artist Boris Eder, an animal trainer who has applied novel methods to his work, has, together with his wife Tamara, taught a group of young bears to walk the tight-rope and to perform gymnastic feats on the rope at a height of 65 feet.

Another leading expert of the Moscow circus, who as always is a favorite this season, is Nikolai Nikitin, who works with trained horses, and who comes of an old and famous Russian circus family.

BEARS. Eder's popular tight-rope performers.

Notes on Soviet Life

New successes have been reported in the fulfillment of the economic plan for the first two months of the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan; overfulfillment has been registered by a number of important branches of industry, including coal, oil, iron and steel, and also in the production of electrical energy, the extraction of natural gas, and the production of building materials.

No less marked are the results in industries manufacturing consumer goods. The textile mills of the Soviet Union have fulfilled the two months' plan 103 per cent, thus exceeding by 34 per cent the output for the same period of last year.

Moscow and Moscow Region, an important industrial area of the country, have considerably exceeded the two-month output plan.

★

Due to the early spring this year, collective farms have begun field work at a much earlier date than usual. In Azerbaijan, for instance, in the first half of March more than twice the area planted to grain crops by the same date last year had been sown. In the Georgian Republic many collective farms began sowing early in February. Spring planting also began much earlier in Armenia, Tajikistan and Turkmenia. By March 10 the collective farms of the country had planted nearly 1,500,000 acres to spring wheat.

★

One and one-half million vacationers will this year be accommodated at sanatoriums of the Soviet Union. The Government has allocated huge sums for the building of new sanatoriums and for the further restoration and expansion of resorts destroyed during the war. In the Ukraine, for instance, 13 new sanatoriums will be opened. Big projects have been launched for the reconstruction of facilities for taking mineral waters at the famed Sochi-Matsesta spa on the Black Sea coast.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR is building an astrophysical observatory on the mountain plateau in the district of Bakhchisarai, in the Crimea. Going up at present are two towers; one will have a 50-inch reflector telescope and the other a 16-inch double astrograph. Simultaneously, residential quarters for the observatory workers, and a hotel for members of scientific expeditions are being built. Work on the main buildings of the observatory will be completed this year. A road is being laid to connect the plateau with the station of Alma.

★

A new model of a universal electric tractor for use in cotton cultivation has been designed at the Tashkent Central Station in Uzbekistan, leading cotton-growing Republic of the USSR. This electric tractor has successfully passed the tests in plowing, harrowing, sowing and cultivating cotton fields. Its productivity is higher than that of the ordinary tractor and the cost of its operation cheaper.

★

The USSR has 975 museums, 4,285 Houses of Culture and nearly 105 thousand clubs, rural reading rooms and recreation rooms functioning at industrial enterprises and offices.

Aid to war invalids and families of servicemen has taken on colossal scope. Aid and pensions paid out last year in the Russian Federation alone (under the All-Union Republican and local budgets) amounted to nearly 15,000 million rubles. State aid has also been extended in the form of tax exemptions, reduced rent rates, and other privileges.

All able-bodied members of families of servicemen killed in the war are ensured a permanent income. Invalids whose work capacity has been restored have been placed in suitable employment. Nearly all invalids of the third category are employed in factories and offices, and they receive a steady wage in addition to their pensions. Many invalids of the first and second categories have also acquired trades and have learned work suitable to the condition of their health.

★

The Government of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic is rendering tremendous aid to war invalids. In addition to state pensions and grants, invalids have received long-term credits amounting to 80 million rubles for housing construction. Some four thousand disabled veterans have received expert instruction in new trades.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

April 16-April 25

(Note New Frequencies)

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from April 16 to 25 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Culture and Art—Fridays, April 16 and 23, and Wednesday, April 21.

Weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners—Saturdays, April 17 and 24.

Concerts—Sundays, April 18 and 25.

Soviet trade unions—Monday, April 19.

Health Protection—Tuesday, April 20.

Program for youth — Thursday, April 22.

Economic affairs—Sunday, April 25.

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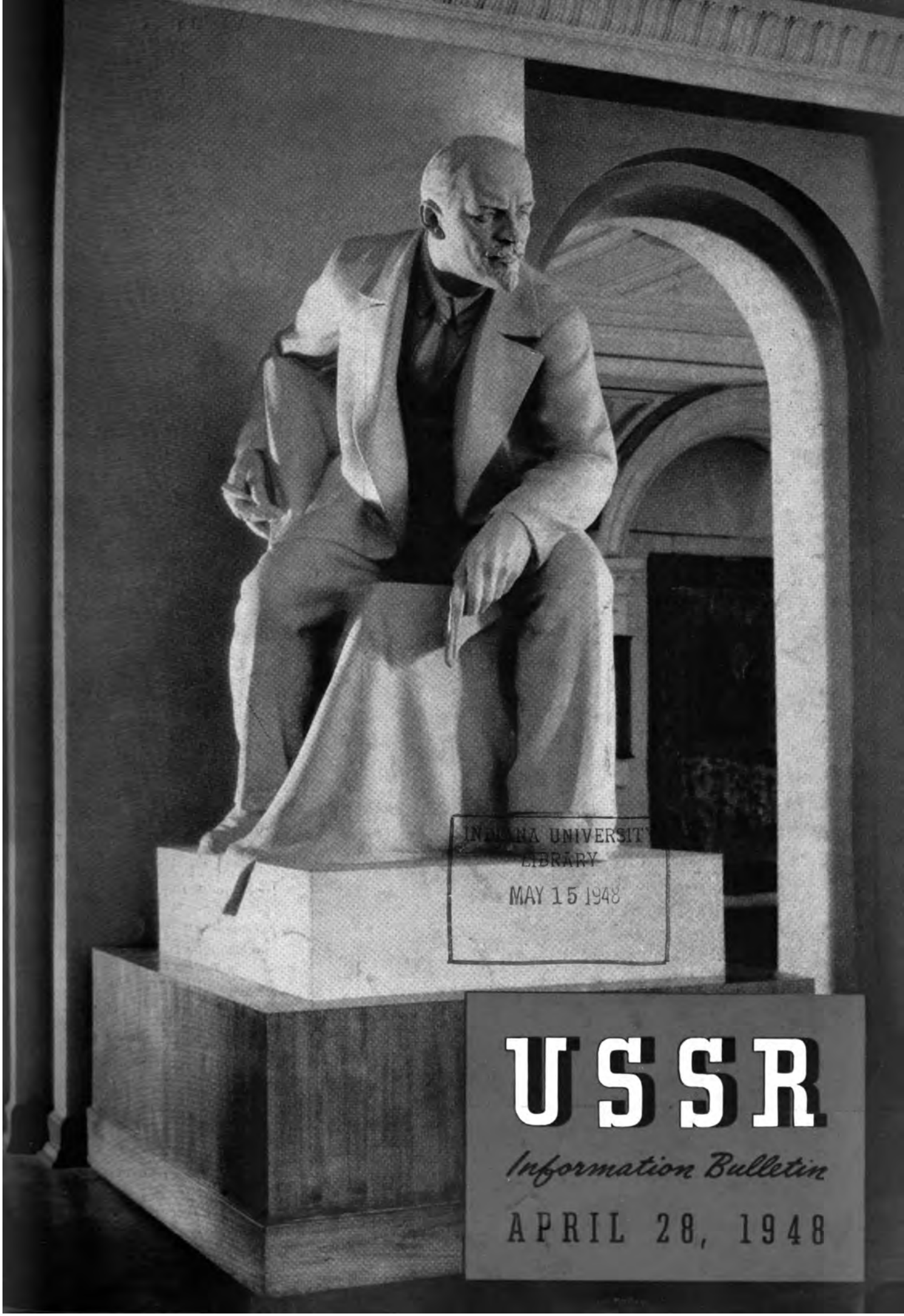

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STEEL PLANT. Restoring the Zaporazhstal plant. FRONT COVER. Statue of V. I. Lenin, by S. Merkulov. Lenin's birth anniversary was April 22. BACK COVER. The Winter Palace in Leningrad, during the Revolution the last stronghold of the bourgeois government, through the arches of the General Staff Headquarters.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.2 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Informatio Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

IN HIS STUDY. Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, photographed in 1918.

Lenin—One of the World's Greatest Scientists

By Professor Fyodor Konstantinov

VLADIMIR LENIN, the 78th anniversary of whose birth was celebrated April 22, is one of those great men who, after they have died, still continue to live amongst us as our contemporaries, who hold sway over the minds of hundreds of millions and exert a tremendous influence on the course of world history, on the development of science and social thought.

In Leninism, the immortal theory which he evolved, Lenin provided the answers to those questions which had been raised by history, social life and the course of development taken by science.

In our times all roads lead to communism. There is no power in the world that can prevent the death of capitalism, the growth of the indignation and struggle of the working people against the reactionary bourgeoisie, that can prevent the triumph of the new over the old, of socialism over capitalism. This is what Leninism, the Marxism of our epoch, teaches us.

Lenin's greatness as a new type of leader was due to the fact that he effected a happy combination of the colossal organizational experience of the working class movement, the experience of the working people in struggle in general, with theoretical power, the invincible strength that comes from a prevision of the course of events and of the behavior of classes and political parties. Lenin and Stalin are the founders of the Communist Party, the founders of the Soviet State, men of genius who continued to develop the theory of Marx in all its aspects.

Lenin was and remains a great thinker, a philosopher.

Friedrich Engels, one of the founders of Marxism, said that materialism, as a philosophical theory, will have to adopt a new form, a new shape with every new epoch-making discovery in the sphere of natural science and, since the materialist conception of history was evolved, also with every great discovery in the field of history.

After the death of Engels—he was one of the most erudite men in the field of natural science in his time—there has been a whole revolution in natural science, especially in physics, a revolution connected with the discovery of radio-activity, the electron, etc. In his *Materialism and Empirio-Criticism,* the great Lenin gave us a philosophical summary of the latest discoveries in natural science.

Lenin subjected to scathing criticism the new forms of idealism, and the idealistic waverings, the agnosticism of that school of physicists which was unable to draw correct theoretical conclusions from the discovery that matter exists in new forms, that there are new forms of the movement of matter and new physical laws.

Lenin analyzed the new discoveries in natural science, especially in physics, and drew the conclusion that the new physics and its discoveries not only did not refute but completely confirmed dialectical materialism.

Lenin wrote that in contradistinction to metaphysical, crudely vulgar materialism and also to the vulgarity of philosophical idealism with its theory of the limitation of knowledge, dialectical materialism teaches that the world

is infinite, not only in time and space but also in the multiplicity of its forms of movement. The atom and the electron are inexhaustible.

Accordingly, our capacity for knowledge is infinite, all-powerful, mighty. Lenin wrote about a living, fruitful, true, mighty, all-powerful, objective and absolute human capacity for knowledge. The limits of knowledge are determined by history but are not absolute. They expand with the progressive development of mankind. In our epoch, he wrote, the great hindrance to development is capitalism, the reaction of the bourgeoisie which fetters the development of science and poisons the mind with the venom of mysticism and obscurantism.

The strength and the greatness of Lenin in all fields of science and in philosophy lie in the fact that he regarded science and philosophy as an historical motive force, as the banner of struggle for the millions. To Lenin, philosophy was a partisan science.

Lenin was not only a philosopher, he was also a most outstanding economist. He was the author of a classic work on the agrarian question, *The Development of Capitalism in Russia,* (this is a concretization and development of the economic laws discovered by Marx), of *Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism,* and others.

These works of Lenin are of exceptional significance for the development of Marxist political economy and for the development of the theory of the proletarian revolution. Basing his writings on Marx's *Capital,* Lenin proved that the development of capitalism had led to the merging of industrial and bank capital, to the formation of finance capital. Further: the law of the concentration and centralization of capital in the epoch of imperialism led to the supremacy of the big monopolies, to the transition from the old industrial capitalism to imperialism.

Imperialism is decaying capitalism, the eve of socialism, wrote Lenin. In the period of imperialism, the law of the unequal economic development of capitalism acquires decisive importance, the law that leads to armed conflicts, to wars for the re-division of an already divided world.

In the epoch of imperialism, all the contradictions of capitalism, he pointed out, become more acute—the contradiction between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie, between the capitalist countries, between the capitalist metropolis and the colonies.

The ascending curve of capitalism is changed for a descending curve and reaction comes to the fore in all fields—economic, ideological and cultural.

Every new step in the development of the productive forces in the epoch of imperialism, Lenin showed, is accompanied by the colossal destruction of productive forces already in existence. Imperialism, world reaction, constitute a threat to the existence of civilization and world culture.

Two world wars, fascism, the growth of reaction in the USA, Britain and other countries, have completely confirmed Lenin's prognostication.

The forces of progress of socialism and communism, headed by the working class, are consolidating and growing irresistibly in opposition to the forces of reaction.

On the basis of the laws of monopoly capitalism that had been discovered, in particular on the basis of an analysis of the law of the unequal development of capitalism, Lenin and Stalin created a new theory of the proletarian revolution, the theory of the possible victory of socialism in one country. With this theory as the starting point, the Great October Socialist Revolution was effected in Russia, socialism became victorious in the USSR.

Enemies of Leninism in Russia and abroad, all those opportunists, a la Kautsky, Blum, Renner, spoke of the abnormality of the October Socialist Revolution. The great Lenin and his comrade-in-arms Stalin, were fearless revolutionary innovators in both science and politics.

They cast aside the Second International's outworn dogmas as to the conditions under which the transition from capitalism to socialism can be effected. On the basis of the Marxist theory, which they were constantly developing and enriching, they showed millions of people the correct and reliable path to socialism. And the Soviet people, under the leadership of the Communist Party headed by Lenin and Stalin, achieved a victory of world historical importance: they overthrew capitalism and the bourgeoisie and set up a socialist society, a society in which the people themselves are the master and determine the fate of their country.

Practical experience is the only reliable criterion of truth. Practical experience has completely confirmed the correctness of Leninism. The practice of the right-wing socialists, the traitors to the working class, in Germany, Britain, America, Austria, France, Italy and other countries, has always doomed the working class to defeat, to fresh suffering, to slavery, stagnation and subordination to the bourgeoisie.

Leninism alone shows the true path to victory. The greatness of Lenin and Stalin in science is due to the fact that they showed that while taking into account the general laws governing the development of society, it must always be remembered that within this general framework, there are specific features in the development of the separate countries, specific forms of revolutionary transition from capitalism to socialism.

Criticizing socialists of the Kautsky, Blum and Attlee type, Lenin said in his article *On our Revolution*:

"There is no doubt that the manual written after Kautsky was, for its time, a useful thing. Nevertheless, it is already time to get rid of the idea that this manual took in all the forms of the further development of world history. It is timely to declare that all who think so are mere fools."

The victory of the new people's democracy in Czechoslavakia, Poland, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Romania and Albania shows the truth of Leninism in this field also. The right-wing socialists, together with the reactionary bourgeoisie, are now screaming that these countries have established states of a type unlike Britain and the USA, that they do not follow the Anglo-Saxon pattern. Does not practice, however, tell us that the economic, social and political system of the Anglo-Saxon countries is a capitalist system, that it must inevitably lead to new wars, to the increase of reaction, to the growth of the poverty and suffering of the masses? Are not these countries dominated by a handful of the magnates of capital? Do not the Governments of Truman and Marshall, Attlee and Bevin support the fascist regimes in Spain, Greece, China and other countries?

Is it not a fact that American and British capitalism and the policy pur-

sued by Trumans and Bevins lead to the suppression of the liberty and national independence of the peoples?

The great Lenin taught us not to be taken in by flowery words about democracy and liberty but to see what is behind them. The democracy that rules in the USA and Great Britain is bourgeois democracy, a democracy in which the determining force is a handful of financial magnates, the owners of banks, factories and mills. They are the real force that makes and directs the policy of their Governments. Lenin taught that we must judge the policy of a government by its deeds and not by its words and declarations. The program announcements, the election platforms of the Labour Party, for example, said one thing, but the actions of the Labour Government are quite different and do not in any way differ from those of the Churchill Government. It is not for nothing that Churchill so frequently pats Bevin approvingly on the back. Lenin taught that we must pull off the bourgeoisie all the masks they may try to wear.

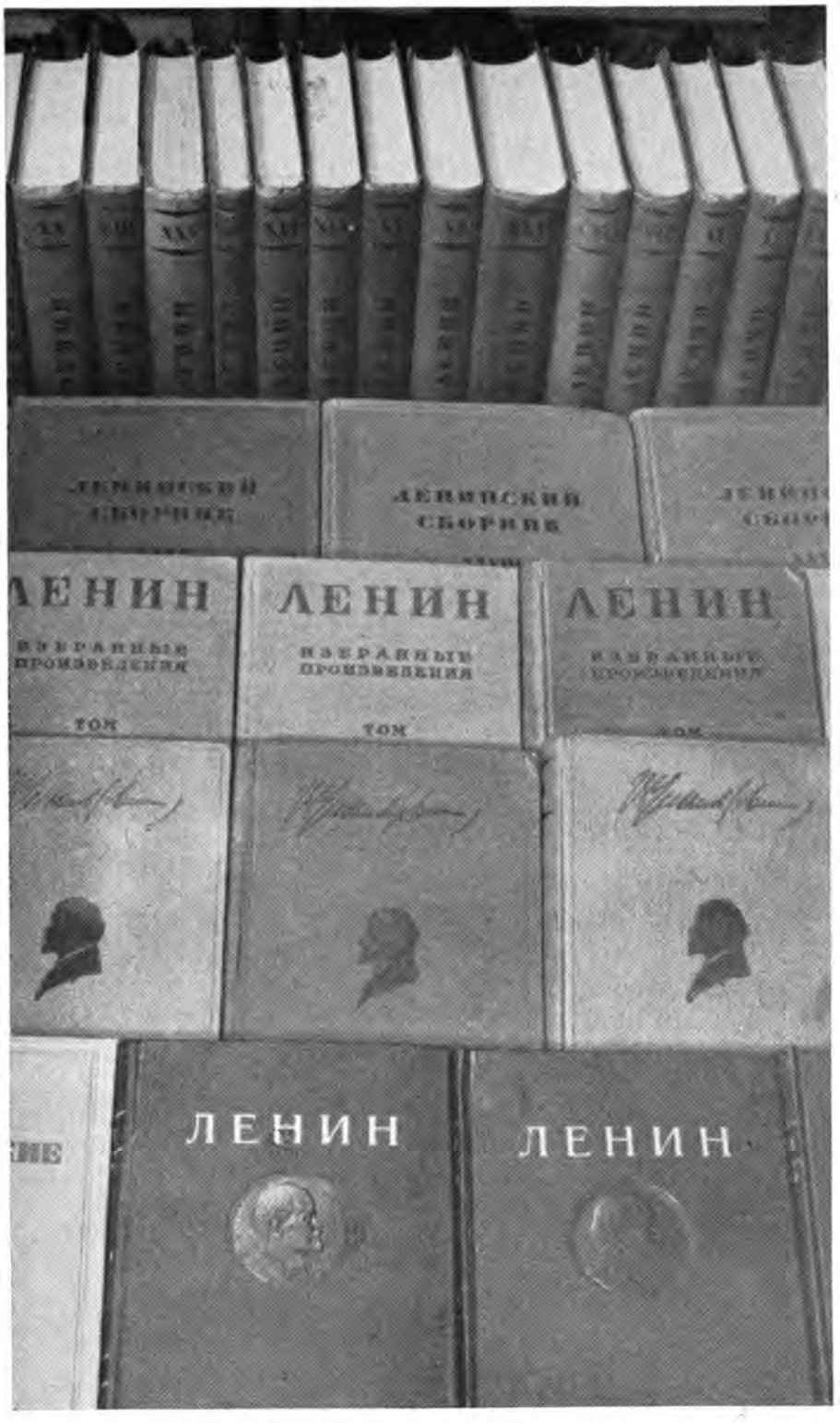
The peoples of southeastern and eastern Europe have had hard and bitter experience of the nature and value of bourgeois democracy, have now established new forms of democracy, are breaking new roads to socialism and pursuing a ruthless struggle against reaction.

The course taken by the development of society is constantly providing fresh proof of the correctness of Lenin's theory of the collapse of capitalism, of the inevitability of an increasing struggle of the forces of progress headed by the working class and the Marxist parties against capitalist reaction, against the foundations of capitalism.

Lenin, as a great scientist, not only effected a further development of Marxist philosophy, dialectical materialism and political economy, he created a new theory of the proletarian revolution. His genius enriched the theory of the state, historical science and the study of literature and art. Everywhere, in all branches of learning in which Lenin took an interest, he left the indelible mark of his immortal genius.

Since Lenin's death his great comrade-in-arms and the continuator of his work, Joseph Stalin, has developed the theories of Marxism-Leninism in all directions, enriching them with new generalizations based on the gigantic experience of socialist construction in the USSR and the experience of the present-day world working class movement.

The theory of Marxism-Leninism is like a beacon light showing the way for the peoples of the USSR in the building of a new socialist society. Leninism is a guiding star for all progressive humanity, for all those fighting for peace, for people's democracy, for the liberty and independence of the peoples, for communism, for a bright and happy life on earth.



WORKS. A display of Lenin's writings, which have been read by millions and profoundly influenced the course of history.

CHILDHOOD. Lenin as a child.

FAMILY PORTRAIT. The Ulyanov family. Front row, right, is Vladimir Ulyanov (Lenin).

Pictures of Lenin

WITH THE WORKERS. Lenin speaks to the workers of Ivanovo-Voznesensk, leaving for the front. Painting by F. Modorov.

SPEAKING. P. Vasiliev's drawing of Lenin as he offered his famous resolution before the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party, calling for armed uprising.

LENIN MUSEUM. School children and their teacher view portraits and statues of the founder of their State.

Memories of Lenin

From Articles by Nikolai Yushkevich* and Ilya Vostryshev

**Vice-Curator of the Central Lenin Museum*

THE life of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, is depicted in the permanent exhibits of the great Central Lenin Museum in Moscow, and in those of smaller museums of great interest which have been set up in the various places throughout the Soviet Union where Lenin lived.

The Central Lenin Museum, established on Stalin's initiative and opened on May 15, 1936, is a wonderful monument to Lenin, and it is also a scientific research institute. Here the ideas of the founder of the Soviet State are preserved and propagated; and here students have an opportunity to make profound studies of Lenin's life and thought, with the aid of original manuscripts and documents.

The tremendous love which the Soviet people feel for Lenin, and the great interest which laymen as well as scholars show in the material preserved at the museum, reflect their pride in their socialist country and their appreciation of Lenin's role in history, as well as of the great part played in world thought by Leninism.

The museum, the displays of which include 80 thousand items connected with Lenin's life and work, has arranged the exhibits in chronological order to give a magnificent, living picture of Lenin. His life may be followed year by year, from the childhood days of young Vladimir Ulyanov to the days of the mature statesman.

The unwavering struggle waged by Lenin and his colleague and successor, Stalin, against the numerous enemies of the Revolution and of the people is seen in the exhibits with full force. Here one gets a sense of the continuing battle waged against reaction in its widely varying forms, and of the constant reliance of the leaders of the Soviet people upon those people, their profound ties with the working masses.

Collected in the museum are many documents describing Lenin's role in the days of the October Revolution. The visitor sees how Lenin led the October uprising, how confidently he took upon himself the administration of an enormous state under conditions of struggle against foreign armed intervention and internal reaction; how Stalin, the great contemporary leader and Lenin's finest follower, led the defense of the young republic on the vital fighting sectors.

Manuscripts and first editions of Lenin's writings, copies of revolutionary journals and newspapers which he edited, are of much interest to spectators.

Here is the resolution calling for armed uprising, written by Lenin on two small pages torn from a writing pad and adopted by a meeting of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party on October 10, 1917. All eyes are drawn toward the manuscript of a leaflet addressed *To the Citizens of Russia*. This leaflet proclaimed the vic-

tory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, and was written on October 25, 1917.

The material which characterizes the collaboration of Lenin and Stalin is impressive. There are many documents in the museum which they edited or wrote jointly. Prominent among these are the historic resolution on the national question (defining the rights and status of various nationalities in the multi-national state), which they wrote together, and also the *Draft Declaration of the Rights of the Toiling and Exploited People,* which they drew up jointly.

So closely is the life of Lenin linked with that of the State he founded that the museum displays also illustrate the history of the Soviet Union.

Diagrams and maps show vividly how the great socialist republic came into being and developed. In the showcases lie decrees drawn up by Lenin treating the questions of the ownership of the land, of peace, on the nationalization of banks, factories, railways.

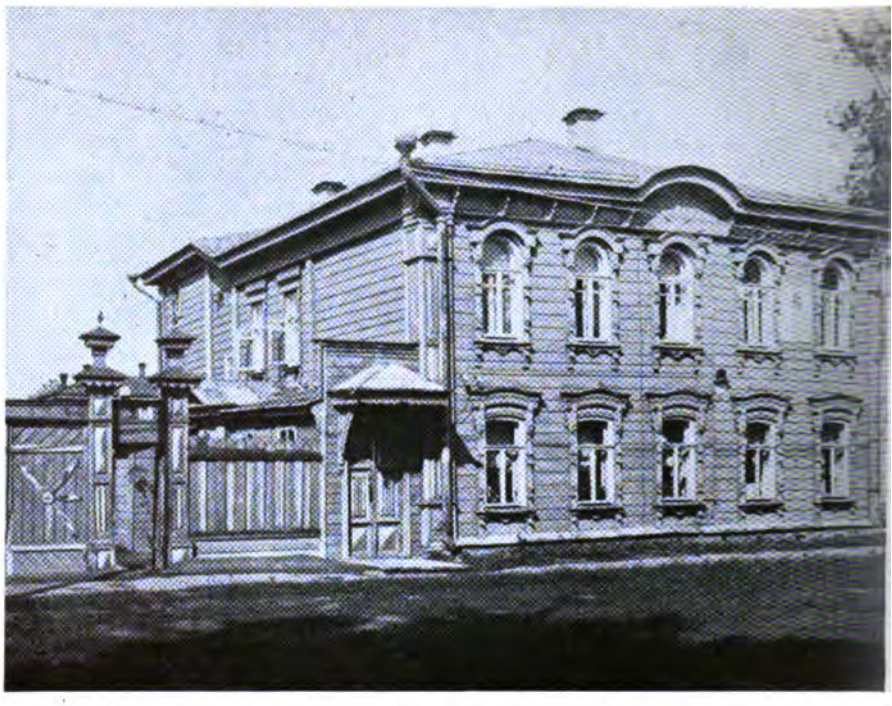
There is a revolving globe in one of the halls which has tiny red bulbs which light to indicate the places throughout the world where Lenin's writings have been published. There are 209 such points in the USSR and 237 in foreign countries.

Visitors to the museum always spend a long time examining Lenin's personal effects. There are an overcoat, a hat, boots, a watch, and the pen with which the first decrees of Soviet power were signed.

The rooms and repositories of the Museum which house collections of paintings and sculpture dealing with Lenin's life also include many examples of folk art on this subject.

A number of drawings from life, are shown including the series of 154 studies in pencil by the sculptor Andreyev for his sculptured figure of Lenin. The sketches show characteristic poses and facial expressions which were peculiarly Lenin's.

Almost a million persons visited the museum during its first ten years of existence. The visitors come from all walks of life, from all parts of the vast country and from abroad, and range from school children learning the history of their country to those who can well remember the events of Lenin's life.



BIRTHPLACE. In this house, Lenin was born. It is now a museum.

Among the smaller museums elsewhere which trace the course of Lenin's life, of particular interest is that at Ulyanovsk, the former Simbirsk, on the Volga. This museum is established in the small house where Lenin was born and lived as a child. Here the little room of the schoolboy Vladimir Ulyanov is preserved.

On Lenin Street, in Kazan, stands the second of these museums—in the house where Lenin had a room while a law student at Kazan University. In this house, in 1887, he was first arrested by the tsarist police—for participation in a students' revolt. He was exiled to the village of Kokushkino, and here too a museum exists in his lodgings.

In Leningrad, the former tsarist capital, many places are connected with Lenin's life and revolutionary activity. Among these are an apartment where Lenin attended revolutionary meetings and where his lucid thought and clear analysis made him the leader of the Petersburg Marxists; the apartment of the worker, Babushkin, where Lenin led a workers' circle; and a prison cell where, writing in milk between the lines of borrowed books, he drafted a program for the Bolsheviks, and wrote various pamphlets and leaflets.

In Leningrad, also, are the historic places connected with Lenin's later history—after his return from Siberian exile—and with the history of the Revolution itself. Most prominent among these are the Finland railway station where, on April 16, 1917, Lenin, just returned from exile, mounted an armored car and delivered his famous speech hailing the revolutionary proletariat of the city; and the Smolny Institute, general headquarters of the revolutionary forces, where Lenin directed the revolutionary uprising, and where Soviet power was proclaimed.

In Shushenskoye village in Siberia, where Lenin spent three years of exile, the humble house where he lived and worked is a museum today. Here is his shelf of books—Marx and Engels, Gogol and Pisarev, Darwin and Timiryazev, Kant and Hegel. Here, in this little house, two hundred miles from a railway, he wrote and studied, and remained even then the ideological leader of the Revolution.

In Moscow are the places where Lenin lived and worked during the stirring days as head of the first socialist state in the world. Here are the Kremlin, the Red Square—the heart of the Soviet Union, of the country which itself is a monument to the life and work of the great revolutionist and statesman.

And here, on the Red Square, beneath the walls of the Kremlin, stands the tomb of Lenin, visited in love and sorrow by millions.

LENIN AND GORKY. Gorky was Lenin's friend, and wrote of him. Water-color drawing by P. Vasiliev.

Lenin in Literature

By Vladimir Shcherbina
Soviet Literary Critic

Soviet writers find in great Lenin a never-failing source of inspiration.

In his famous speech on Lenin at the Memorial Meeting of the Kremlin Military School on January 28, 1924, Joseph Stalin drew a vivid picture of him as man and statesman. The force of his expression and the comprehensive characterization of Lenin shown in his remarks have served as an example to many Soviet journalists and artists.

Maxim Gorky inscribed the initial pages on Lenin in Soviet literary prose in his *Reminiscences of Vladimir Lenin*. He begins with the London Congress of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party, where he first saw and heard Lenin, and says that this was also the first time he had ever heard anyone speak so simply of the most complex questions of politics, for Lenin did not attempt to invent beautiful phrases, but served up each word as plainly as on the palm of the hand, disclosing its exact meaning with astonishing ease.

The striking clarity which was typical of Lenin's speech conveyed the rare strength of his ideas. Noble and at the same time practical ideals were presented in his words. "The finely-sculptured figure of truth arose with an amazing simplicity from these words," Gorky says in summing up his impressions.

His reminiscences give a many-faceted view of the people's leader and statesman, a man of great personal charm.

The last chapters of the reminiscences speak of the inspiring power of his leadership, thanks to which the honor of becoming the first socialist state fell to the lot of a once backward country, Russia.

Alexei Tolstoy's story *Bread* contains an expressive portrait of Lenin, shown in relief against the background of historic events. The writer emphasizes Lenin's amazing ability to discern at the most difficult moments the new positive possibilities born of these difficulties, which might be taken as weapons for the struggle and victory.

In a most talented and monumental novel, the trilogy *The Road to Calvary* by the same author, the scene where Lenin addresses a workers' meeting is drawn with power. Tolstoy shows the impregnability of Lenin's principles, at the basis of which lie truth, experience and the hopes of the people.

Lenin, the people's leader, listened attentively to them and valued their wisdom highly. This trait is emphasized in Vsevolod Ivanov's novel *Parkhomenko* and in Constantine Treniev's play *On Neva's Banks.*

Lenin appears in many Soviet prose works including drama; in Leonid Leonov's *Skutarevsky,* in Nikolai Ostrovsky's novel *How the Steel was Tempered,* in Nikolai Pogodin's *The Man with the Gun,* in Alexander Korneichuk's *Truth* and others.

A great deal of poetry has been written about Lenin by poets of different nationalities in the USSR. Vladimir Mayakovsky, one of the most talented poets of Soviet times, dedicated his best works to him. When the news of Lenin's death became known in January 1924, Mayakovsky suffered, as the whole population did, the irreparable loss it brought to the working people of the world. The poem he wrote under the immediate impressions of Lenin's death and funeral reflected with unusual power the people's sorrow, their devotion to Lenin's noble ideas.

The poet passes from scenes of the expression of national grief at the beginning of the poem, to facts of Lenin's biography. He does not speak so much of the leader's personal life, as of that great work which lifted millions of working people in the struggle for socialism.

In the last part of the poem, the poet returns once more to the scene of the funeral; these pages are memorable for their emotional quality.

Mayakovsky showed us that Lenin lives in the conscious thoughts of millions who carry out the ideas of their teacher.

Conversation with Comrade Lenin is a Mayakovsky piece of wonderful lyrical penetration. After the day's work is done, the poet stands before the portrait of Lenin and talks to him of the unceasing, heroic labor of those who are continuing his work.

"Lenin lived, Lenin lives, Lenin will live!" is the refrain heard in another of Mayakovsky's poems, *Leninists.*

The theme of the deathlessness of

Lenin's work is one that appeals greatly to Soviet poets. In Nikolai Tikhonov's fine verses, *Those Days,* written on the fifteenth anniversary of Lenin's death, he speaks forcefully of the creative powers of his teaching, of the victory of his cause under the guidance of Joseph Stalin.

The same subject is chosen by the poets Alexander Prokofieff in *Three Generations,* Margarita Aliger in *Our Lenin,* Nairi Zaryan in *Lenin,* Samed Vurgun in *The Word* and *A Woman Deputy,* Suleiman Stalsky in *Daghestan.*

Widely known are the Russian folk-song *The Road,* and the Ukrainian song *Falcons,* which express love for the great leaders of the Soviet people. The names of Lenin and Stalin are inseparably linked in our literary work.

Jamboul, the bard of Kazakhstan, describes in one of his songs a visit to Lenin's mausoleum. His grey head bowed, he whispered softly: "Lenin, thou livest, thou art at the full height of thy powers. We see thy traits in Stalin. In Stalin hast thou revived."

The Lenin theme sounded particularly strong in wartime, when the Soviet people went out to fight under the great banner of Lenin and Stalin. *The Little House at Shushenskoye,* a poem by Stepan Shchipachev, takes a broad view of events, though it speaks of only one episode in his life. The time is the end of the past century. The place —a peasant's cottage in the village. Here in this distant Yenissei territory, Lenin spent three years of his banishment to Siberia.

The Little House at Shushenskoye is not merely an account of biographical facts; the past evokes an echo in the present. From the quietude of the house at Shushenskoye the poet takes the reader, at the end of the poem, to the din of battle in the Patriotic War. "May the victorious banner of great Lenin shield you!" Joseph Stalin says from the platform of the Lenin mausoleum as he speeds the troops going to battle.

Lenin is presented to us in Soviet literature as a great creator of human happiness, who gave embodiment to the age-old hopes of the mass of the people. That is why books about him are at the same time the narrative of the people's progress to victory and happiness.

MONUMENT TO V. I. LENIN. In the other arts, as well as literature, Lenin is a favorite theme with Soviet artists. A statue at Erevan, the capital of the Armenian SSR.

Text of State Plan Report

Summary of Fulfillment of State Plan for Restoration and Development of National Economy of USSR for 1948 During First Quarter

The work of industry, agriculture and transport and the volume of capital construction and retail trade in the first quarter of 1948 are characterized by the following data:

I

Fulfillment of Production Program by Industry

The production program for gross industrial output in the first quarter of 1948 was carried out by the Ministries as follows (percentage of fulfillment of quarterly program for the first quarter of 1948):

Ministry	*Per cent*
Iron and Steel Industry	107
Non-Ferrous Metals Industry	102
Coal Industry of the Western Areas	105
Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas	101
Oil Industry of the Southern and Western Areas	104
Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas	106
Power Stations	104
Chemical Industry	109
Electrical Industry	108
Communications Equipment Industry	106
Heavy Machine-Building Industry	100
Automobile and Tractor Industry	109
Machine Tool Industry	101
Machine and Instrument-Making Industry	107
Building and Road-Building Machinery Industry	113
Transport Machinery Industry	105
Agricultural Machinery Industry	103
Building Materials Industry of the USSR	109
Timber Industry of the USSR	94
Pulp and Paper Industry	112
Rubber Industry	111
Textile Industry of the USSR	104
Light Industry of the USSR	101
Fish Industry of the Western Areas of the USSR	102
Fish Industry of the Eastern Areas of the USSR	123
Meat and Dairy Industry of the USSR	93
Food Industry of the USSR	108
Gustatory Products Industry of the USSR	97
Ministries of local industry and local fuel industry in the Union Republics	99

The production program for gross output of the industry of the USSR as a whole in the first quarter of 1948 was fulfilled by 102 per cent.

Several of the Ministries—the Ministry of the Non-Ferrous Metals Industry, the Ministry of the Heavy Machine-Building Industry, the Ministry of the Transport Machinery Industry, the Ministry of the Agricultural Machinery Industry and the Ministry of Light Industry—although they fulfilled their program for gross output as a whole, did not fulfill it in a number of important items, compensating this underfulfillment with additional output of less important production, which is a shortcoming in the work of the above Ministries.

II

Increase In Industrial Production

Production of the most important items of industrial output registered the following changes during the first quarter of 1948 (in per cent of production in the first quarter of 1947):

Pig Iron	136
Steel	141
Rolled metal	143
Railway rails	157
Iron tubing	141
Copper	136
Zinc	158
Coal	120
Oil	124
Benzine	133
Kerosene	124
Natural Gas	122
Electric power	118
Trunkline locomotives	211
Trunkline freight cars	152
Trolleybuses	180
Trucks	133
Passenger automobiles	220
Autobuses	194
Ball bearings	139
Iron and steel equipment	129
Electric motors, 100 kw. and under	187
Electric motors, over 100 kw.	178
Special and multiple metalworking machine tools	140
Ring-spinning frames	169
Looms	171
Agricultural machines	238
Tractors	237
Tractor-drawn plows	224
Tractor-drawn seed drills	203
Tractor-drawn cultivators	147
Threshers	428
Caustic soda	135
Calcined soda	171
Mineral fertilizers (superphosphate, nitrates and potash)	148
Synthetic dyes	153
Automobile tires	163
Synthetic rubber	264
Haulage of timber	146
Dressed lumber	138
Paper	119
Cement	153
Slate	147
Window glass	135
Soft roofings	126
Cotton textiles	144
Woolen textiles	132
Leather footwear	118
Rubber footwear	141
Hosiery	137
Meat	119
Butter	242
Vegetable oils	151
Fish	103
Sugar	8.7 fold
Alcohol	140
Soap	154

Gross output of industry as a whole in the first quarter of 1948 increased by 32 per cent as compared with the first quarter of 1947.

III

Preparation of Agriculture for Spring Sowing

In agriculture, preparations for spring field work were carried out during the first quarter of 1948 on a higher plane than last year. Autumn and winter repair of tractors at machine and tractor stations and state farms proceeded according to plan.

The machine and tractor stations of the Russian SFSR (Astrakhan, Bryansk, Kaliningrad, Kemerovo, Crimea, Kuibyshev, Leningrad, Moscow, and Murmansk Regions, the Tuva Autonomous Region and the North-Ossetian ASSR); of the Ukrainian SSR (Vinnitsa, Volyn, Dniepropetrovsk, Drogobych, Zhitomir, Transcarpathian, Zaporozhye, Ismail, Kamenets-Podolsk, Kiev, Lvov, Nikolayev, Odessa, Poltava, Rovno, Stalino, Sumy, Ternopol, Kharkov, Kherson, Chernigov and Chernovtsy Regions); and of the Byelorussian SSR, the Uzbek SSR, the Kazakh SSR, the Azerbaijan SSR, the Latvian SSR, the Armenian SSR, the Turkmen SSR and the Es-

tonian SSR fulfilled their programs for tractor repairs ahead of schedule.

In the first quarter the laying aside of seed for spring sowing was in the main completed at collective farms in accordance with the approved program for expanding the cultivated area. By April 1, 1948, 50 per cent more seed grain had been laid aside than last year.

IV

Increase In Cargo Carriage by Rail and Marine Transport

Average daily carloadings on the railways during the first quarter of 1948 amounted to 134 per cent of the figure for the first quarter of 1947. Average daily loadings of coal rose 16 per cent; coke, 19 per cent; oil, 24 per cent; ore, 60 per cent; ferrous metals, 46 per cent; grain, 51 per cent; flour, 72 per cent; salt, 81 per cent; timber, 53 per cent; and cement, 62 per cent.

The general plan for average daily carloadings on the railways in the first quarter was fulfilled by 103 per cent, although the plan was not fulfilled for certain freights.

Cargo carriage by marine transport rose 60 per cent in the first quarter of 1948 as compared with the first quarter of 1947. Marine transport fulfilled its quarterly plan for cargo carriage by 116 per cent.

V

Increase In Capital Construction In National Economy

The total volume of capital construction during the first quarter of 1948 amounted to 119 per cent of the figure for the first quarter of 1947 for the national economy as a whole, including 121 per cent in the coal industry, 116 per cent in the iron and steel and non-ferrous metals industries, 116 per cent in the light and food industries, 127 per cent in transport and 140 per cent in housing.

In line with instructions of the Government, measures are being taken by construction organizations to eliminate the diffusion of funds and material resources, as well as labor power, among numerous construction jobs, and to concentrate these resources primarily on the most important construction sites capable of yielding an additional increase in production capacities and an additional rise in output.

VI

Expansion of Trade Following Abolition of Rationing

On the basis of the monetary reform and the abolition of the ration system in supplying the population, carried out by the Government in December 1947, transition to expanded Soviet trade was effected.

Sales of food and manufactured goods by state and co-operative trading establishments rose considerably during the first quarter of 1948. The sale of bread in the first quarter of 1948 increased by 72 per cent as compared with the first quarter of 1947; sale of sugar, 2.7 times; fish products, 25 per cent; animal fats, 13 per cent; vegetable oil, 11 per cent; confectionery products, 57 per cent; cereals and macaroni, 52 per cent; cotton textiles, 44 per cent; and silk textiles by 44 per cent.

In connection with the reduction of state retail prices, the abolition of rationing and the monetary reform, prices on the collective farm and co-operative market dropped considerably, approaching the level of the state retail prices. As a result of this, prices on the collective farm market in the first quarter of 1948 amounted to 31 per cent of the price level during the first quarter of 1947, i.e., dropped by more than two-thirds, while prices on the urban co-operative market in the first quarter of 1948 amounted to 45 per cent of the price level in the first quarter of 1947, i.e., dropped by more than half.

VII

Increase In Buying Power of the Ruble and In Real Wages

As a result of the reduction of state retail prices on foodstuffs and manufactured goods, as well as the drop in prices in co-operative trading establishments and on the collective farm market, the purchasing power of the ruble increased 41 per cent in the first quarter of 1948.

The real wages of workers and office employees increased on the average by 51 per cent as a result of the reduction of prices and the increase in the purchasing power of the ruble, as well as in connection with the increase in monetary wages in the first quarter of 1948 as compared with the first quarter of 1947.

The reduction of prices effected on April 10, 1948, i.e., after the first quarter, was naturally not taken into account in the above statistics on the reduction of prices and the increase in the purchasing power of the ruble.

VIII

Increase In Number of Workers and Other Employees and Growth of Productivity of Labor

The total number of workers and other employees engaged in the national economy increased in the first quarter of 1948 as compared with the first quarter of 1947 by two million, the number of workers employed in industry increasing by one million. In the first quarter of 1948, 150 thousand young skilled workers finished industrial training schools and were placed in jobs in industry or at construction sites.

Most branches of industry achieved the target set for the first quarter in the state plan as regards raising productivity of labor. The productivity of labor among industrial workers increased by 21 per cent in the first quarter of 1948 as compared with the first quarter of 1947; the corresponding rise in the engineering industry amounting to 34 per cent, and in iron and steel, to 36 per cent.

In connection with the abolition of rationing, the reduction of prices on foodstuffs and manufactured goods, and the increase in the purchasing power of the ruble, the influx of workers into industry increased and a rise was registered in the productivity of labor everywhere. This was accompanied also by an increase in monetary wages as a result of greater output by the workers and the payment of premiums for fulfillment and overfulfillment of plan.

IX

Restoration of Economy In the Areas Occupied During the War

Gross production of industry in the areas which were occupied by the enemy during the war increased by 59 per cent in the first quarter of 1948 as compared with the first quarter of

(*Continued on p. 246*)

Success in the Decisive Year

A condensation of an article published in "Izvestia" under the title "Forward to New Successes in the Third Decisive Year of the Five-Year Plan."

THE report of the State Planning Committee of the USSR on the results of the realization of the 1948 State Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy during the first quarter of the current year is a document of singular significance. It mirrors the new victories of the socialist system of economy, the growing economic might of the USSR, the steadily rising living standard of the Soviet working people.

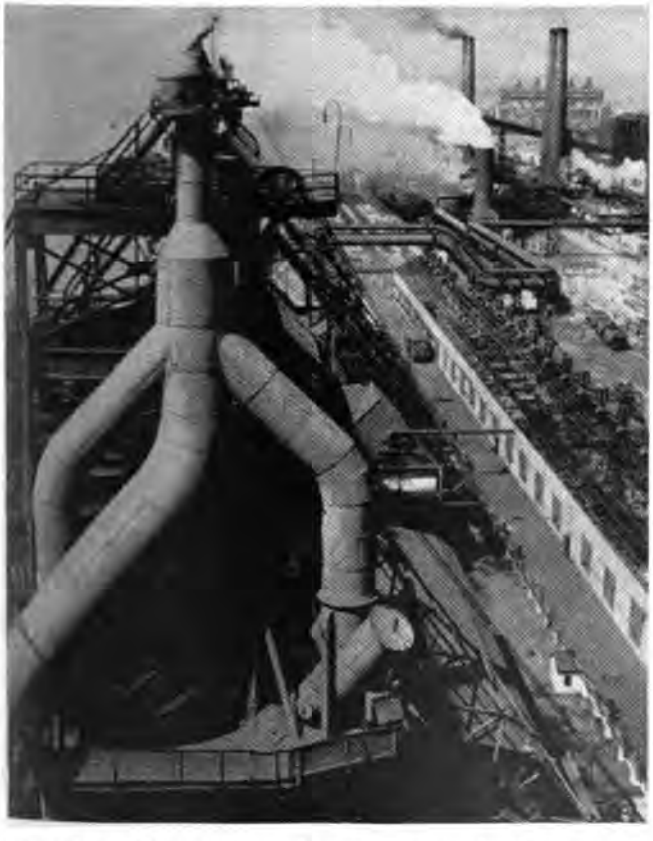
Carrying out the Stalin postwar construction plan under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party, the Soviet people are scoring new victories from quarter to quarter, from month to month. During the first quarter of 1948, the industrial output rose by 32 per cent over the first quarter of 1947. This is the first time in the postwar period that such astounding results have been achieved in the first quarter of the year, that the country's national economy has stepped up the pace of production to such a high level at the very beginning of the year.

All branches of industry, with an insignificant exception, have not only fulfilled but have considerably surpassed the planned provisions for the first quarter; moreover, a sharp increase in output over the first quarter of last year has been achieved in key branches of production. This constitutes a vivid proof of the fact that under the leadership of the party of Lenin and Stalin, the Soviet people are confidently advancing toward the goal they themselves have set, namely, the realization of the Stalin postwar Five-Year Plan in four years.

The Soviet people are people of action. Educated by the Bolshevik Party, they can persistently carry into practice the most daring plans. The nationwide socialist emulation movement for the realization of the Five-Year Plan in four years has already yielded excellent results. Figures showing the increase in the production of metal, coal, oil, electric power, various machines, food and consumers goods tell a stirring story of the heroic effort of the Soviet people, who are sacredly fulfilling the pledges they have given to their country and to great Stalin.

It is hard to overestimate the significance of the fact that during the first quarter of 1948, labor productivity in industry has risen by 21 per cent over the first quarter of 1947, and particularly the 34 per cent increase in labor productivity in the machine building industry and the 36 per cent increase in the iron and steel industry.

The achievements attained during the first quarter in industry and capital construction, in transport and agriculture, open still more favorable prospects for the further progress of the national economy. It is gratifying to know that in formerly occupied districts, industrial production has increased during the first quarter of the current year by 59 per cent over the first quarter of



MAGNITOGORSK. This steel mill set a production record. OIL. Pipelines at Baku. The oil industry scored successes.

CONSUMER GOODS. A cotton-goods warehouse at Ivanovo.

1947. It is gratifying to know that throughout the country, preparations for the spring sowing season are more efficient than last year, that tractor repairs have been successfully concluded by the machine and tractor stations and state farms, that preparation of seed stocks for the spring sowing has in the main been completed on a scale adequate to meet the planned provisions for the expansion of cultivated areas.

These successes have not dropped from the skies. They have been gained at the cost of great effort. They constitute the result of an unprecedented political upsurge and of enthusiastic labor, of the high level of the organization of the Soviet people who under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party are persistently forging ahead toward their aims, defying the odds against them. The Soviet people have accumulated a rich fund of experience in the course of their struggle for the successful realization of the national economic tasks of the first quarter. There is no doubt that all that is new and valuable in the experience accumulated during the first quarter in Stakhanovite practice, in the art of economic management, in the Bolshevik organization of the masses, will be utilized for the purpose of achieving further successes in the third decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan period.

The singular achievement of the first quarter of the current year is the rise in the purchasing power of the ruble and real wages as a result of the currency reform and the abolition of rationing effected in December, 1947. All the requisites have been created for the further development of trade.

The sale of food and consumers goods by the state retail shops and co-operatives has increased considerably; the reduction in the state retail prices has led to a decline in the prices on the collective farm market to less than one-third and on the co-operative market to less than fifty per cent of the prices charged during the first quarter of 1947.

As a result of the reduction in state retail prices and the decline in the prices in the co-operative shops and on the collective farm market, the purchasing power of the ruble rose by 41 per cent during the first quarter of 1948. Real wages and salaries have increased by an average of 51 per cent as a result of the reduction in prices, the higher purchasing capacity of the ruble and higher earnings. [These figures do not include the additional rise in real wages effected by recent price reductions.*]

The Soviet people have undertaken with redoubled energy the realization of the Plan for the second quarter. The socialist emulation movement is gaining momentum with every passing day. The Soviet people are firmly determined to win still greater victories which will enable them to fulfill the State Plan for the third decisive year of the Five-Year Plan period ahead of schedule and thereby lay a solid foundation for the realization of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

*See USSR Information Bulletin, #7, April 14, 1948, p. 202.

PROSPERITY. Real wages have risen by an average of 51 per cent in the USSR.

Composers Protest Use of Music

Editorial Note: The USSR Information Bulletin reprints the following letter, sent to the editor of "Izvestia" by composers Dmitri Shostakovich, Sergei Prokofieff, Aram Khachaturian, and Nikolai Myaskovsky, in view of the broad publicity given in the United States to the disgusting intention of an American motion-picture company to use the music of these Soviet citizens, against their will, in a film which is a monstrous fabric of lies designed to mislead the public and to malign the USSR, its people and its heroic war effort. This film, according to published reports, does not in common decency hesitate even to attempt to befoul the names of the defenders and the dead of Stalingrad, whose shining fame is secure in history and cannot be lessened by the vicious gibes of little-minded men.

The composers' letter expresses their indignation.

Dear Editor:

American newspapers have published a report on the release of the film *The Iron Curtain.* We know that this film pursues the aim of slandering our homeland, of fanning enmity and hatred for the Soviet people, in order to please the enemies of universal peace and security.

With profound indignation we have learned from a report of the *New York Times* that excerpts from our musical works are being used in this film.

There is no need to say that none of us ever gave or could give his consent for the utilization of his music in any form whatsoever in the picture *The Iron Curtain.*

Knowing beforehand that Soviet composers would wrathfully reject any such proposal, the cinema businessmen from the American Twentieth Century-Fox company resorted to a swindle, stealing our music for their abominable film. American reactionaries decided to supplement, by the theft of our works, the anti-Soviet forgeries on which their film is built.

And if, in the United States of America, these gentlemen enjoy full opportunities for political blackmail, to ignore the elementary rights of composers, to make arbitrary use of their creative works, this only proves once more that in the United States customs and morals flourish under which rights of the individual, freedom of art and the democratic principles to which allegiance is solemnly vowed, are in reality trampled underfoot most unceremoniously.

While expressing a categorical protest against such methods and customs, against this cynical encroachment on freedom of art, we are decisively insisting upon the removal of our music from the film *The Iron Curtain.*

D. Shostakovich, S. Prokofieff,
A. Khachaturian, M. Myaskovsky.

What Music Do the People Love?

By Tikhon Khrennikov

General Secretary of the Soviet Composers' Union

THE Soviet people love music and know a great deal about it. There is no town of any size in the Soviet Union where concerts and musical evenings are not held, at which the works of Russian and world classics and the songs of the different Soviet nationalities are not heard. Music by Soviet composers is exceptionally popular in our country.

At the same time, the Soviet people do not understand and cannot accept much that has been written by Dmitri Shostakovich, Sergei Prokofieff, Nikolai Myaskovsky and a number of other composers who followed the trend of formalistic composition alien to the people and containing neither articulate thought, noble idea, rhythm, melody nor harmonious clarity.

Once these same composers wrote good things which were welcomed with enthusiasm. The Soviet people liked Shostakovich's *Fifth* and *Seventh* (*The Leningrad*) *Symphonies,* Prokofieff's music to the ballets of *Cinderella* and *Romeo and Juliet,* pieces by Aram Khachaturian and various things by these and other composers. Nevertheless, they disregarded the needs of their people, allowed themselves to be diverted by formalistic subtleties, and created music that was a pronounced failure at the first performance. Illustrations of this were Prokofieff's *Sixth Sonata,* in which the piano was used as a percussion instrument, (the keys were struck with the fist), and Shostakovich's *Eighth* and *Ninth Symphonies,* absolutely alien to Soviet realistic art and containing elements of expressionistic overwrought tension and nervousness, plunging at times into a world of grotesque pathological distortions.

Formalistic errors are found in the compositions of Aram Khachaturian, who attempted in his *Symphony Poem* written in 1947, to harmonize the incompatible—24 wind instruments and an organ. All the most recent compositions by Nikolai Myaskovsky, his *Pathetic Overture, Kremlin at Night,* a cantata and several symphonies aroused the indignation of Soviet audiences.

These compositions are incomprehensible and inaccessible to the Soviet people, who appreciate that music in which they find organically combined the classic traditions of the Russian and world schools' high content, ideas and significance, simplicity, clarity of thought and high professional artistry.

It is perfectly understandable that the Central Committee of the Communist Party, always sensitive to the voice of the people, published the decision concerning Muradeli's opera, *The Great Friendship,* pointing out with ample justification the glaring shortcomings in the work of a number of Soviet composers who proved to be disciples of bourgeois decadent composers

Picture Provocateurs

by Ilya Ehrenburg

From *Kultura I Zhizn*

THE American imperialists have an eye to everything: journalists have to concoct telegrams about "the schemes of the Reds"; senators have to spot unreliable persons; philosophers have to glorify the humane attributes of the atom bomb; and scientists to breed carriers of plague and anthrax. Particular attention is paid by the martial-minded Yankees to cinematography. Starting with committing for trial all independent-minded film producers and actors, they proceeded to publish, with the aid of "The Motion Picture Alliance for the Preservation of American Ideals," ten commandments for the exemplary picture maker.

He must not disparage private initiative or slander industrialists. He must not revile wealth or legitimate profits or ridicule success. Neither should he praise failures, indulge in worship of the man in the street, present a collective in glowing colors, treat politics lightly or cast aspersions on the state institutions of America.

After the publication of this Decalogue, the film *The Best Years of Our Lives* was declared to be dangerous inasmuch as a none too virtuous banker appeared in it. Cinematography came to a close with this, and so far as art is concerned, there is no point in further reference to Hollywood and its branches. When I decided to write on a new American film, it was not because it had any connection with the tenth of the Muses. No, the film that attracted my attention has more in common with the spread of the bacillus of yellow fever and the plague that engages the bacteriologists of Mr. Forrestal.

The film *The Iron Curtain* owes its origin to two fathers: Milton Crims, expert on hack writing, and Igor Guzenko, expert provocateur. Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corporation spent substantial sums on making this picture; the martial-minded Yankees calculate that its release should be as world-shaking as the appearance of American warships in the Dardanelles.

After ascertaining the contents of the scenario of *The Iron Curtain,* I should like to suggest that Americans add to their ten commandments an eleventh, most general, but at the same time, most exact: "Stop at nothing."

OTTAWA is the capital of Canada, but it is a small provincial town populated by officials. There is not a single decent theater in it. The farce I want to recall to readers was not on a stage, but took place in Parliament and in the Supreme Court. The authors were in Washington and the stage manager was the Canadian Premier, King, venerable in age but not in actions.

On the staff of the Soviet Embassy in Ottawa, there was a cipherer, Igor Guzenko. As it turned out, he was not indifferent to dollars. Noticing this weakness in a small employee, the Canadian police tempted him with a substantial sum. When a bargain had been struck, the newspapers of the New World appeared with sensational headlines—"Soviet Embassy Engages in Espionage." Actually, the Soviet Embassy was engaged in its usual Embassy duties while the Canadian police were engaged in provocation unusual even for the police; it had been proposed to Guzenko to slander the Soviet

Khrennikov

(Continued from preceding page)

of the West and imitated them in much.

I cannot name a single western composer of importance who is not infected with formalistic defects, mysticism and an absence of principle in ideas.

What has Olivier Messien created in France? What has come from Britten in England? Their music frankly proclaims eroticism and deep seated psychopathy. They are engrossed in orchestration combinations nonexistent in musical practice, and give themselves out as apostles of musical creativeness, composing pieces that are not for the public but for a handful of musical gourmands.

Do people need such music as this? Of course not. The history of national creative music demonstrates the contrary. Each people creates its own national music, its own songs—simple, melodious and profoundly expressive.

Why do we love and appreciate the great composers Tschaikovsky, Beethoven, Moussorgsky, Greig, Rimsky-Korshakov, Verdi, Glinka and Schubert? Because their music reaches the hearts of the people of every nationality in every country, because the sources of their creative effort lie in the firm ground of the peoples' creative art.

Such music is loved and appreciated by the Soviet people.

It was both just and timely for the Soviet people to raise the question that the talent of their composers should not be employed to invent an incomprehensible cacophony of meaningless empty sounds alien to the ear, music for the over-refined aesthete, but to write music that would stir the soul of the people and raise it to new levels of culture.

That is why the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and the Soviet people, having subjected to criticism the work of a number of Soviet composers, pointed out at the same time, the path that would lead them to the creation of music of value, of high quality worthy of the great tasks confronting the Soviet people.

Shostakovich has already begun a new work on the music for the film of *The Young Guard,* based on the novel by Alexander Fadeyev, and also for an opera on the same subject. Sergei Prokofieff is engaged on a new opera based on Boris Polevoi's *Tale of a Real Man,* which is popular in the USSR.

All our Soviet composers are keener than at any other time to write for their countrymen, to create music that will be comprehensible and akin in spirit, content and form to the widest masses.

This is a noble task. In the name of this task, Soviet composers are striving to attain peaks of musical art. They are impelled by the desire to advance Soviet musical culture.

diplomats and Canada's progressive public men who opposed the subordination of the country to the American imperialists. Many persons active in public life, among them a Member of Parliament elected by the Montreal workers, were held for trial. They were sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, the verdict being founded solely on the evidence of the aforementioned Guzenko.

I happened to be in Canada while the trial was going on and no one made any secret of the fact that the nasty farce was staged at the instance of Washington. The publisher of a conservative paper said plainly, "What do you want—this is a small country and we are bound to our southern neighbor!" The United States constitutes the headquarters and the generals on the staff are not fond of showing up in forward positions; reconnaissance is relegated to persons who are not of high rank. The Canadians were used for the first moves in the game, then the Chileans, then the Brazilians and finally the Frenchmen (if one may call the present sheriffs of France "Frenchmen").

Huge crowds of Canadians turned out in Toronto and Montreal to express to us Soviet writers their indignation over Mr. King's provocative actions. As far as the administrators and officials with whom I had talks were concerned, they were obviously embarrassed, their eyes had that "anxious, gentle look" which according to the poet Nekrassov, is characteristic of pleasant but fallen creatures.

The Canadians wanted only one thing: that the whole dirty business should be forgotten as soon as possible. As for Guzenko, he had by this time wearied the doormen and the messengers of the police. He began to write articles for the American papers, plunging into inept inventions; this blackguard in a small position had an enormous appetite. But finally, even his imagination gave out. He was about to be thrown out like a squeezed lemon, when fortune smiled—American film producers remembered his name. Guzenko came to life again on the screen.

In a certain old French ballad written on *Thieves,* the God-fearing thief described the fall of man as follows: "Adam filched an apple and the Lord God grabbed him by the scruff of his neck." Everyone judges by his own world. It is no wonder that those who work in the American film studios are fond of pictures about gangsters and police: this is the world they know to perfection. In America, every gangster may easily become a policeman, while on the other hand, businessmen, senators and journalists appear as gangsters or police according to the circumstances.

The film about the life of the staff of the Soviet Embassy has been fabricated after the classic recipes for gangster films. The femme fatale, a beautiful blonde, Baranova by name, is employed in the Embassy. Her job is to dance with partners from among the male members of the staff, seduce them and thus get a good look into their sinful souls. The partners constantly praise Canadian liqueurs (which are pretty bad, by the way) and, it goes without saying, gulp them down in unlimited quantities. One of the men, Trigorin by name, who is in love with the liqueurs, yearns to steal the atom bomb. His colleague, Raniev, gives directives to the Canadian communists. All these people talk the lingo of Chicago criminals.

The innocent Guzenko and his virtuous wife, Anna, happen to get into a dreadful den of vice, separated from the world by an iron curtain. Their conversion to the ideas of transatlantic democracy takes place in the kitchen; on seeing the refrigerator, Anna goes into ecstasies and sees in a flash the fallacy of Marxist philosophy. Later, Anna produces a ravishing infant and tells her husband in no uncertain terms that they must stay in America for good, as it is impossible to bring up the child in Russia. The tyrant Raniev snarls, "We have no place for bourgeois sentimentality," while Anna, eying the child sorrowfully, sobs "Poor little fellow, he will grow up thinking the whole world is his enemy." The drunkard, Kulin, keeps repeating in a sinister tone, "Sent back to Russia—it sounds like a death knell. One volley will solve my problems. I won't have time to drink myself to death."

Finally, Guzenko snatches up a heap of secret documents and, telling his wife, "This is my ammunition," runs off to the noble Canadians. The Soviet plot is discovered, a professor, a Member of Parliament and other "Reds" are held for trial. At the end of the film, the announcer says, "Somewhere in Canada, Igor Guzenko and his family are living under the permanent protection of the Canadian police. By special order, the grateful country has presented him with the rights and privileges of a subject of the Dominion of Canada."

In justice to American picture makers, it should be pointed out that though they have no conception of what the Soviet Embassy is like, they are familiar on the other hand with the morals of diplomatic gangsters. These morals are no secret to anyone. I am reminded of the way in which "diplomatic" activity began among the representatives of the various great powers in Soviet Russia.

This was thirty years ago, in August, 1918. A small but choice company assembled in the American Consulate in Moscow; in addition to the hosts, the French Consul and officers of the British Intelligence Service were present. One of them, Sidney Reilly, says in his memoirs that at this "diplomatic" conference, a plan was discussed for seizing the Soviet Government, with Lenin at its head.

All this happened a long time ago, it may be said. Yes, since then, diplomats have grown more cautious. But how can one fail to recall various eccentric actions on the part of diplomats in recent years? The Secretary of the Brazilian Embassy arranged a tremendous spree at a Moscow restaurant. A British diplomat was engaged in speculation. He traded in smuggled coating cloth. Some of the staff of the Canadian Embassy in Warsaw "lost their way" and strayed into Soviet territory without any visas. Members of the Argentinian Embassy deported their agents in trunks. A British military attache was caught, garbed in a torn sheepskin cloak, scrutinizing a military plant. If one recalls the disgraceful stories that came out at the trials in Belgrade, Bucharest, Budapest, Sophia and Skoplje, a clear idea will be gained of the kind of affairs in which the diplomats of many countries (I forbear to enumerate them out of diplomatic courtesy) are fond of indulging. The poet thief wrote that Adam stole the apple. It would not have surprised me if he had said that previous to this, the Lord God had stolen Adam's rib and created Eve out of it.

American gangsters view the world after their own fashion. They do not and cannot understand that Soviet diplomats are ordinary Soviet people. A burglar does not realize what an honest man feels—he can only break open doors, not hearts.

The world of films gives rise to a series of neologisms: we knew film actors, producers, distributors, mechanics, operators; now we know film provocateurs.

THERE is a place in the hastily concocted American film *The Iron Curtain* which cannot fail to stir anyone, no matter where he lives or what he may think.

One of the tipplers, Kulin, says, "We defended Stalingrad. The snow was red with blood. I asked who wanted to go out on a dangerous mission. Not a man volunteered. Then I shot pointblank 51 good Russians. The fifty-second volunteered. I had no further trouble and there were more volunteers than I could use. Ha-ha!"

At one time, when thieves robbed a church, they left traces of their defecations there; terrified by the crime they had committed, they wanted to show by this that they were not afraid, that they cared for nothing. Perhaps the same feelings prompted the people who made *The Iron Curtain?* I don't know. The psychology of such creatures does not interest me. I want to say something different: How can the United States film producers imagine that the world will stand such sacrilege as this of the graves of Stalingrad?

Yes, the whole world knows that if Europe freed herself from Nazi tyranny, if prisoners emerged from the German death camps, if German Kommanduntur are no more in Paris, if bombs are no longer dropped on London, if American mothers have met again their sons safely returned from their parade through Europe, it is first and foremost because at the darkest hour of the autumn of 1942, the Soviet people stood to the death on a narrow strip of land—they died but would not retreat. And now the scoundrels in Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corporation mock the graves of these heroes.

I do not know what the creature who calls himself Milton Crims was doing in wartime. I do not know if the actors in *The Iron Curtain* were called up for military service. I know what Stalingrad was. They ought to bow down to the ground before our mothers, our widows. They ought to remember the great name with reverent humility. But no, not only honor—ordinary decency is alien to them. They boast of their refrigerators and their liqueurs: "There is everything in America!" No, not everything: A sense of shame is often lacking.

IT is clear from the very beginning of the film that the Canadian police will triumph, the Bolsheviks will be humiliated and the Guzenko couple will settle on a lovely farm. But neither those who created, nor those who inspired the film *The Iron Curtain* foresaw how their enterprise would end. This unexpected ending is not in the film, it is *of* the film.

The Iron Curtain was invented to slander the Soviet Union. It was intended to illustrate Harriman's speech, the military hubbub raised by Forrestal, the activities of the Committee for the Investigation of Un-American Activities. Nevertheless, the exposure is not of the Soviet Union, but of the martial-minded Yankees. When this article of mine was being written, the radio was announcing that some people in the United States, people working in the film industry, writers and professors, had protested against the release of *The Iron Curtain.*

American imperialists are unlucky with their "sensations." First, they launched their slanderers—their own correspondents from Ankara, Teheran, Seoul and Athens. One might often see in humorous magazines in Italy and France the expression "He lies like an American correspondent!"

Then, American imperialists decided to refer to the authoritative opinions of the Nuremberg villains, and published the "memoranda" of veracity-loving Ribbentrop. Disappointment awaited them here too; a survey by the Soviet Information Bureau showed the nations once more who had defended the peace and who had prepared the war, who had fought against fascism and who had made others pick chestnuts out of the fire for them. Now, after Ribbentrop, comes Igor Guzenko, a petty scoundrel, called as a witness. But here too trouble awaits the American imperialists.

The protest published in the United States against *The Iron Curtain* was only a prelude; there is music still to come. Twentieth Century-Fox Film Corporation is intending to show its "sensational picture" on the screens of America and Europe. They will hardly be able to do that. In the working class districts in New York, in Pittsburgh, Detroit and San Francisco, the dulcet tones of the vampire Baranova will hardly be heard—they will be drowned by the indignant shouts of the public.

As far as Europe is concerned, Europe remembers and knows what Stalingrad was. True, Europe does not have advanced American engineering, but one may boo without special machinery. If Americans dare to bring their *Iron Curtain* to Europe, they will see what the conscience of the peoples means: the demonstration of the film will become a demonstration against the picture provocateurs and against their bosses, the American imperialists.

State Plan Report

(Continued from page 240)

1947, the output of pig iron increasing by 75 per cent, steel, 97 per cent, rolled metal, 103 per cent, electric power, 33 per cent, and cement, by 67 per cent.

Centralized capital investments amounting to 3,000,000,000 rubles were made in these areas of the USSR in the first quarter of 1948, 350 thousand square meters of housing floor space in towns and nine thousand dwelling houses in rural localities being built or restored.

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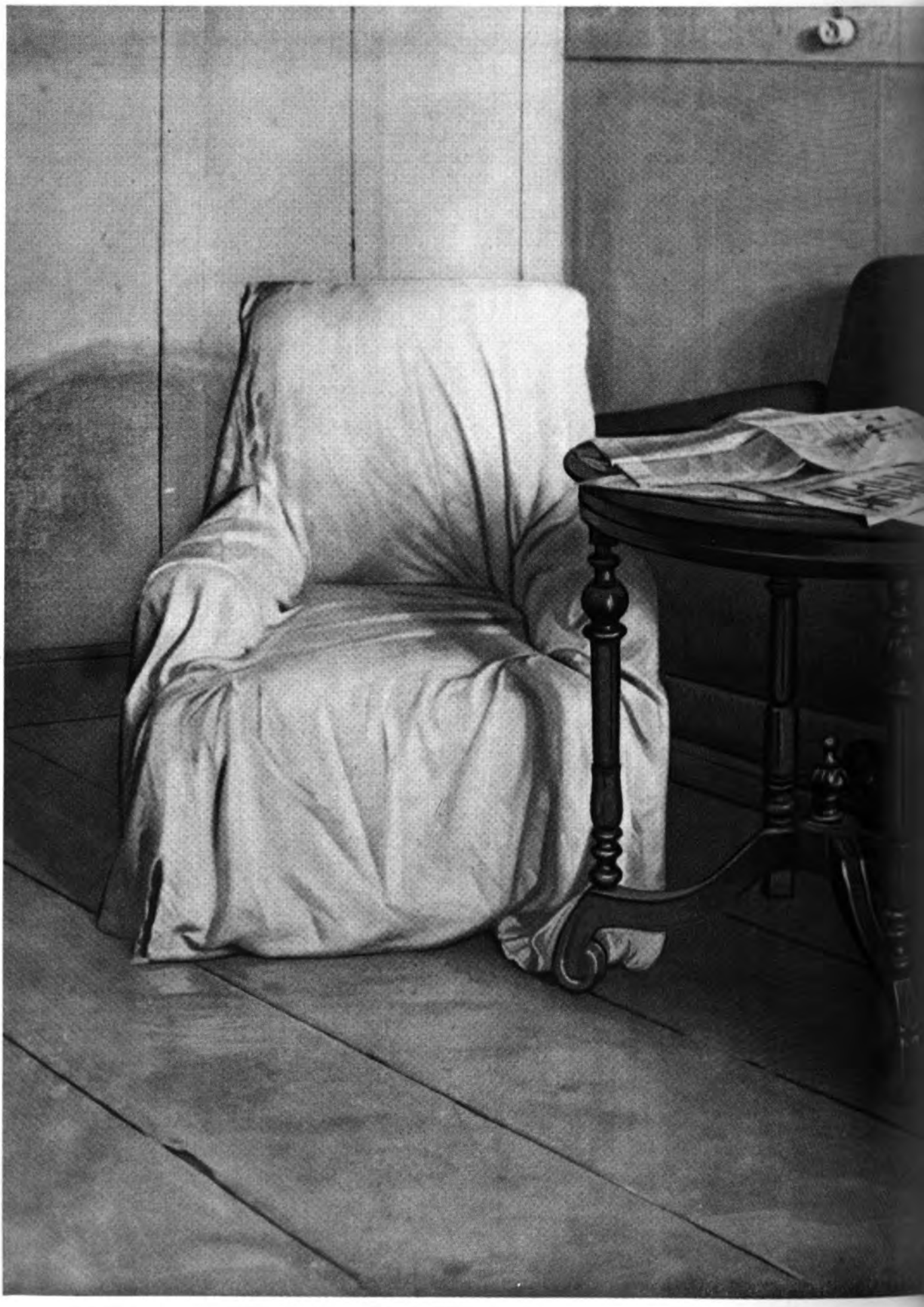
During the first quarter of 1948 socialist competition was launched on a broad scale among workers, collective farmers and the intelligentsia at enterprises, construction jobs, collective farms, machine and tractor stations and state farms for the successful fulfillment and overfulfillment of the objectives of the State Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the USSR in 1948, the decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

STATE PLANNING COMMITTEE OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF THE USSR

A photograph made in 1922.

Lenin and Stalin at Gorki.

Of Lenin, Stalin said: ". . . it always seemed to me that he was head and shoulders above his colleagues . . . . Lenin was not just one of the leaders, but a leader of the highest rank, a mountain eagle, who knew no fear in the struggle, and who boldly led the Party forward along the unexplored paths of the Russian revolutionary movement."



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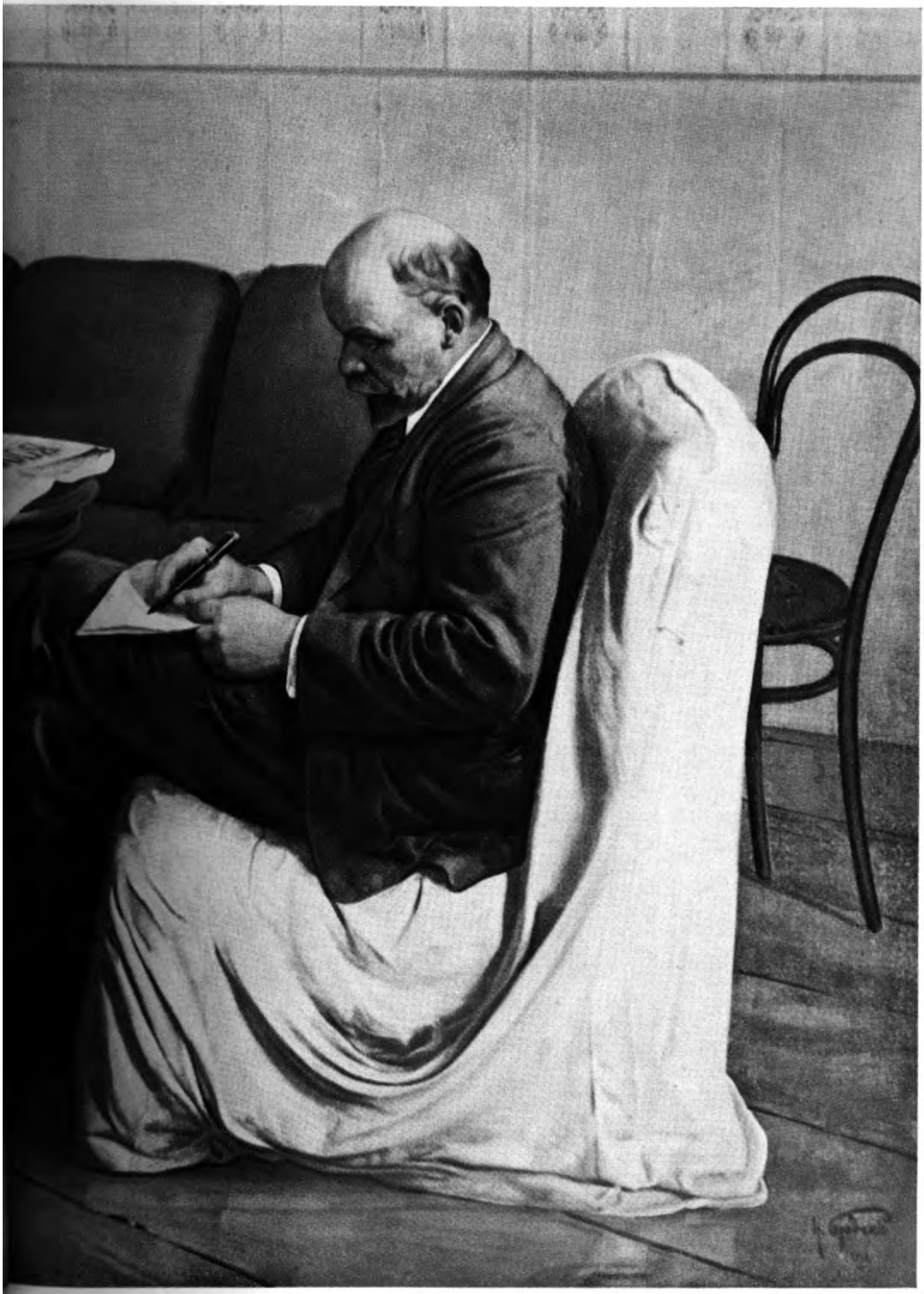
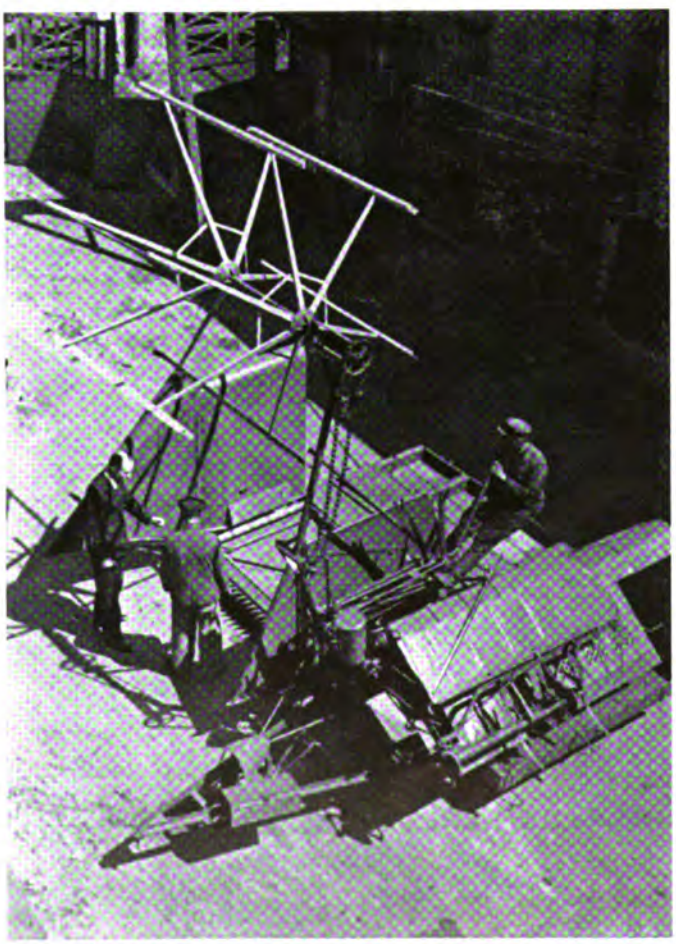


AT SMOLNY

A painting by I. I. Brodsky

LENIN'S BEQUEST. Electrification and mechanization of the country was constantly planned and stressed by Lenin. Head dam of the Farkhad hydroelectric station, Uzbek SSR.



FARM MACHINERY. Lenin foresaw the great mechanized farms. A hemp-harvesting machine.

INDUSTRY. Its growth under socialism was his dream. A machine building plant, Ukrainian SSR.

Where All Are Equal

By Professor Arutyun Bagdasarov

In pre-Revolutionary Russia the numerous non-Russian peoples suffered national oppression. The tsarist government did everything possible to hinder their economic, political and cultural development. These specific historical conditions gave the national question and the national liberation movement in Russia their sharp political character.

The Russian proletariat was a most powerful factor in the struggle against tsarist autocracy, since the Russian proletariat suffered as much from the yoke of the landlords and capitalists as the oppressed nationalities did. Only real democracy could liberate the working class and all the working people of Russia from exploitation and oppression. The Bolsheviks, as the Party of Lenin and Stalin, leading the struggle of the working class of Russia, put forward its program on the national question before the Revolution. The program may be summarized as follows: the right of all nations to self-determination, including the right to secession and the formation of separate states.

The Bolshevik program on the national question gave impetus to the struggle of the oppressed non-Russian nationalities against tsarism and imperialism. The Bolsheviks stressed that the question of the right of nations to self-determination should not be confused with the question of the necessity and desirability of the separation of any nation that forms part of a multinational state. The latter question must be settled concretely in each case individually and in accordance with the situation obtaining.

"The economic, political and cultural conditions of a given nation constitute the only key to the question of *how* a particular nation ought to arrange its life and *what forms* its future constitution ought to take," wrote Stalin. "It is possible that a special solution of the problem will be required for each nation. If, indeed, a dialectical approach to a question is required anywhere, it is required here, in the national question."

The theory propounded by Lenin and Stalin on the national question was fully confirmed as a result of the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The Socialist Revolution in Russia laid the foundations of the independent statehood of a number of nations which, as we have already said, were oppressed by tsarism before the Revolution.

The Russian workers who had gained power, said Joseph Stalin, would not have won the sympathies of the nationalities oppressed by tsarism if they had not proved by their deeds that they were prepared to put into practice their program for national self-determination. On the other hand, the oppressed nationalities could not have achieved national independence without the organizing and guiding role played by the Russian proletariat and without its help. Taught their lesson by their hard experience of the national yoke under tsarism, the masses of the non-Russian nationalities realized at the time of the Civil War and the foreign intervention that their liberty could not be guaranteed unless they allied themselves with the great Russian people against the interventionists, against the chauvinists, against the counter-revolutionaries and their White Guard generals, Kolchak, Denikin, Yudenich, Wrangel and others.

It soon became clear that the national, political and economic independence which had been achieved by the young Soviet Republics might soon be taken from them by the imperialists if the military alliance they formed during the period of struggle against the counter-revolution and intervention were not supplemented by a cultural and economic alliance. This explains why the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Transcaucasian Soviet Republics raised the question of the formation of a single Soviet State in December, 1922.

On December 30, 1922, the first foundation congress of the Soviet peoples opened in Moscow. The congress adopted the declaration and the treaty which formed the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. The union was a voluntary federation of equal nations. Each of the national republics was ensured the right freely to secede from the USSR; at the same time the way was left open for any socialist republics that might be formed in the course of further development, to enter the union.

EQUALITY. Djimile Gadjieva, a Uzbek, and Alexandra Ustinova, a Russian, vote.

The formation of the USSR was a tremendous victory for the national policy formulated by Lenin and Stalin. The first constituent republics were the Russian SFSR, the Transcaucasian Federation and the Ukrainian and Byelorussian Socialist Republics. Today the Soviet Union is a powerful multinational state composed of 16 independent Soviet Socialist Republics.

The industrialization of the country by means of the prewar Stalin Five-Year Plans successfully abolished the cultural and economic backwardness of the non-Russian republics and regions. Under Soviet power industrial enterprises have been located in accordance with a single state plan; the policy of industrializing the formerly backward regions was put into practice and accomplished in a brief period.

The collectivization of agriculture put an end to the age-old backwardness of the peasant population of the non-Russian regions.

By the time the present Constitution was adopted, the social and economic features of the whole of the USSR had undergone a complete change. December 5, 1936, the day on which the present Constitution of the USSR was adopted, became a national holiday throughout the Soviet Union. This Constitution, called by the people the Stalin Constitution, takes as its starting point the principle that differences in the color of the skin, in language, in the level of cultural development or political development, or any other differences which may occur among nations and races, may not serve as a basis for national inequality.

All nationalities in the Soviet Union are equal and all possess their own statehood. Each of the constituent and autonomous republics elects its own higher organs of state power—the Supreme Soviets—by means of universal, equal, direct suffrage employing a secret ballot.

The Great October Socialist Revolution was not only a revolution in the sphere of economics and social and political relations. It was also a revolution in the minds of the people, a revolution in ideology. The Revolution developed new life forces, it gave courage and faith in the future to all the peoples of the USSR.

Illiteracy and cultural backwardness were typical for the masses of old Russia in general and for the non-Russian nations in particular. In central Russia only a quarter of the population could read and write, in Siberia one-sixth of the population, and in Central Asia only two to three per cent of the whole population.

Immediately after the Revolution the Party of Lenin and Stalin and the Soviet Government adopted all possible measures to raise the cultural level of the masses. By the year 1938-1939 there were 14.2 times more children at school than in the Russian Empire in 1914. In the higher educational establishments of the USSR today there are 670 thousand undergraduates. In 1914 the figure was 112 thousand. Naturally, in those republics whose populations were contemptuously called "foreigners" before the Revolution, the results of the cultural revolution are the most impressive. In the Azerbaijan Republic, for example, the number of schools has increased 43 times as compared with the pre-Revolutionary figure and the number of pupils is 45 times greater. The corresponding figures for some of the other republics are: Uzbekistan, 41 and 68.5; Turkmenia, 31 and 36; Kirghizia, 159 and 454. In pre-Revolutionary Tajikistan there were practically no schools at all; in 1946 there were three thousand schools attended by 250 thousand children.

Before the Revolution there were no higher educational establishments on the territories now occupied by the Byelorussian, Azerbaijan, Armenian, Turkmen, Uzbek, Tajik, Kazakh and Kirghiz Republics. Each of these republics now has its own colleges. Their number varies from eight to 29 per republic.

Nationalities which were backward and oppressed in the field of culture in the past (some of them did not have a written language of their own) have created their own culture and art, national in form and socialist in content. They have been able to do this as members of the Soviet family of peoples, and with the help of all the other peoples of the Soviet Union, primarily with the help of the Russian people.

The great Socialist Revolution brought out and developed the creative abilities of Azerbaijanians, Uzbeks, Tajiks, Turkmenians, Kirghiz, Yakuts and other formerly oppressed peoples. The old reactionary legend that only the "higher" races are gifted has long been refuted.

When they organized their sudden attack on the Soviet Union the exponents of the Hitlerite race theory counted on instability of the Soviet system, on instability of the alliance and friendship of the Soviet peoples. They believed the early defeats of the Soviet Army would lead to clashes among the Soviet peoples. The war, however, showed a completely different picture. The tremendous vital force of Soviet patriotism welded the numerous peoples of the Soviet Union into a single whole. Never before in history have so many heroes come to the fore as was the case during the Great Patriotic War against Hitler Germany. The experiment of forming a multi-national state on the basis of a voluntary union has fully justified itself. The Soviet Union, which has aroused the hatred of all imperialists, has gained tremendous prestige in the eyes of all progressive mankind.

The Great October Socialist Revolution was a triumph of the Marxist-Leninist theory of internationalism. Its world importance has been stressed on many occasions. With the victory of the Revolution a new civilization, a new society, was born, a socialist society, freed from the chains of imperialism, freed from the exploitation of man by man.

REPRESENTATION. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR Vassili Rusin and Anna Petrishche of the Transcarpathian Ukraine.

Ambassador Panyushkin's Speech

(At a dinner of the American Birobijan Committee, New York City, April 17, 1948)

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I AM happy to be with you this evening at this occasion devoted to the 20th anniversary of the creation in the USSR of the Jewish National District, which in 1934 was reorganized into a Jewish Autonomous Region.

This measure was an expression of the Lenin-Stalin national policy of the Soviet Government, the fundamental principles of which are the equality of nations, peaceful coexistence and brotherly co-operation among them. The Soviet Union is the first multinational state in the history of mankind where the national problem has been fully solved in the interest of all the peoples inhabiting the country. In the Soviet Union there are neither dominating nor under-privileged nations, neither metropolis, nor colonies.

The carrying out of the Lenin-Stalin national policy of equality and friendship of peoples has led to the rallying of previously disunited peoples and has ensured the creation of national socialist republics as well as national autonomous regions. Thus conditions were created for the development of the cultures of all the peoples inhabiting the USSR, cultures national in form and socialist in content. Under Soviet power all the nationalities under the leadership and with the aid of the great Russian people have attained tremendous successes in the development of their national statehood and national culture.

The Jews in tsarist Russia were a people most oppressed and deprived of rights. The whole world remembers the numerous Jewish pogroms, organized by the tsarist Government. The Jews were subjected to various restrictions; they had no right to choose a profession freely; to reside in the large cities without special permits, only a few of them could study in institutions of higher learning because the doors of many educational institutions were closed to them.

The Great October Revolution abolished the pale of settlement, liquidated the rightlessness of the Jewish people, did away with all other restrictions which existed in tsarist Russia in regard to the Jews.

Equality of rights of all the peoples of the Soviet Union has not only been proclaimed but has actually been put into practice.

The Constitution of the Soviet Union guarantees the equality of all nationalities and punishes all those who directly or indirectly infringe on such rights. Article 123 of the Constitution of the USSR states in part as follows:

> "Equality of rights of citizens of the USSR, irrespective of their nationality or race, in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity, is an indefeasible law.
>
> "Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of, or conversely, the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges for, citizens on account of their race or nationality, as well as any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or hatred and contempt, is punishable by law."

The Jews in the Soviet Union have received the opportunity to develop freely their national culture and to participate on an equal basis with all the other peoples of our country, in all spheres of life of the Soviet Union. The Jews, as members of one family of peoples of the USSR, are taking an active part in all spheres of the political, economic, social, scientific and cultural life of our country. Among the Jews you will find persons occupying high public positions; academicians and generals, scientists and artists; directors of large enterprises; valorous heroes of the Great Patriotic War; Heroes of Socialist Labor; shock-workers and Stakhanovites.

The Jewish Autonomous Region has achieved considerable successes in the development of its national economy. In the Region there have been built a clothing factory, a railway carriage plant, a large paper factory. At the present time a large textile factory is being constructed.

The area of land under cultivation has been increasing from year to year and has now reached 187 thousand acres. Agriculture has become highly mechanized. Hundreds of tractors and combines are working in the fields of the Jewish Autonomous Region.

In the Region there have been built 104 hospitals and polyclinics, more than a hundred different schools, scores of houses of culture, cinemas and libraries, and a Regional Theater of Drama. Several newspapers in the Yiddish language are published, as well as the literary journal *Birobijan*. A publishing house which publishes books in Yiddish has been founded. There are more than 200 thousand books in the library of the Region in the city of Birobijan.

All this guarantees the further economic development of the Region and of the Jewish national culture.

The official language of the Region is Yiddish. The population of the Region elects the Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies consisting of 89 members. The Region has five representatives in the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—the All-Union Soviet parliament.

The Soviet Government constantly comes to the assistance of Birobijan. Together with the entire Soviet people, the Jews of the Soviet Union heroically defended their Motherland from the fascist invaders. A Birobijanian, Lazar Popernik, a watchmaker by profession, fought to the last cartridge and, surrounded by the Germans, used his last hand grenade to blow himself up together with the enemy. In order to help his comrades to reach their battle objective and to save their lives, a Birobijanian, Josef Bumagin, closed with his own body the muzzle of the gun of an enemy pillbox. More than two thousand inhabitants of the Region have been decorated with Orders and medals for heroism and the valor demonstrated by them during the Patriotic War.

With the end of the war the population of Birobijan, like the whole Soviet people, devoted themselves to construc-

FARM FAMILY. Abram Eidelberg, his wife and daughter, in their home.

A Jewish Homeland

In accordance with a decision of the Soviet Government, a Jewish National District was formed in the Far East in 1928. The economy and culture of this District made rapid headway. It attracted a constantly growing number of settlers from all parts of the USSR and from foreign countries, and on May 7, 1934, the Soviet Government decided to raise the status of the District to a Jewish Autonomous Region. Birobijan became the capital of the Region, which occupies a territory of more than 15 thousand square miles.

The Jewish Autonomous Region is situated at the Soviet-Manchurian border in the basin of the Amur River and its tributaries, Bira and Bijan. The Maly Khingan mountain range and Bureya spurs which stretch in the western and northwestern parts of the Region may be compared to the Urals for the wealth and variety of mineral deposits found there. The mountains are rich in coal, iron ore, gold, manganese, asbestos, granite and other minerals.

The great Trans-Siberian railway, which stretches for more than six thousand miles, crosses the Region from west to east. One of its branch lines connects the regional center with the Amur agricultural area, while another links it with the rich upper Bureya coal fields.

Birobijan, the capital of the Region, is an important Soviet economic center with modern municipal facilities and a large population. Automobiles glide along its asphalted streets. The city has many parks and gardens. And yet, only 20 years ago, there was nothing but the outlying railway crossing of Tikhonkaya in the wilds of the taiga.

The territory became the scene of bustling activitiy when the first Jewish settlers appeared in the Region. They proceeded to build houses, factories, mills, and cultural institutions. The first large enterprise was a garment factory; the next, a wagon plant. At present, there are 64 large industrial enterprises in the Region. Construction continued there even during the most trying years of the war, when the large Birokan paper mill was built.

The Stalin Five-Year Plans supplied a powerful impetus also to the development of industrial producers' co-operatives in Birobijan. These co-operatives now unite thousands of handicraftsmen skilled in the most diverse trades. More than 20 factories and mills of local industry, together with the co-operative shops, supply a broad assortment of consumer goods. A large textile mill, the first in the Soviet Far East, is being constructed in the Region. Its industry is slated for further development under the current Five-Year Plan.

The new settlers who came to Birobijan were energetic and industrious, and were social-minded people. That is why they decided at once to cultivate their fields in common and proceeded to form agricultural co-operatives. The results were soon apparent: the cultivated area of these collective farms has increased many times since 1928 and occupies 185,325 acres at present.

Agriculture is highly mechanized in the Region. There are 65 collective farms, five state farms and nine machine and tractor stations. Hundreds of tractors and harvester combines are used in the fields. Ninety-eight per cent of the agricultural processes are

BIRA RIVER. A park in Birobijan.

Panyushkin

(Continued from preceding page)

tive labor, and are now showing examples of valor and heroism on the labor front.

In closing my address, I would like to express my appreciation to the Ambidjan Committee for having given me the opportunity to be present at this meeting and to thank the Committee for the fruitful work carried on by it.

performed with mechanical power. Most of the collective farms have their own power plants. The Jewish collective farmers are harvesting bumper crops. Their 1947 grain crop was much better than before the war. The collective farms completed their grain deliveries to the State ahead of the scheduled date and produced an extra 1,600 tons of grain over and above the plan.

The most successful agricultural cooperative is the Waldheim collective farm. Organized by Feldhendler, a former tailor, it has been represented three times at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow. The farm has an annual profit of several million rubles.

The excellent work of the Jewish farmers is well rewarded by results. All the members of the collective farms lead a prosperous life.

Last year, the vegetable brigade headed by Shifra Koshina, who is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, harvested 38.4 tons of cabbage per hectare*, and the team headed by Basya Parkhina obtained an average of 48 tons per hectare. Iokheil Rak, the leading tractor driver of the Region, is a former cab driver. He enjoys merited respect among the farmers.

Three seed-growing farms have been organized in the Region for the purpose of furthering the development of agriculture. These farms are growing new varieties of vegetables, wheat, and potatoes adapted to the local conditions.

The climatic conditions of the Region were considered unsuitable for fruit growing before the arrival of the Jewish settlers, but this opinion was disproved by Jewish horticulturists. The pioneer of horticulture in the Region, agronomist Abraham Getlitz, is a follower of the famous Russian naturalist, Ivan Michurin. There are scores of large orchards in the Region at present and they yield a fine crop of fruit. Horticulture has become very popular among the local population.

Another thriving branch of the Region's economy is the fish industry. There are two new incubator hatcheries engaged in the propagation of valuable varieties of fish. During the last five years, the Teploozersk incubator alone bred and released into the rivers and lakes of the Region more than 250 million eight-month old fry.

The Jewish residents of the Region have likewise achieved success as apiarists. In 1947, the beekeepers of the Birofeld farm, Ruben Mikhailov and Shleime Polur, obtained 60 kilograms* of honey per hive.

The Soviet State is doing much to promote education among the Jewish people. Seventeen thousand, six hundred children are attending 75 elementary and 37 high schools of the Region, which also has four specialized high schools (medical, railway and teachers' training schools), a music school for children, 25 kindergartens and four industrial training schools. Last year alone, the State spent 18,300,000 rubles on the maintenance of these schools. A still greater sum is allocated for this purpose in 1948. The classes in most schools are conducted in the Yiddish language. There are 54 houses of culture, 24 cinemas, 29 libraries and 18 moviemobiles in the rural localities of the Region. The regional library in Birobijan owns more than 200 thousand volumes.

There are two daily newspapers published in the Region: *Birobijaner Shtern* in Yiddish and *Birobijanskaya Zvezda* in the Russian language. In addition to this, there are several district papers and a voluminous literary journal, *Birobijan,* which has a circulation of five thousand. The Region has a publishing house which supplies imaginative and political literature.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres

* One kilogram = 2.204 pounds

SURVEYING. Birobijan is constantly being developed. Surveying for a new mine.

SMALL FARMERS. Children of Birobijan.

The Kaganovich State Regional Theater of Birobijan has recently presented M. Gershenson's play *Hershl Ostropoler*. Another successful presentation is *He is from Birobijan,* penned by the local playwright B. Miller. Its characters are the citizens of Birobijan. The play mirrors their life and constructive efforts, their struggle to tame nature, and tells how they fought at the front. The life and construction of the Jewish Autonomous Region have inspired novels, short stories and poems by David Bergelson, Perets Markish, Aron Kushnirov, Samuel Galkin and other writers.

The number of health institutions of the Region has been growing from year to year and it now has 17 hospitals, 55 dispensaries, 32 polyclinics, a blood transfusion station, a sanitation and bacteriological center, x-ray and physiotherapeutic facilities and several maternity homes. Last year, the regional Soviet spent more than 12 million rubles on the maintenance of these services. The Region has its own health resorts, Kuldur and Ventselevsky. Thousands of working people come there every year to seek relief from rheumatism, gout and other ailments. The radioactive springs of these resorts possess excellent curative properties rated on a par with the famous Caucasian mineral springs.

The population of the Jewish Autonomous Region has been growing continuously. About 20 thousand new settlers moved to the Region during the last 18 months alone. Another group is en route at present. Many settlers come to the Region unskilled in any trade; they have become successful mechanics, turners and farmers.

The State renders substantial aid to these settlers. It pays their railway fare and baggage charges and grants credits for the construction of homes, the purchase of cattle, implements, etc. Last year, the State spent 12,800,000 rubles on transportation and grants to settlers. In addition to this, each family was granted 12 thousand rubles in long term credits; only six thousand rubles of this sum is to be refunded to the State within a six-year term. The settlers are exempt from taxation and deliveries of produce to the State for a period of ten years.

Mothers of large families and unmarried mothers of the Jewish Autonomous Region feel the constant solicitude of the Soviet Government. More than 3,500 of these families receive state allowances. The sum paid out in such allowances during the second half of last year alone exceeded nine million rubles. In recent years, 1,520 mothers of large families have been awarded Orders and medals and 27 mothers with families of 10 or more children have been honored with the proud title of Mother Heroine.

GOVERNMENT CENTER. The building of the Birobijan Regional Soviet.

FACTORY. A Birobijan clothing plant. Maria Zalovskaya is the worker in the foreground.

The residents of the Jewish Autonomous Region enjoy the democratic liberties and rights secured to all Soviet citizens by the Constitution of the USSR. Eighty-nine Deputies elected to the Regional Soviet include 43 women. The social composition of the Deputies is as follows: 39 workers, 17 collective farmers, 14 handicraftsmen and 19 intellectuals. The people of the Region elected five of their finest sons and daughters to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

A Jewish Officer's Story

By Colonel David Dragunsky
Twice Hero of the Soviet Union

MR. DREW MIDDLETON, the American newspaperman, is not a novice at anti-Soviet fabrications. He displayed no passion for the truth when he was a correspondent in Moscow. But his latest anti-Soviet effusion certainly takes the cake.

Middleton insinuates that there exists national discrimination in Russia; he says that Jews are kept out of universities and colleges, that demobilized Jewish officers are given worse jobs than those they held before the war, etc.

One can only wonder where Mr. Middleton got the idea for these flimsy fabrications. He certainly cannot claim to have witnessed any manifestations of anti-Semitism in the Soviet Union. Honest Americans who have visited our country know the truth. They can see for themselves that in the Soviet Union there is no trace of, and no room for, national or racial discrimination, anti-Semitism and other vices inherent in bourgeois society.

My own experiences—the experiences of a Jewish officer of the Soviet Army—give the lie to Mr. Middleton's assertions.

I am 38 years of age. I was born in the town of Svyatsk, Bryansk Region. My father was a tailor. There were nine of us in the family, and before the Revolution of 1917 we lived in poverty and could not dream of an education.

It was the Soviet system that enabled our family and hundreds of thousands of other poverty-stricken families to start life anew.

All my brothers and one sister were graduated from high school and some of them received a college education. My brother Zelig attended the Moscow Chemical Machinery Institute; my sister Haya was graduated from a teachers' college in Novozybkov; my brother Mikhail studied at a Textile Institute, and Shevel was graduated from a tank school and became an Army officer. I also joined the Army.

The war brought the Soviet people countless sufferings. The German barbarians shot my father and mother, a grandfather who was 79 years old, my grandmother, 75 years of age, and my sisters with their children. Altogether they murdered 74 of my relatives. My brothers died fighting for their country. Lieutenant Mikhail Dragunsky, a tankman, was 22 years old when he was killed in the battle of Kharkov. My brother Zelig, a sergeant major, fell near Lvov. My brother Shevel died while fighting for the liberation of Poland.

I myself was severely wounded five times. I began the war in the rank of senior lieutenant. My unit fought all the way from Moscow to Prague. All my comrades fought bravely. There were among them Russians, Uzbeks, Turkmenians, Georgians, Jews, Armenians, Ukrainians, Kazakhs, Kirghiz and representatives of other Soviet nationalities. We fought in the battles for the liberation of the Ukraine and Poland, stormed Berlin, and liberated the Czechoslovak capital, Prague.

We were all fired by a passionate love for our country, we all felt ourselves sons of one great Motherland.

By 1943 I had been promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel and was put in command of a tank brigade. In a battle west of Kiev my tank was hit and I was gravely wounded. The tank caught fire and it seemed that I was doomed. But my comrades, Sergeant Georgi Gazoshvili, a Georgian, and the tank driver Ibrahim Mingaleyev, a Tatar, came to my rescue and saved me at the risk of their own lives.

The Soviet Government decorated me with 17 Orders and medals. The title Hero of the Soviet Union was conferred on me twice, and this year a bronze bust of me is to be put up in my home town, Svyatsk. In 1945 I was invited, along with other officers, generals, soldiers and marshals of the Soviet Army, to attend a celebration in the Kremlin in honor of victory.

At present I attend a military academy. Among my fellow students at the Academy are a number of other Jewish war veterans: Ruvim Lapp, Wolfman, Berlin, to name but a few.

What do these facts leave of Mr. Middleton's allegations? Nothing. They show that Middleton's assertions are all pure fabrications. Their purpose is to poison the minds of people in preparation for a new war. But the Middletons will not succeed in sowing enmity among the peoples.

Birobijan

(Continued from preceding page)

Together with all the Soviet people, the citizens of the Jewish Autonomous Region courageously defended their Motherland against the German invaders. They were represented in all the services. Many gained distinction by their heroism and military prowess. More than two thousand inhabitants of the Jewish Autonomous Region received government decorations.

The Jewish people sacredly cherish the memory of their heroes, as, for example, Birobijanian Joseph Bumagin, who emulated the heroic example of the Russian soldier Matrosov. To help his company carry out its combat assignment and save the lives of his comrades, Bumagin pressed his body against the embrasure of an enemy pillbox. Lazar Papernik, a watchmaker in peacetime, fought to the last cartridge and when the Germans surrounded him, he used his last grenade to blow himself up together with the enemy soldiers.

The Jewish Autonomous Region has developed into one of the important Soviet centers of national culture. Expressing their appreciation for the solicitude displayed for them and the aid rendered to them, the inhabitants of the Region wrote in their letter to the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, J. V. Stalin, last September: "We wish to express to you, dear Joseph Vissarionovich, our wholehearted and deep appreciation of the attention given the needs of our Region, for your paternal solicitude for its further progress, for the assistance rendered to the settlers who desire to move to our fertile lands on the Amur."

New Trade Union Agreements

By J. Usherenko

THE drafting of new collective agreements between trade unions and managements for the year 1948 is now in full swing in the Soviet Union.

In some countries many people do not have a clear idea what a collective agreement in the Soviet Union is. There is a widespread notion abroad that in the USSR the collective agreement is a mere formality not binding upon anybody. Such a notion, to say the least, is a delusion. In the Soviet Union collective agreements are not only concluded in all factories, plants, offices, etc., but what is especially important, these agreements are strictly and loyally carried out by both the administration and the workers.

The signing of collective agreements for 1948 was preceded by a general check-up on the fulfillment of the collective agreements for 1947.

This check-up was conducted by the trade unions in more than 80 per cent of all establishments in the country. To get an idea of the magnitude of this work, it must be noted that in 1947 in the Soviet Union more than 25 thousand collective agreements were in force embracing 14 million workers and employees. More than 90 per cent of all the workers and employees took an active part in the discussions preparatory to the drafting of the 1947 collective agreements. Hundreds of thousands of workers introduced proposals, suggestions, and amendments.

These facts signify, first, the deep concern the Soviet workers and employees have for their collective agreements, which determine the conditions of work, norms and rates, social, communal and cultural undertakings that are to be carried out by the given enterprise; second, the thoroughly democratic manner in which trade union activity in the USSR is conducted: millions of workers directly participate in the actual working out of the collective agreement.

The relationship between the administration and the union is based on a truly democratic foundation. Under socialist conditions no business manager can work effectively without basing his work upon the support of the masses of the workers and the trade union which unites and represents these masses.

The collective agreement in the USSR manifests the new industrial relationships characteristic of the socialist order of society. It is a pact of mutual responsibility between the administration of the given enterprise on the one hand and the body of workers and employees on the other. The fact that the director of the enterprise and the workers in it are all equally employees of Soviet society and are alike interested in the promotion of its welfare does not at all mean that their respective roles and duties are identical.

The director of an enterprise is appointed by the State. He is vested with the power of a manager and is fully responsible for all the activities of the enterprise entrusted to his management. His foremost task is to provide the enterprise with labor power. Only he has the right to hire and discharge. He takes care that the enterprise fulfills its state production plans, works without waste or losses, and shows a profit. Upon the level and tempo of accumulation of capital funds in each enterprise depend the level and tempo of the continual growth of the economy of the whole country and the promotion of the material welfare of the working people.

In a Soviet enterprise the worker's main aim is continually to raise productivity and efficiency. By doing so he simultaneously promotes the interests of the State and his own personal interests. He strives to produce more goods for his country because the enterprise where he works belongs not to a company or a private individual who appropriates the profits but to the Soviet State, i.e., to the whole people, and consequently also to the individual worker.

Millions of Soviet workers participate in socialist competition striving to overfulfill their norms and quotas. The collective agreement consequently obligates the administration to provide the most favorable conditions for the best attainment of these aims. The better and more productively the Soviet worker works, the more he earns. And so the chief economic points of the collective agreements provide for the coordination of the State interests of the enterprise and the personal interests of those working in it.

The problem of the continual raising of the standard of living of the working class in the USSR is the chief concern of the trade unions, and this is provided for in the collective agreement.

The collective agreement in the USSR specifies the responsibility of the administration for the fulfillment of its obligations under the agreement, and also emphasizes the duty of each worker and employee in carrying out the collective agreement signed by their union.

The success of the Soviet economy in 1947 and the rise of the standard of living of the workers and employees in the USSR is outstanding proof of the vitality and expediency of the collective agreements in the land of socialism, as these agreements reflect the efforts of the Soviet workers and employees for the successful fulfillment of the first postwar Five-Year Plan.

The collective agreements in the USSR play a tremendous mobilizing role in the continual growth of the economic might of the USSR and the further promotion of the material welfare of the Soviet Union.

Stalin Prizes in the Arts

By O. Moshensky

THE award of Stalin Prizes for last year's literary works and films was announced in a decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, published in the Soviet press on April 2. The large number of works awarded Stalin Prizes this year attests to the progress of Soviet art.

Stalin prizes for distinguished works in literature and cinematography are awarded annually. They are the highest Soviet awards in art and science, and are of great significance in furthering Soviet culture.

A First Stalin Prize goes to Ilya Ehrenburg for his novel *The Tempest*. Its action begins on the eve of the Second World War. The author takes his heroes through the war and ends with Victory Day. He paints a vast canvas of events, taking the reader to France, the Soviet Union and Germany. With masterful strokes he paints excellent portraits of the Soviet people who fought against the Nazis and saved the freedom of their own country and of all mankind. With equal warmth the author presents the heroes of the French resistance movement and shows how the selfless struggle of the Soviet people inspired all the sincere friends of freedom in different countries to heroic feats.

Another First Stalin Prize Winner, *The Silver Birch*, a novel by the young writer Mikhail Bubennov, deals with events relating to the early months of the Hitlerite invasion of the USSR. The author shows what a tremendous price was paid by the Nazis for their transient successes and how the ranks of the Soviet patriots who joined the Army were strengthened and steeled in battle. The concluding events depict the battles fought on the approaches to Moscow in the autumn of 1941.

The third winner of a First Stalin Prize is Peter Pavelnko's novel *Happiness*. The principal hero, Colonel Voropayev, becomes an invalid at the end of the war. He goes to the Crimea intending to settle to a calm, quiet life. It seems there is nothing else left for a man in his condition. But Voropayev belongs to the generation whose outlook has been molded by the Soviet system. Possessing exceptional vitality, and accustomed to regard service to his people as the purpose of his existence, Voropayev very soon abandons the idea of a quiet life. He joins with the people in the effort to restore the war-wrecked Crimea. And in this work Voropayev recovers his happiness.

Ilya Ehrenburg

Vera Panova

The sterling qualities displayed by the Soviet people during the war are depicted by Alexander Gonchar in his novel *Standard-Bearers*, and by Emmanuil Kazakevich in *Star*. The heroes of both books are front-line fighters. Victor Avdeyev has chosen as the plot for *Herds on the Road* what would seem at first glance a rather prosaic subject. He tells how the workers of a Ukrainian state livestock farm evacuated the cattle, during the war, from the menaced districts to the East. But the patriotism of his heroes and their devotion to the country lend a romantic touch to the story which is truly inspiring.

Fedor Panferov's novel *The Struggle for Peace* likewise deals with events of the war. Action in this novel takes place simultaneously in the rear and at the front. Vera Ketlinskaya's novel *Besieged* deals with the heroic defense of Leningrad.

The novel *Kruzhilikha*, which gained its author, Vera Panova, a Stalin Prize, second class, describes the life of the workers of a large plant during the last months of the war and after.

Special mention should be made of the prizewinners which represent a genre which occupies a place of prominence in Soviet literature—the documental genre. Ivan Kozlov's memoirs *The Crimean Underground* have become immensely popular among Soviet readers. The author, a veteran Communist, was one of the leaders of the resistance movement in the German-occupied Crimea.

The life and work of the people engaged in the restoration of the German-ruined Donbas inspire Boris Galin's sketches *In the Donbas* and *In An Inhabited Place*. These stories give a vivid idea of the organizing role of the Communists in the restoration effort. Lastly, *The Map of My Country*, penned by the eminent geographer, Nikolai Mikhailov, tells of the changes which have taken place in the country's geography, its indus-

trial and agricultural progress, during the thirty years of Soviet government.

A prominent place among the books awarded prizes belongs, in addition to works dealing with the war and postwar years, to the historical novel. The latter is represented by Valentine Kostylev's novel *Ivan the Terrible; The Decisive Step,* by the Turkmenian writer Berdy Karbabayev, which deals with the October Revolution and the Civil war in Turkmenia; and *The Road to Happiness,* by the Adygei writer Tembor Kerashev, depicting the life in the Adygei region in 1917-1929.

Books for children are represented among the prizewinners by Joseph Likstanov's *Little Tot.*

A First Stalin Prize for poetry goes to the Ukrainian poet Vladimir Sosiura for his volume of verse *Let the Orchards Rustle* and to the young poets Alexei Nedogonov for *The Flag Over the Village Soviet* and Nikolai Gribachev *The "Bolshevik" Collective Farm,* both depicting life in the contemporary Soviet village.

The Second Stalin Prizewinners in poetry are the Latvian Jan Sudrabkaln for his volume of verse *In The Brotherly Family,* the Byelorussian poet Maxim Tank for the volume *Had We But Known* and the Tajik poet Mirzo Tursun-Zade for his verse about India, inspired by a recent visit to that country.

The winners in dramaturgy are Boris Romashov and the Estonian playwright August Jacobson. The former received the high award for *The Great Force,* a play about Soviet scientists, and the latter for *The Struggle Without a Battle-Line* which deals with the revolutionary struggle in old, bourgeois Estonia; Nikolai Virta for *Our Daily Bread* and Anatole Sofronov for the play *In a Certain Town.*

Among the literary critics and scholars awarded prizes are Academician Boris Asafyev for his research on Glinka, Solomon Meilakh for his book *Lenin and the Problems of Russian Literature at the End of the Nineteenth and Beginning of the Twentieth Centuries,* and Militsa Nechkina for her book *Griboyedov and the Decembrists.*

Stalin Prizes in cinematography have been awarded to the directors and members of the casts who produced the films *The Story of Siberia, Village School Teacher, Russian Question, Life in a Citadel, The Exploit of a Scout, Pirogov* and *Alisher Navoi*—the latter two on historical subjects; six newsreels were also awarded prizes: *A Day in the Victorious Country, Soviet Ukraine, Moscow, the Capital of the USSR, Soviet Latvia, Soviet Air Force Day* and *All-Union Physical Culture Parade of 1947.*

An analysis of the prizes awarded in literature and cinematography furnishes material for some conclusions about Soviet art.

To begin with, along with Russian authors, writers and artists of other Soviet nationalities are widely represented among the prizewinners. Prizes have been awarded to writers of the Ukraine and Byelorussia, Latvia and Estonia, Turkmenia and Tajikistan, and the Adygei Autonomous Republic which is part of the Russian Federation; to the artists who produced the Uzbek film *Alisher Navoi* (the producer of which is Kemil Yarmatov) and the Estonian movie *Life in a Citadel* (produced by Herbert Rappoport).

The Soviet national policy has brought about the progress of art among all the peoples of the USSR, including nationalities known as backward before the Revolution, as the Adygei people, for example.

Another noteworthy feature is the fact that budding writers (Alexander Gonchar, for example) are represented among the prizewinners together with such recognized men of letters as Ilya Ehrenburg, or Jan Sudrabkaln.

New names are constantly added to the list of luminaries of Soviet literature and art. This is due to the fact that real talent flourishes on the soil of the USSR, where art is held in high esteem and receives every encouragement and assistance.

Another feature that strikes the eye is the wealth of themes and genres. Every distinguished work of Soviet art possesses its own inimitable qualities, which is characteristic of genuine talent.

One Prizewinner

From an article by Lev Krupennikov
Soviet Critic

AMONG the Soviet writers recently awarded Stalin Prizes for the year 1947, is the journalist Boris Galin. The Prize was awarded to him for the books *In the Donets Basin* and *One Settlement.*

In the stories collected in his book *In the Donets Basin* Galin describes the great efforts to restore what was destroyed, to revive this famed industrial area. The beginning of these efforts, in fact, dates back to the darkest days of the war, in the autumn of 1941, when trains were leaving the Donets Basin for the East loaded with dismantled factory equipment—machine tools, presses, electric motors, etc. Engineers and workers of the respective factories went along with the equipment.

Boris Galin tells the stirring story of the travels of an old engineer, Kuzma Mogilevsky, along with a carload of blueprints, plane tables, geodetical instruments, etc.—the designing equipment and technical brain of the Stalin Iron and Steel Works, one of the oldest plants in the Donets Basin.

Engineer Mogilevsky never doubted that the designing equipment would still be needed. He was certain of victory.

When the job of rebuilding the plant was tackled, it was found that material resources were not the only things needed. Creative resources were as essential. These resources meant: human will, talent, self-confidence, determination to overcome unprecedented obstacles and difficulties. And it is these "creative resources" that Boris Galin treats of primarily in his book.

One Settlement is a stirring, poetical story, dealing with the rebuilding of a mining settlement. It derives its quality to no small degree from the nature of the activity it describes, the unparalleled heroism and resourcefulness in the accomplishment of the postwar tasks facing Soviet people.

As in the first story, the author dwells primarily upon the "creative resources," the mental capacities and high moral qualities of the Soviet people he describes.

Progress in Agriculture

By P. Lobanov

Assistant Minister of Agriculture of the USSR

SPRING field work has begun in the Soviet Union. Sowing has begun in the southern Ukraine, in the Kuban, in the republics of Central Asia and of Transcaucasia. The extent of sowing is increasing day by day. The Soviet peasantry has greeted the spring with extensive emulation in its efforts to achieve further development of all branches of agriculture. This emulation was initiated by the grain growers of Altai Territory (Siberia), who addressed a letter to J. V. Stalin in which they pledged themselves to secure a high harvest this year and called upon the Soviet peasantry to make 1948 the decisive year in the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan.

What is the meaning of the term "decisive year?" It means, first, that in the case of many crops, sowing areas and harvest yields should in the current year exceed the prewar level. It means, secondly, that by the end of 1948 the prewar level of the number of cattle, sheep and goats in collective farms should be surpassed, and that all socialized animal husbandry should greatly develop. Soviet agriculturists have decided to create this year a firm foundation for fulfilling the five-year plan for agriculture in four years. That is why 1948 is called the decisive year.

An idea of the grandeur of the tasks, of the tempo of growth of agriculture in 1948 may be gained from the fact that the state plan provides for a 15.5 per cent increase in this year's sowing area against that of 1947. In the case of spring wheat this increase is to constitute 35 per cent, of flax 36 per cent, and of potatoes 47 per cent. Along with the increase in sowing areas a further rise in crop yields is also called for.

The letter of the peasants of Altai Territory met with a warm response. Collective farmers of the Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Voronezh Region and other places have already joined in the emulation movement. The number of Soviet peasants doing so is growing apace. And the fact that this emulation has become a nationwide movement is an evidence of the tremendous upsurge of the Soviet peasantry, of its firm resolution not only to fulfill, but also to exceed the plan for the development of agriculture outlined by the Soviet State for this year.

This determination of the Soviet peasantry is based on a perfectly realistic and firm foundation. The peasants have at their disposal countless material assets in the form of machines which the Soviet State is supplying to agriculture, necessary stocks of pure selected seeds and mineral fertilizers, many years of experience of collective

HEROINE. Zamira Mutalova, though she is only 17, has been named a Hero of Socialist Labor for her fine farming.

farm construction, of collective labor on their collectively owned land.

On the basis of the immense aid of the State and the power of collective labor, and by widely utilizing agronomic science, the Soviet peasants had already achieved great successes last year. Neither the serious consequences of the war, nor the drought which followed it, prevented them from reaping a rich harvest in 1947 and ensuring a decisive rise in agriculture. Last year, which to all intents and purposes was the second year of peaceful construction, grain crop yields attained the prewar level, and the State received approximately as much grain as in the best prewar years.

Last year's successes have created favorable conditions for a further, still more powerful development and growth of agriculture. Crop rotations, which had been violated in the war years, were put in order in 1947, grass sowings increased considerably, the State increased the supply of mineral fertilizers, chemicals, agricultural implements and selected seeds to the village. A firm foundation was laid in 1947 for this year's harvest: The area under winter crop sowings was 3,500,000 hectares more than in the autumn of 1946, and autumn plowing correspondingly increased by eight million hectares. In the current spring all the chief crops are being sown on autumn-plowed land.

Mass emulation among Soviet peasants for the postwar rise in agriculture was inaugurated last year, and turned into a truly nationwide movement. In the steadfast struggle for a big harvest, splendid masters of collective farm production, advanced and efficient agriculturists, have come to the fore in Soviet villages. They have learned to obtain crop yields of three to four tons of grain per hectare on the lands in Moscow Region, as well as under the severe climatic conditions of Siberia and in other regions. The Soviet State and people have expressed their great appreciation of the feats of labor of these men and women. The title of Hero of Socialist Labor—the highest honor in the Soviet Union—was conferred on many of them. More than six hundred collective farmers were awarded this title in the Ukrainian, Tajik and Georgian Republics.

These heroes have many followers and their experience is becoming the possession of millions. A distinguishing feature of this year's work is that strenuous efforts for a bumper harvest will be made not only by individual groups of collective farmers and individual masters of high harvests, but by the broad masses of collective farmers. In taking the lead in the campaign for a big harvest in 1948, the Altai grain growers have promised Stalin to carry out, on large areas, exemplary agronomic technique which had previously been applied only by the foremost on certain sections, to raise the crop yield on every hectare of collective farm land.

State machine and tractor stations will play a decisive role in fulfilling this year's plan for agricultural work. Their tractors have been fully prepared for the current spring and are supplemented by a large number of new machines. In February of this year Soviet industry produced 2.5 times more tractors than during the same month of 1947. A large number of machines of postwar production, including 80-horsepower tractors with diesel engines, is now working on the fields of the USSR. The volume of tractor work in the country as a whole has increased by 17 per cent as compared to last year, and will almost attain the prewar level. All laborious work in collective farms—spring plowing, fallow and autumn plowing, cultivation—will be 70 to 80 per cent mechanized, and sowing 50 per cent.

The success of Soviet agriculture will be furthered by the introduction everywhere of the latest methods of cultivation of crops: check-row sowing, artificial pollination of plants, presowing treatment of seeds which augments their sprouting, vernalization, mass top-dressing of winter crops.

On the basis of state aid and of last year's achievements, the collective farm peasantry is fighting for the fulfillment of the agricultural Five-Year Plan in four years. The first news from the fields already testifies to the high pace and high quality of the field work.

The year 1948 will be decisive in the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan. The Soviet peasantry will keep its word. An earnest of this is not only last year's achievements, but also the whole experience of collective farming.

Silk from Oak Leaves

By Ludmilla Uvarova

MARIA PAVELIEVA, veteran scientific worker of the Academy of Agricultural Sciences named in honor of Lenin, is very rarely to be found in Moscow. Most of the year, Pavelieva, travels through the various regions of the Soviet Union.

Ten years ago Maria Pavelieva organized the first station for the breeding of silkworms to feed on oak leaves. This was in a place called Nukhe, located in the mountains of Azerbaijan. The first experiments produced excellent results.

Before the Revolution, silkworms were bred only on the mulberry tree in Russia. This was complicated work, and, besides mulberry trees grew only in the southern part of the country. Pavelieva was the first to utilize for this purpose the oak tree which is common throughout the country, and needs very little attention. In order to verify her idea, she traveled over vast parts of the country, from Middle Asia to the Ussuri Taiga.

At the beginning of the war, the number of collective farms which went in for oak-tree silkworm breeding amounted to several hundred. In 1940 they supplied the State with two hundred tons of cocoons, each cocoon yielding as much as seven hundred meters of silk thread. (The mulberry tree cocoon yields on an average one thousand meters of thread.)

"Thirty-five years ago," Pavelieva told me, "I was the first woman agronomist in Russia. My bosses did not like me, and the peasants themselves had no trust in a woman agronomist. But I did not give in and continued to work."

Pavelieva tells about her work. Her success in breeding the oak-tree silkworm was very encouraging, and she decided to direct her efforts toward breeding a birch-tree silkworm. In this too she succeeded. She travelled through the districts of the country which abound in birches, and wherever she went, new silk farms appeared.

FARM MEETING. A group of collective farmers talks things over at the farm clubhouse.

Planning on Collective Farms

By I. Petukhov

DURING the course of but one year the Soviet Union has surmounted the difficulties engendered by the 1946 drought and has achieved a sharp rise in agricultural production.

This achievment is a result of the work of many thousands of collective farms, each of them conducting its farming on the basis of a plan. This plan is integrated with the state plan for agriculture.

Now, to what extent is this integration done?

The collective farm is a co-operative whose riches belong to its members, the collective farmers. State planning does not cover everything, but only the basic elements of the work of the collective farm. The State determines the dimensions of the sowing areas, sets a certain minimum number of cattle, fixes the amount of grain to be sold to the State; this constitutes an insignificant part of the harvest and amounts to a few kilograms per hectare.

On the basis of these objectives, each collective farm prepares its annual plan, consisting of a production plan and estimates of income and expenditure. This plan provides for a proper utilization of the land of the collective farm, harmonious development of all branches of collective farming, the building of various structures, rational utilization of machines and draft animals, proper distribution of income, etc. The plan is drawn up with due regard to the fulfillment of the collective farm's obligations to the State, and provision is made for the reserve and other funds in accordance with the rules of the collective farm for the extension of the various branches of farming so as to secure higher incomes for the collective farmers. On the basis of the general plan, programs are drawn up for the work of brigades and groups, also working plans for spring sowing, harvesting, etc. Long-range plans for the development of the collective farm are usually drawn up for five years. All the plans are fully discussed at, and are subject to the approval of the general meetings of the collective farmers.

The Soviet State renders constant aid to the collective farms, helping them to fulfill and exceed their production plans. State machine and tractor stations till the farm lands by contract, gather the harvest and render agrotechnical and organizational assistance. The State supplies the collective farms with mineral fertilizers, pure selected seeds, machines and chemicals.

The collective farmers are directly interested in exceeding the plans for crop yields and the productivity of animal husbandry, since this ensures the growth of the wealth of the collective farm, of the income of its members, besides enhancing the economic might of the country. Collective farmers who exceed the plan receive additional pay in money and in kind.

The planning of work by the State serves to mobilize all the forces of the collective farms for their fulfillment of the plans and to develop the initiative of the farmers, opening up unlimited possibilities for enriching the collective farms. It should be remembered that however high the harvests obtained by the collective farm, however great its incomes from animal husbandry and other branches of farming, it all belongs to and is managed by the collective farmers.

The planning system of co-operative farming, and the real possibilities for the collective farms to fulfill the plans, create favorable conditions for the steady growth of the economic might of the State, for the growth of the wealth of the collective farms, and along with it, raise the standard of living of the Soviet farming population.

TAMARA KHANUM. The great Uzbek dancer.

UKRAINIAN DANCE. Margarita Ivanova, Boris Lavrukhin, and the ensemble, in the "Springtide" suite.

Soviet Folk Dances

"BULBA." A Byelorussian dance.

STEP DANCE. A Russian national dance, by Klavdia Kukhtarova and Lydia Timofeyeva.

CHABUKIANI. The choreographer in a Georgian dance.

Soviet Choreography

By Nikolai Volkov
Theater Critic

Soviet choreography comprises not only the ballet but also the art of folk dancing, which is carefully studied and produced on concert stages by a number of folk dance ensembles. A real treasury of dances which admirably characterize the cultures peculiar to various peoples are to be found in the multi-national Soviet Union.

At the initial All-Union festival of folk dances arranged in Moscow some ten years ago, the public first became acquainted with the wealth and specific character of these dances, which took the spectator, as it were, on a fascinating trip through the vast expanses of the country.

It was the infinite variety of national dances in the Soviet Union that served as an impetus for the formation of such an interesting choreographic group as the State Ensemble of Folk Dances of the USSR, headed by balletmaster Igor Moiseyev. During the ten years of its existence the Ensemble has created many programs, the numbers of which are distinctive of the dance art of the peoples of the USSR and the other Slav countries. Moiseyev is one of those fine artists who delves deeply into national dance idiom, and in creating a dance provides it with a plot in dance suites.

No matter whether the members of the Ensemble perform a graceful Russian dance, a spirited Krakowjak or a Czechoslovakian polka, they are all genuinely inspired and worked out thoroughly in every detail. Moiseyev never stylizes the movements of folk dances; he enhances their design and composition on the basis of the folklore that is inherent in the given people. The Byelorussian *Lyavonikha*, for example, created by Moiseyev on the basis of folklore material, is danced by the Byelorussian people in their country exactly as it is performed by the State Ensemble of Folk Dances of the USSR.

The foremost Uzbek dancer, Tamara Khanum, plays an important role in the popularization of folk dances. She is not only a gifted performer of dances of the peoples of Middle Asia, but is a profound connoisseur of those dance traditions which are handed down from generation to generation. She captivates her audiences with her extraordinary skill, musicianship and sense of rhythm. The movements of her hands speak more eloquently than words. When she renders the dance *Gathering Cotton* she literally tells the story of how the "white gold" of Uzbekistan—cotton—is cultivated under the sultry sun of that land.

"SWAN LAKE." M. Plisetskaya and V. Preobrazhensky.

It should be pointed out here that folk dances are closely connected with and have a great influence on the Soviet ballet. The mastery of folk dancing has enriched the so-called character dance—one of the elements of Soviet ballet. Hence, in the ballet *The Heart of the Mountains*, produced by the Kirov Theater of Opera and Ballet in Leningrad and directed by balletmaster Vakhtang Chabukiani, the Georgian composer, Andrei Balanchivadze, has made excellent use of the Adjar martial dance *Khorum*, having added to its performance a dramatic character, and merged it integrally with the development of the action.

The classic dance is the principal element of Soviet ballet. With their perfect command of the intricate technique of the classic movements, Russian male and female dancers give character portrayals in the ballet. In watching our foremost ballet dancers, therefore, one distinguishes their individual design of the dance and their original treatment of the roles. This applies to the roles of such universally known ballets as Tchaikovsky's *The Sleeping Beauty*, *Swan Lake*, *Nutcracker Suite*, and new ballets.

In working out a dramatic ballet production the librettist, composer and balletmaster develop the main idea, refraining from including any sort of divertissement in the structure of the spectacle. Each solo, duet and ensemble dance has to be a link in the dramatic action. Soviet balletmasters, especially such highly reputed ones as L. Lavrovsky, R. Zakharov, V. Chabukiani, A. Ermolayev, V. Vainonen, and V. Burmeister, invest the composition of the dance with dramatic content. The pantomime parts are in the nature of choreographic recitatives which set off the melodic vein of the variations and adagio.

Realism is the intrinsic feature of Soviet ballet and of all Soviet art. Soviet ballets are distinguished for poetic inspiration, a feeling of the truth of life, emotion and expression.

In Soviet ballet the artistic idiom is different from opera and drama, yet it bears a distinct kinship to opera and drama in its unity of ideas. The Soviet theater in all its genres is an art which strives to inculcate in its audiences lofty and finer feelings, advances ideas, new perceptions of life. The main principle of Soviet choreography is artistic realism, which lends to the ballet completeness, purpose and a monolithic quality. Soviet ballet abounds in human passions and thoughts.

While preserving the best traditions of the old Russian classic ballet the leaders of Soviet choreography have elevated the art of the theatrical dance to a very high artistic level.

A New Industrial City

By J. Tsvetov

STALINOGORSK is a miners' town, in the heart of the Moscow Coal Basin. It is one of those Soviet towns which grew up during the prewar Stalin Five-Year Plans.

The houses along the streets and squares form harmonious architectural ensembles. Along one of the thoroughfares is a straight row of six-story buildings: a polyclinic, a department store, a restaurant, dwelling houses with fine colonnades and porticoes.

Above a broad square, towers a statue of the leader of the Soviet people, J. V. Stalin, for whom the city is named. On the square also is a white marble Roll of Honor, resembling a gigantic open book. Inscribed here are the names of leading miners, who have set an example of high productivity by applying efficient and labor-saving methods. The semi-circle of columns at the facade of the office building of the Moscow Coal Trust is decorated with sculptured figures of coal miners. Next to it stands the city theater, which has a beautifully ornamented arch.

Stalinogorsk, which is only 15 years old and is a district center in Moscow Region, has 15 high schools; five specialized schools; three hospitals; 30 kindergartens and nurseries; libraries; laboratories; a music school; an art studio; an airport; a railway station; a stadium; river stations and parks.

The town is still in scaffolding. Here, for example, a new theater is being built and there on the square, a railway station will stand. Palaces of Culture for miners, power engineers, and chemical workers, a clubhouse for children of the Young Pioneers organization, and new schools are to be built. During the period of the current Five-Year Plan (1946-1950) 120 large new buildings will be built in Stalinogorsk.

Stalinogorsk is the center of the Moscow Coal Basin's extensive deposits of brown coal (lignite). The tsarist government underestimated the importance of this coal field, which is so near the Moscow factories and mills and many big railway junctions, and as a result it was hardly developed before the Revolution.

On the eve of the Second World War the mines of the Moscow Coal Basin produced 15.5 times more coal than in pre-Revolutionary times, and its present output is 2.5 times more than before the war. Most of the mines have been built during the Soviet period, and they are equipped in accordance with the last word in technique. Working underground are powerful Soviet-made coal cutting machines, pneumatic picks, scraper transporters, conveyors, electric locomotives. The pits are equipped with a first class ventilation system.

By the final year of the Five-Year Plan, 1950, the mines of the Moscow Coal Basin will become still richer in technical equipment. They will be supplied with hundreds of new coal cutting machines, electric locomotives and transports, dozens of coal mining combines, and other machinery. Automatic remote control of transporters and pumps will enable one man to do the present work of many, and will release thousands of miners for other work.

The high mechanical level of mining requires skilled miners, and consequently many technical training courses are given in Stalinogorsk. Whereas before the Revolution there were only twelve engineers and 42 technicians in the Moscow Coal Basin, there will be more than eight hundred engineers and technicians working here in 1950.

Stalinogorsk is not only a center of the Moscow Coal Basin; it is also a city of large industrial enterprises. The Stalin Chemical Works produces valuable nitrogen fertilizers. The Stalinogorsk Power Station, after all its turbines are put into operation, will be the largest steam-driven power plant in Europe. It supplies electricity not only to the Moscow Coal Basin, but also to the city of Moscow.

Geologists have discovered near Stalinogorsk deposits of fireproof clays, limestone, and gypsum. All this opens alluring new prospects for the young city.

The war left its traces in Stalinogorsk. A number of the plants, mines and buildings were destroyed, but many have already been rehabilitated. The people are working heart and soul for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

STALINOGORSK. Wrecked by the Nazis, it has been restored.

Notes on Soviet Life

INTERESTING facts were revealed at the All-Russian conference of librarians held recently in Moscow. The first Russian library was founded more than nine hundred years ago, and by 1914 tsarist Russia had 12,600 public libraries with a total of approximately nine million volumes. During the Soviet period, the number of libraries in the country has increased to 250 thousand. Their collections include 500 million books and magazines, i. e., 55 times more than in pre-Revolutionary Russia. The USSR has one library for every 2,197 persons whereas the average in the USA, for instance, is one library per 20,331, and in Japan—one per 70 thousand persons.

★

Production of machines for clearing the unopened cotton bolls has been started by the Tashkent Agricultural Machinery Works. The productivity of the machine is 30 tons in a 24-hour day. The machine replaces the daily labor of 500 persons.

★

The Soviet Union is preparing for the 100th anniversary of the death of the great Russian critic and revolutionary democrat, Vissarion Belinsky, which will be marked on June 7, 1948. The chairman of the commemoration committee formed by the Council of Ministers of the USSR is the noted Soviet author, Alexander Fadeyev; and the 39 members are eminent representatives of Soviet science, literature and art and representatives of Communist Party and public organizations.

In connection with the anniversary, a new edition of the complete works of Belinsky will be published. Two Belinsky Prizes will be awarded annually for the best works of literary criticism. Belinsky stipends are to be inaugurated at a number of high schools. A special historical feature film dedicated to Belinsky is being produced. Monuments to the famous Russian critic will be erected in Moscow and Leningrad.

Teachers' Day is kept every year in the Vologda Region, in the north of the European part of the USSR. The teachers of all the schools in the region attended a meeting held on this day in the city Culture Palace, and heard the decision of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR conferring the title of "Honored Teacher" on a number of local teachers.

★

A method of rapidly restoring frost-nipped grapevines has been worked out by Bashirov, Soviet viticulturist of the Tashkent Champagne Winery (Central Asia). Usually such vines begin to bear fruit after three years. Bashirov's method of pruning the tops makes it possible to have grapes in the first year. By applying this method, the Bulingur State Viticultural Farm harvested in 1947 several hundred tons of grapes from frost-bitten vines.

★

Twenty new bookshops were opened in 1947 in the villages of the Altai Territory (Siberia). In 11 months of 1947, the rural population of the USSR purchased twice as many books as during the whole of 1946.

A bumper cotton harvest was gathered in 1947 by the collective farms of Yangi-Yul District of the Uzbek Republic. On the 26,687 acres under cotton in the district a crop yield of 2.35 tons of cotton per hectare (2.47 acres) was harvested, and the quantity of cotton sold to the State was 4,355 tons more than in 1946. Fifteen collective farms harvested from 2.5 to 3 tons, and thirteen farms, more than three tons of cotton per hectare. The crop yield obtained by the Kaganovich collective farm amounted to almost four tons per hectare.

Correction

An inexact translation of paragraph 6 of the text of Joseph Stalin's speech at the dinner given for the Finnish Government delegation was printed in USSR Information Bulletin Number 7, April 14, 1948, page 201.

The beginning of the paragraph should read: "What is needed is that this should be well understood not only by those present . . ."

On page 224 of the same issue, the footnote should read: "One hectare = 2.471 acres."

Moscow Radio Broadcasts in English

(May 1-May 16)

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from May 1 to 16 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88, and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

May Day Holiday Programs—Saturday and Sunday, May 1 and 2.

Weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners—Saturdays, May 1, 8 and 15.

Concerts and talks on literature—Sundays, May 2, 9 and 16.

Programs for Youth — Tuesdays, May 4 and 11.

Soviet Press and Radio—Wednesday and Thursday, May 5 and 6.

Public Health Program—Thursday, May 6.

Program on Popov, the Inventor of radio—Friday, May 7.

Victory Day Program—Sunday, May 9.

Economic affairs — Monday and Thursday, May 10 and 13.

Cultural Programs—Wednesday and Friday, May 12 and 14.

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MAY 12, 1948

VICTORY DAY. Happy crowds and dancers celebrate the 1947 anniversary of victory over Nazi Germany. FRONT COVER. A demobilized soldier, A. Loshchino, returns to his village. (Story on demobilization, p. 278.) BACK COVER. Monument to soldiers of the liberating Soviet Army.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

—Painting by B. Karpov

Generalissimo Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin

In the eyes of the nations of the whole world, recognition of the fact that the Soviet people saved the civilization of Europe from the fascist vandals is also a recognition of the exceptional services of the leader of communism and the great Army leader of the Soviet Union, Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin.

—V. M. Molotov, November 6, 1947

VICTORY DAY. Moscow resounds to the 30 artillery salvos with which victory was greeted. Fireworks and searchlights brighten the city.

May 9—Day of Glory of the Soviet Army and People

By Colonel N. Bakanov

As the years pass, we more and more begin to realize the greatness of the feat of the Soviet people, who saved European civilization from Nazi barbarism. The heroic Soviet people and their army proved to be the only force capable of routing fascism and burying the criminal plans of world reaction, which unleashed the cruelest of all wars.

When Hitler fell upon the Soviet Union, he had already scored important military success in Europe. "Some countries," said V. M. Molotov, "fascist Italy, for instance, became his obedient satellites; other European countries, France, for example, owing to the pro-fascist servility of her ruling circles, lay prostrate under his heel. Over Britain, on whose territory no foreign enemy had set foot for many centuries, hung the most dangerous threat of German invasion . . .

". . . On the 27th anniversary of the October Revolution Comrade Stalin paid tribute to the services of the Soviet people in words known to the whole world, when he said:

" 'Today, when the Patriotic War is drawing to its victorious conclusion, the historic role of the Soviet people is revealed in its full greatness. It is universally acknowledged now that by their selfless struggle the Soviet people have saved the civilization of Europe from the fascist vandals. That is the great service rendered by the Soviet people to the history of mankind.' "

Having set up a huge, well equipped, well trained army, and a strong economic base, strengthened at the expense of the European countries, the Hitlerites believed that success was certain. Starting the war against the Soviet Union, they proclaimed that they would achieve a "lightning" victory. They hoped to set up a general coalition against the USSR; they were convinced that the Soviet social and political system was unsound and the Soviet Army weak.

Hitler's adventurous plans collapsed. In the face of the approaching danger the USSR became an undivided, impregnable camp, thus burying the enemy's hopes of internal strife. The liberty-loving peoples of Europe and America rallied around the USSR, joining the anti-fascist coalition. Armed with Stalin's strategy and tactics, the Soviet Army changed the course of the war. Socialism, which the Soviet people had built up under the leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin, was the chief and inexhaustible source of the strength of the Soviet Union.

The Germans learned their first lesson in the general engagement near Moscow, where Soviet troops destroyed

the myth of the "invincibility" of the Wehrmacht. The enemy sustained another crushing defeat at the gates of Stalingrad. In the battle of Kursk, Soviet troops brought the German fascist army to the brink of catastrophe.

During 1944 and 1945 the Soviet Army carried out a series of brilliant offensive operations, in the course of which it cleared Soviet territory of the enemy, knocked Germany's allies out of the war, helped Yugoslavia to drive the Germans out, helped the peoples of Poland and Czechoslovakia, and finished by dealing the Hitlerite army its death blow in Berlin. Then it routed the Japanese Kwantung Army in the Far East and thus put an end to the Second World War.

The Berlin operation, which was the concluding stage of the Patriotic War waged by the Soviet people, demonstrated the perfection of the Stalin science of war, and the brilliance of the Soviet Army's strategy and tactics.

This operation was carried out in record time. By April 19 the German defense line was breached and Soviet troops had begun an operational maneuver calculated to surround the enemy's Berlin group. On the night of April 24, that is, nine days after the offensive was launched, the striking armies of the First Byelorussian and the First Ukrainian fronts linked. The ring enclosed several hundred thousand German soldiers and officers. Meanwhile other striking groups of the Soviet Army split the encircled enemy in two. On April 25, Soviet troops emerged at the Elbe and in the area of Torgau linked with the Americans.

The Germans defended their positions stubbornly. They tried to frustrate the Soviet operation. The Hitler command brought twelve fresh divisions into action, utilized special units, the army schools, and detachments of the Volkssturm. But the dashing advance of the Soviet troops upset the plans of the enemy.

A group of German fascist troops surrounded in the woodland southeast of Berlin made several attempts to force the iron ring, but failed to achieve their purpose. The Soviet troops split the group and on April 30 liquidated it.

The strong fascist army surrounded in Berlin resisted fiercely. The battle for the Nazi capital raged day and night for twelve days. The thunder of the guns was so terrific and the concussion so great that many of the walls of the wrecked houses tumbled down.

IN BERLIN. Soviet tankmen listen to Stalin's Order of the Day.

FLAG OF VICTORY. The Soviet flag is raised in Berlin as the Nazi capital capitulates.

The Germans strengthened every possible line of defense. Battles raged in the air, on the ground and even in the dark gloomy tunnels of the Berlin subway. The flames licked the clothes of the Soviet soldiers; they were blinded by the smoke, fires blocked their way, but they continued to advance, bent on hoisting the victory flag over Berlin. On May 2 remnants of the German force, encircled in a small sector of the city, capitulated. By then the victory flag already fluttered over the Reichstag.

Thus ended the battle of Berlin. From May 3 until May 7 Soviet troops advanced to the Elbe on a wide front, mopping up scattered enemy units. On May 8 the German command signed the terms of unconditional surrender.

The Berlin operation was the last link in the long chain of battles which settled Germany's fate.

The Soviet people and their Army upheld the honor, the liberty and the independence of their country; they saved world civilization from the Nazi invaders. They freed the peoples of Europe, including the German people, from the Nazi yoke. Such was the great and historic feat of the Soviet people.

The Economic Victory of the USSR In the Second World War

By Professor F. Koshelev

The Second World War was a severe test for the Soviet social and state system. This test was passed by the Soviet system with credit. The Soviet Union won not only a military, but also an economic victory over the enemy. This historically significant fact attests to the great advantages inherent in the socialist system of economy, which is based on public ownership of the means of production and on state planning. And hence exists the most important characteristic of the development of socialist national economy—uninterrupted progress, absence of crises and depressions. This rule operates in peace as well as in war.

The material foundation for the economic victory of the USSR over Hitler Germany and her allies was laid during the prewar Stalin Five-Year Plan periods, which transformed the Soviet Union into a mighty industrial and collective farm power. Long before the war the USSR advanced to the leading place in Europe for the volume of industrial production, outdistancing Germany, Britain and France within a brief space of time.

The treacherous invasion of Nazi Germany necessitated the immediate conversion of Soviet national economy to war production. This process too was facilitated by the advantages of the socialist system, and in particular by the role of the Soviet State as the organizer and leader of the entire national economy of the country. The State Defense Committee of the USSR, in whose hands all state power was concentrated during the war, immediately elaborated an extensive program for the conversion of the national economy to war production, ensured planned and united effort in mobilizing all the resources of the country, all the forces of the people, for victory.

Extremely indicative are the figures illustrating the fundamental difference between the socialist war economy of the USSR in 1941-1945 and the war economy of tsarist Russia in 1914-1917. The gross output of large-scale industry in the USSR in 1940 was 11.7 times the 1913 volume of production; moreover, the output of large-scale machine building and metal working was 41 times that year's figure, and the production of high-grade rolled metal equalled 80 times the 1913 volume. Economically weak, tsarist Russia could not endure the strain of the First World War. The Soviet Union was faced with incomparably heavier odds in 1941-1945, yet it surmounted all the difficulties and gained complete victory over the enemy. This shows to what extent the economic might of the country has grown under Soviet rule.

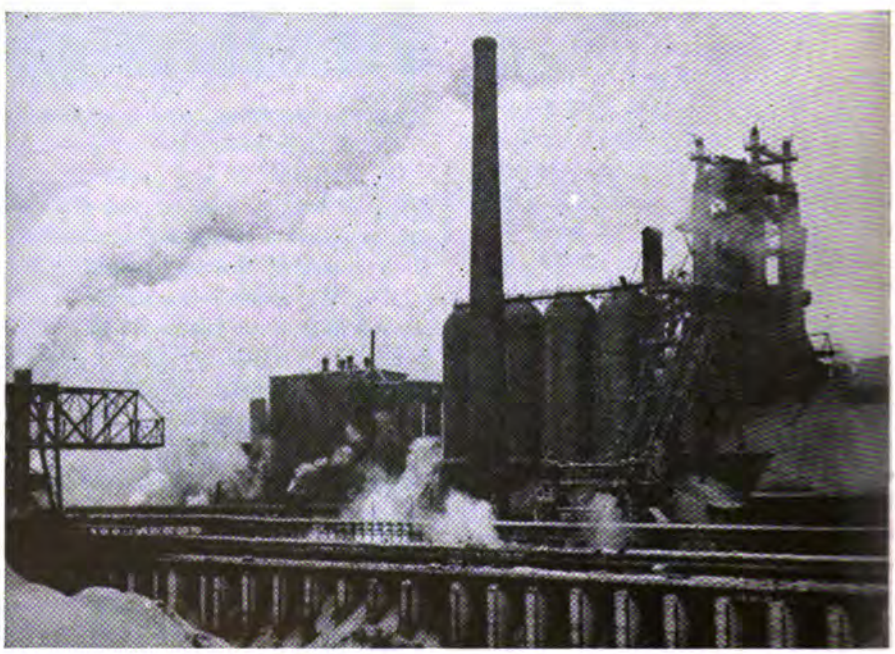
The second half of 1941 was marked by a great migration of the productive forces of the USSR to the East. One thousand three hundred and sixty large enterprises were moved to the East in the space of three months. The transfer of the industrial enterprises to safe districts in the interior and their restoration to production in the new localities within a brief time proved subsequently of tremendous significance in the raising of war production.

A characteristic feature of the war economy of the USSR was the uninterrupted growth of production and capital investments, and the rapid pace of enlarged reproduction.

The decline in industrial production as a result of the dismantlement and transfer of many enterprises to the East was checked by the end of 1941, and since 1942 industrial production has been growing steadily from month to month. Gross production rose by 50 per cent in 1942, and by a further 17 per cent in 1943, surpassing the average annual pace of growth in production for the last three prewar years, which was 13 per cent.

Capital investments in 1942, 1943 and 1944 approximated 79,000,000,000 rubles. This period witnessed the construction of 2,250 large industrial enterprises in the eastern districts and the restoration of more than six thousand enterprises in the liberated areas.

Enlarged socialist reproduction, the rapid restoration of economy in the districts liberated by the Soviet Army,



STEEL PLANT. Part of the Kuznetsk iron and steel mill, a major industrial plant.

enabled the Soviet Union to raise the production of war equipment and ammunition during the war to tremendous proportions. During the course of the war the USSR gained superiority over the enemy not only in quantity but also in the quality of war equipment.

During the recent war the USSR produced 78 times more machine guns, 6.4 times more rifles, 8.2 times more shells, 6.9 times more cartridges than pre-Revolutionary Russia during the First World War. Furthermore, the Soviet Union produced on a tremendous scale such modern equipment, which tsarist Russia never possessed, as tanks, airplanes, rocket shells and rocket guns, heavy and AA guns and other materiel.

At the end of the war the Soviet Army possessed four times more divisions, five times more artillery, 15 times more tanks and five times more planes than in peacetime. The full might of the Soviet Army's striking power was revealed in the concluding Battle of Berlin. In this last battle the Soviet Army used 41 thousand guns and trench mortars, 8,400 planes and more than 6,300 modern assault tanks.

Socialist agriculture likewise passed the war test with flying colors.

Collectivization of agriculture has led to an expansion of the cultivated areas, a rise in the crop yields and the creation of a powerful base in the East which supplied the country with grain during the war; furthermore, the Soviet State had considerable stocks of grain at the beginning of the war. That is why the country was well supplied with grain despite the temporary loss of a number of grain-growing regions in the initial period of the war.

Transport coped well with its tremendous wartime volume.

The socialist organization of labor played an important part in the successes of Soviet war economy. The problems of labor power, of the mechanization of labor and of continuously raising labor productivity were successfully solved by the USSR in wartime. The State took steps to maintain the necessary level of real wages and salaries. This level was ensured during the war by the stable low prices on rationed food and consumers' commodities.

The specific nature of Soviet trade, which is conducted without capitalists and profiteers, and the adjustment of trade to wartime needs, ensured the uninterrupted supply of consumers' goods to the population.

An important role in stimulating the war economy of the USSR was the Soviet financial system: the Budget, credits and money. Despite the issuance of more money than was required for trade, the Soviet currency retained comparative stability, for it was based on fixed state prices.

A factor of tremendous importance for the rapid development of the war economy of the USSR was socialist planning.

The socialist plan is based on the initiative and active co-operation of the Soviet people, the Communist Party and the Government. The Soviet plans possess the force of law, since they are backed by the authority and support of the entire people organized in the socialist State. The power of the state plans of the USSR is determined by the fact that they mobilize all the material resources of the country for the achievement of the general tasks of socialist construction, and in wartime for meeting the needs of the war economy. Lastly, the success of the socialist plan is determined by the proper distribution of labor power and material resources, by the existence of reserves for eliminating possible failures in the realization of the plan, the proper co-ordination of all the branches of production, distribution, transportation, and so on.

Of decisive significance for the advancement of the war economy of the USSR was the heroic labor of the Soviet workers, peasants and intelligentsia. Notwithstanding the heavy wartime odds they worked with might and main to meet all the needs of the front and the civil population, to step up production to the highest limit and to speed the defeat of the detested enemy. The annals of the war contain records of inimitable examples of supreme self-sacrifice displayed by the working people in the defense of the freedom and independence of their socialist country. The socialist emulation movement, participated in by millions, which yielded remarkable results in peacetime, was one of the powerful driving forces also during the war.

The war caused colossal damage to the Soviet Union. According to official data, the material damage sustained by the USSR in the war exceeds 2,500,000,000,000 rubles, or approximately 485,000,000,000 US dollars. The national income of the USA was about 60,000,000,000 dollars a year before the war. Consequently, the damage caused to the USSR is equal to eight years of labor of the entire population of the USA.

After victory, the Soviet people set out to work with redoubled energy in an effort to speed the economic recovery of their country and to further its progress. The law of planned and uninterrupted development of Soviet national economy takes constantly greater effect. The principal provisions of the postwar Five-Year Plan call for the recovery of the prewar level in industry and agriculture with a view to surpassing this level considerably. For example, industrial production in 1950 is scheduled to stand 48 per cent above the 1940 level.

For more than two years the Soviet people have been working on the realization of this plan. In 1946 Soviet industry raised output by 20 per cent over 1945, and a further increase of 22 per cent was achieved in 1947. At the end of last year, Soviet industry had regained the prewar level of output. Equally remarkable are the achievements of agriculture. As a result of postwar economic achievements, the Soviet State abolished rationing, reduced prices and resumed normal trade.

The rapid development of the national economy continues in the current year. The key branches of industry surpassed the production plans for the first quarter of 1948, achieving a considerable increase in output. For example, as compared with the first quarter of 1947, the production of pig iron rose by 34 per cent, of steel by 37 per cent, rolled metal by 40 per cent. A substantial increase was registered in the production of fuel, machines, and consumers' goods. In this new period of peaceful construction Soviet socialist economy is again showing its progressive character, its vitality and advantages over other systems of economy.

The nation-wide movement for the realization of the Five-Year Plan in four years is yielding excellent results. Its realization will take the USSR a long step toward communism.

The Soviet Army's Contribution To Hitler Germany's Rout

By Colonel N. Nikiforov

THE more the years divide us from the historic victory over aggressive German fascism, the more often do the falsifiers of history strive to underrate the part played by the USSR in the rout of the bloc of the fascist states.

Contrary to well-known facts, reactionary "historians" have been trying to prove that the Soviet Union was able to defeat the Nazi armies only with the aid of Allied armaments and supplies of raw materials and industrial produce, and because of the second front.

It will therefore be well to recall the facts. A comparison of the figures will make unnecessary further comment.

Altogether in the course of the war the British and Americans supplied the USSR with approximately 10 thousand tanks, and nearly as many guns and aircraft. Soviet industry produced an annual average of more than 30 thousand tanks and self-propelled guns, 40 thousand aircraft, 120 thousand guns, and 100 thousand mortars during this period.

Consequently, the more important arms supplied by the Allies constituted but five to six per cent of the total produced in the USSR. Soviet industry provided the artillery units with 775,600,000 shells and bombs. This shows that Soviet troops fought and crushed the Hitlerite army with domestic and not imported arms.

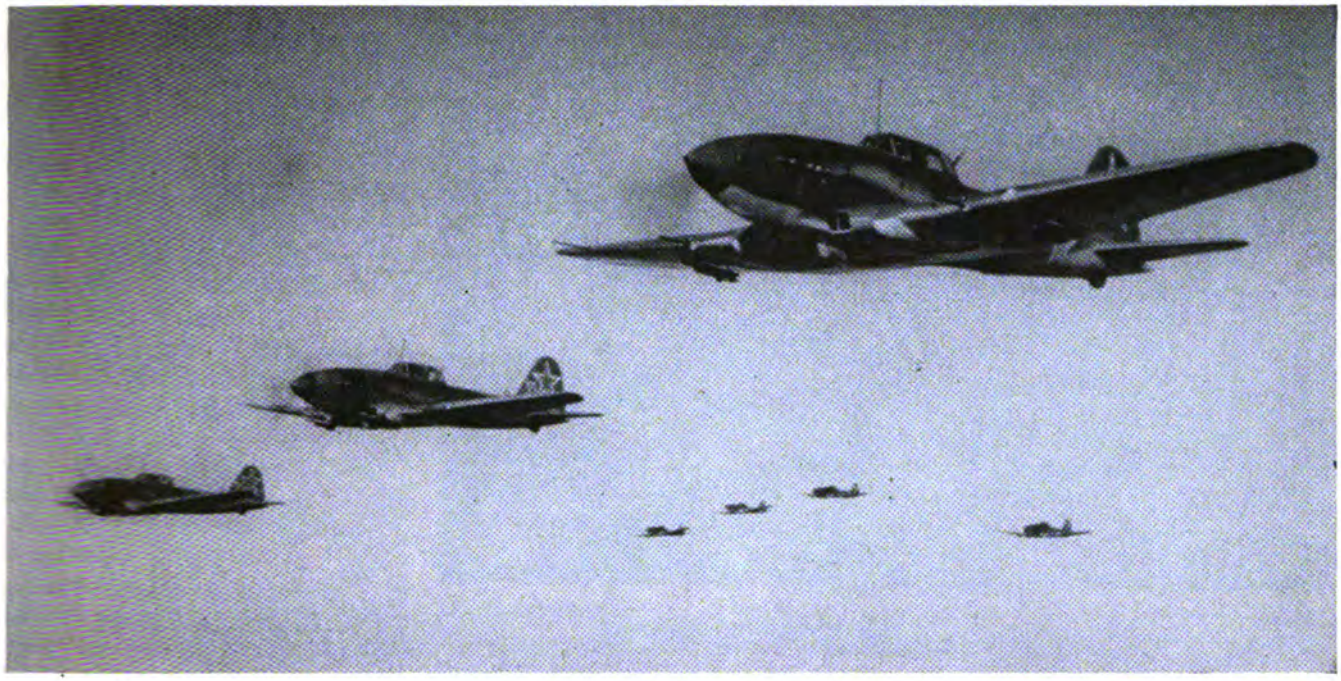
Everything else the Allies shipped—foodstuffs, raw materials and manufactured goods—comprised something like four per cent of what the Soviet Union produced during the war. This means that these shipments also covered but a fraction of the consumption of the Soviet Army and the population. No one will dispute the fact that this was necessary and useful at a time when the country strained every effort in the almost single-handed struggle against the bloc of aggressive states, but in relative significance these supplies of arms, food, raw materials and industrial wares never played any decisive nor even significant role.

The commentaries about the decisive part of the military efforts of the British and Americans in the rout of the Hitlerite coalition are just as far from the truth.

During the very early stage of the war the Soviet Army stood up to the attack of 240 divisions of the German Army and its allies, and in the course of an unprecedented mobile defense wore down or routed them, often so thoroughly that they ceased to exist as battle units. The 17 panzer divisions which carried the attack against Moscow in the autumn of 1941 lost nearly all their tanks in battle. The tank divisions which in 1941 advanced against Rostov in the south, and Leningrad in the north, fared no better. During the first four months of the war the Hitlerite coalition lost in killed, wounded and prisoners more than four and one-half million men, that is, nearly all the regulars of its numerous divisions. And it will be remembered that there was no second front then, and that the Allies had not yet effected a landing in Africa.

When the Soviet troops passed over to the offensive on the approaches to Stalingrad, they had 240 divisions of the Hitlerite coalition facing them, including 179 German, 22 Romanian, 14 Finnish, 10 Italian, 13 Hungarian, one Slovak and one Spanish division. In the same period, only four German and 11 Italian divisions were engaged in Lybia; the remaining 73 German divisions were used for garrison duty in the occupied countries (France, Belgium, Norway, Holland, Yugoslavia, Poland, Czechoslovakia, etc.) but they were inferior troops; 30 of these divisions were used for the training of freshly mobilized men. In the first three months of the offensive begun at Stalingrad on November 19, 1942, the Soviet Army routed 112 divisions of the Hitlerite coalition, destroyed or captured seven thousand enemy tanks, four thousand aircraft,

TANKS. Joseph Stalin tanks in Red Square during a parade.



STORMOVIKS. These Soviet planes proved their worth in the war. Photographed in parade formation.

17 thousand guns and other equipment. The operations in North Africa did not force the Germans to withdraw a single man from the Soviet-German front; Soviet troops continued to wage a single-handed battle.

Another year passed, in the course of which the Soviet Army liquidated many more enemy divisions. The Germans, straining to the limit their manpower resources by means of "total" and "super-total" mobilization, and, despite terrible losses, succeeded in restoring the numerative force of the Wehrmacht.

The war effort of the Anglo-American Allies was still so ineffective, that by November 1943 the Hitlerite divisions on the Soviet-German front even increased to 257 (207 German). True, their fighting qualities had declined, since the majority of the soldiers of the standing army had long before found graves in the Soviet Union.

Long before this the Soviet troops won the famous Orel-Kursk battle, pierced the ring around Leningrad and routed the German group in this area; they liquidated the German armies on the rivers Mius and Molochnaya; they freed Kiev and other Soviet cities. The Germans had experienced a second Stalingrad at Korsun-Shevchenkovsky in the Ukraine. The one-time might of the Hitlerite army was gone, but the second front was still in the planning stage at the Allied headquarters.

The second front was still a tiny, barely visible curved line on the map of France, when in June and July of 1944 the central group of the German army in Byelorussia was surrounded and annihilated, when the Southern group in the Jassy-Kishenev area was destroyed, when Soviet troops crossed the Carpathians, knocked Romania and Bulgaria out of the war, penetrated into East Prussia and Hungary. In the summer offensive of 1944 the Soviet Army routed or eliminated 120 German divisions. But considering the Soviet front the chief and exclusively important front, the Hitlerites brought the number of their divisions fighting against the Soviet Army in November 1944 up to 204, of which 180 were German divisions. At the close of December 1944 the Hitlerites launched an offensive in the area of Ardennes, pierced the front and thus threatened the whole of the Anglo-American force. On January 6, 1945, Winston Churchill appealed to Joseph Stalin to help the Allies by launching a wide-scale Soviet offensive (on January 12) on a broad front from the Baltic Sea to the Carpathians, calling into action 150 Soviet divisions, great forces of artillery, tanks and aircraft.* The Soviet Army breached the German front, drove the enemy before them for hundreds of miles, and broke through to Germany on a broad front, emerging at the approaches of Berlin. On the evening of January 12, the Germans cut short their offensive on the Western front, removed their Fifth and Sixth tank armies which they had prepared for a new attack, and immediately transferred them to the Eastern front. In this way the Soviet Army averted the danger of the rout of the Anglo-American armies.

The conclusions are obvious: the Soviet Army shouldered the main burden in the rout of the armed forces of the Hitlerite coalition, and nearly throughout the war, or at least in the most decisive periods, fought against the monstrous Hitlerite war machine singlehanded. Without the powerful offensive operations of the Soviet Army, which involved from two-thirds to three-quarters of the German war machine, the entire forces of Finland, Romania and Hungary, and at times a considerable Italian force, the Anglo-American troops would never have succeeded in landing in France, or if they had, they would never have been able to hold their ground.

Apart from the fact that the great Soviet offensives of January 1945 played a decisive part in the defeat of Germany, they prevented the rout of

(Continued on page 285)

*See pamphlet supplement "Falsificators of History," pp. 59-61.

BULGARIA. Residents of Ruscuk cheer the liberators.

A Liberating Army

By Y. Usherenko

SPEAKING at a meeting at Salgotarjan, a small Hungarian town on the border of Czechoslovakia, on the day of the liberation of the locality, Bela Istvan, a factory worker, said in his address to the soldiers and officers of the Soviet Army:

"You delivered us from the darkness of night. This night is fascism, which wanted to envelop the world. But you, soldiers of Stalin, prevented it. You freed humanity. I have not enough fingers on my hands to count the nations the Red Army liberated from slavery. We, Hungarians, like all the peoples you saved, shall never forget what you have done for us."

Similar meetings were held in Romania, Bulgaria, Norway, Poland, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Manchuria and Korea. Over a hundred thousand Krakow inhabitants greeted the Red Army units as they passed through the city.

In an Order of the Day, the Polish Minister of Defense, Marshal Rola Zymierski, wrote: "The Red Army liberated us, our brothers and our daughters. . . . It saved our people from certain death, which the enemy had in store for us."

David, chairman of the Legislative Assembly of Czechoslovakia, said: "Stalin and the Red Army enabled the peoples of Europe (including ourselves) enslaved by Hitler, to regain their freedom and independence."

A monument dedicated to fallen Soviet soldiers was unveiled in Budapest on the day Hungary celebrated the second anniversary of the liberation of the country from the Hitler yoke. Speaking at the ceremony, President Zoltan Tildy said:

"This monument was erected by the will of the Hungarian people. It shall always express our gratitude for the freedom the Soviet Army brought us, our feelings of friendship for the peoples of the USSR."

"The peoples of Yugoslavia," said Marshal Tito, "express their profound gratitude to the Red Army and the people of the Soviet Union for all their tremendous sacrifice and the efforts they made to save the better future of mankind."

Three years have passed since the Soviet Army broke open the fascist prison of the peoples and enabled all freedom-loving nations in Europe and Asia to build up their independence. In vain will be the efforts to underrate, by distorting historic truth, the great service which the Soviet people rendered humanity. If it had not been for the victories of the Soviet Army, the people of not only Eastern Europe but Western Europe as well, would have groaned in Hitler slavery for many years to come. The countries of Western Europe regained their liberty because the Soviet Army routed the Nazi hordes.

The Soviet Army's aims of liberation and the imperialist aims of some other armies revealed themselves very distinctly in the course of the war and especially in the postwar period.

The chief aim of the Soviet Union was to liquidate fascism and prevent a repetition of German aggression, to restore and consolidate democratic life in Europe and to establish close and lasting co-operation of the European nations.

The countries where the Soviet Army set foot have all been able to build up their independence, to determine their own future, restore and consolidate the independence and sovereignty of their countries.

The Soviet units were withdrawn as soon as the liberation of those countries was complete. The inhabitants gave our soldiers a friendly and hearty sendoff everywhere.

The peoples of the world know that the Soviet Army is an army of liberation. No one will ever succeed in erasing from the memory of this and future generations the indisputable historic fact that fighting alone against Hitler Germany and her satellites, the Soviet Army routed a dangerous foe and saved humanity from enslavement.

The Soviet Union has never pursued any aggressive aims: "We have not, and cannot have, any such war aims as the seizure of foreign territories and the subjugation of foreign peoples—whether it be the peoples and territories of Europe or the peoples and territories of Asia," said Stalin in a speech during the war.

On this Victory Day over the black forces of fascism, all common people in the world, and they constitute an overwhelming majority, greet the mighty socialist country and its invincible Army—the bulwark of peace and freedom.

The great exploits of the Soviet Army will live in the ages and shall never fade in the history of mankind.

The Friendship of Two Patriots

By Mikhail Petrov

THIS is the story of the friendship of Ivan Kozhedub, the famous Soviet fighter-pilot, and Vassili Konev, collective farmer of Stalingrad Region. Kozhedub is now 28, while Konev is past three score and ten.

It all started one gray May morning in 1944, when cold leaden clouds almost hugged the ground and dispersing rain drops formed a pall of mist. Despite the unfavorable weather, a brand-new dark-green Lavochkin fighter plane landed at a front-line airdrome. Painted in white on its tail was the numeral "214," and on one of its sides was the inscription: "From collective farmer Vassili Viktorovich Konev."

There was a ceremonial air about the presentation of the new craft to the best pilot of the Second Ukrainian Front.

"I have no doubt you understand to what this obligates you," General Goryunov said to the flyer, Captain Kozhedub. "Collective farmer Konev, a patriot, paid for this plane with his personal savings and presented it to you. To this honor you must reply with worthy deeds. I congratulate you on the great gift you have received and wish you further success in battle."

"Yes, Comrade General," was the flyer's reply.

The very same evening Captain Kozhedub read to his friends, by the light of a kerosene lamp, the letter he had found in the cabin of the plane. The letter was from Vassili Konev.

"No matter who you, brave fighting man, may be," the collective farmer wrote, "I shall henceforth consider you my son. Here is my paternal wish: fight courageously against the cursed Hitlerites and take vengeance on them for all their crimes, for my son Sergei and my nephew Georgi."

From one of the airdromes in Romania, Kozhedub dispatched the following letter:

"I am happy to inform you that your plane was presented to me yesterday, May 26, 1944. Permit me to assure you, esteemed Vassili Viktorovich, that flying your plane I will fight the enemy, as we are ordered by the great Stalin, as my heart and conscience dictate. The 38 German planes I have shot down is merely the beginning for settling the score with the enemies, for the Soviet people they have killed or tortured, for the towns and villages of our Homeland they have destroyed.

"I will keep you informed of every victory I score. Write to me how things are on your collective farm.

"I wish you health and success."

Days of fierce battles followed and a week later Captain Kozhedub sent another letter to Konev.

"I have already shot down seven German enemy craft from your plane: on May 31, one Focke-Wulf, on June 1 a Junkers-87; on June 3, I and my flying buddies fought a particularly good engagement—I myself brought down three planes. A successful battle was fought on June 7. I shot down another two fascist vultures. My score now is 45 enemy planes."

Of course, Konev was elated that his gift had landed in such reliable and skillful hands. In his letters to the

KOZHEDUB. The famous flyer (center) photographed in Kiev during the celebration of the Soviet Ukraine's thirtieth anniversary.

pilot he told him about life in the village, the affairs of the collective farm. There is an air of sincerity, genuine love and paternal warmth and simplicity to all his letters. He expressed his feeling not only in his letters to Kozhedub, but also in some he wrote to the commander of the unit where Kozhedub served. Here is one of them:

"I get news about the splendid fighting of Ivan Kozhedub. It's good to know that my plane is in reliable hands. From the bottom of my heart I wish you, our country's falcons, success in your holy struggle with the enemy.

"Comrade Commander, I beg you to let Captain Kozhedub visit me if only for one day, provided you can spare him. I will embrace Ivan and kiss him like my own son . . . Our collective farmers have prepared a lot of honey for pilots of your unit. We expect a good crop this year. We will exert all our efforts to harvest it quickly and without any losses.

"Three of my sons and one grandson are at the front and they are pretty good soldiers.

"I am awaiting your reply, awaiting Ivan Kozhedub."

But Kozhedub had no chance to avail himself of the hospitality of the man who regarded him as his own son. Great battles were in the offing.

On August 19, 1944, Ivan Kozhedub was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union for the second time.

Kozhedub gained particular distinction in the Battle of Berlin. The Soviet air force performed brilliantly there and Kozhedub brought up his personal score to 62 enemy craft. He immediately wrote about his last combat flight to his friend in the far-off Volga village.

The two friends met personally only after the war. It was a warm and touching meeting. Konev visited the Air Force Academy where Kozhedub —who has been thrice awarded the Hero of the Soviet Union title—is now studying.

Recently Kozhedub paid a visit to the collective farm where Konev, this ordinary Soviet peasant and ardent patriot, lives and works. The youthful airman and the aged farmer keep up their friendship. They regularly write to one another and once in a while get together in Moscow.

WIDOW AND CHILDREN. The head of the Arkhipov family was killed in battle.

Care for War Widows And Invalids

By Mitrofan Derevnin

Deputy Minister of Social Welfare of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic

THE Soviet people manifests exceptional concern for the families of soldiers who perished in the war and for war invalids. A new striking evidence of it is this year's State Budget recently adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR.

Expenditures on social insurance and social welfare have been increased by 425 million rubles as compared with 1947. A sum of 640 million rubles is allocated for services and medical treatment for war invalids.

The Soviet State annually provides large sums for the payment of pensions and lump sum grants.

A number of privileges and exemptions are allowed to families of men who perished in the war and war invalids. These include a lower agricultural tax, lower rent, etc. They are also granted state loans for the building and repair of houses and apartments, for acquiring cattle and household furnishings. For instance, in the first half of last year, families of soldiers who were killed in action and war invalids in the RSFSR received loans totalling 65 million rubles; 54 thousand head of cattle were provided; and 27 thousand houses were built and 118 thousand apartments were repaired for them.

Special attention is paid to the cure and medical treatment of war invalids, on which 19 million rubles were spent in the Russian Federation last year. The seven special sanatoriums and 31 rest homes for war invalids annually accommodate thousands of persons for cures and rest.

Equally great assistance is rendered in the Republic to orphans and children of war invalids. Last year 100 thousand children were accommodated at kindergartens. More than 63 thousand children were sent to sanatoriums and summer health camps free of charge.

Much is being done to train invalids in various trades and professions. Thus, last year 34 thousand invalids in the RSFSR acquired new trades appropriate to their physical condition and health, and 137 thousand were placed in light jobs.

Besides state aid, in the Russian Federation the people themselves have initiated a fund of voluntary contributions to render additional assistance to families of soldiers who were killed in the war and to war invalids. Last year in the RSFSR, 145 million rubles were contributed and distributed, as well as hundreds of thousands of tons of grain, potatoes and other vegetables.

This is how the Soviet people help war invalids and the families of men who gave their lives for the country.

A Holiday of Youth and Happiness

By Boris Lavrenev

Soviet Writer and Stalin Prizewinner

MAY 1 was a remarkably warm and sunny day in Moscow this year. From early morning, columns of working people from all the districts of the capital streamed toward the hoary walls of the Moscow Kremlin. The streets were bright with banners and streamers inscribed with May Day slogans. Merriment prevailed among the columns as they waited for the demonstration to begin. The streets resounded with music and favorite folk songs. The demonstrators drew apart to make room for dancers, and not only the youth, but also middle-aged and even older people could be seen dancing in the streets—everybody felt young on that happy spring day.

Meantime, units of the Soviet Army had already lined up in faultless formation on Red Square. A gentle breeze ruffled the scores of banners which had waved proudly over the Soviet soldiers at the walls of Stalingrad, Sevastopol and Leningrad, banners that brought freedom and peace to the countries of Europe, and banners which flew victoriously over Berlin in 1945.

Members of the Government, headed by the great Stalin, under whose leadership the Soviet Army smashed the troops of fascist Germany, appeared on the reviewing stand of the Lenin mausoleum.

After Marshal Nikolai Bulganin, Minister of the Armed Forces of the USSR, delivered his address to the troops, the command was given, the buglers announced the beginning of the parade and the regiments began their march past the reviewing stands which were filled with holiday crowds. Among them as usual were many foreign guests who admired the Soviet spring festival.

Motorized infantry raced past the mausoleum; cavalry galloped by to the accompaniment of an invigorating march; tanks and artillery clattered by and the air over the square resounded with the roar of planes of the celebrated Soviet air force.

The parade ended and the working people of Moscow streamed onto Red Square in an endless procession. They carried banners, streamers, posters, flowers and models. And all these illustrated the remarkable achievements of the Soviet people on the labor front. Athletes—young men and women in bright clothing—came striding down the square. There were delegations from the fraternal Soviet republics, who came to Moscow's holiday celebration in colorful national costumes. School children passed in cheerful, merry columns.

MAY DAY. A group of young Moscow girls parade with flowers.

The demonstration lasted about five hours. When it was over, the streets of Moscow were again filled with gay holiday crowds; it seemed as if they were all acquaintances, all friends on that festive day filled with sunshine, music and joy.

The May Day celebrations in Moscow, as in all the other cities of the Soviet Union, became an illustration of the victories achieved by the Soviet people on the front of peaceful labor and construction, of the life-affirming force of Soviet democracy.

The Soviet people are rejoicing in the victory of the system which has forever abolished exploitation of man by man, racial discrimination, brutal exploitation of the laboring masses.

Only in the Soviet Union and in the new democracies is May Day no longer a day of struggle between the forces of progress and those of reaction. On this holiday, the working people of the Soviet Union think with sympathy of the plain people of the whole world who are yearning for peace, freedom and happiness.

Any objective and honest observer, if he had an opportunity to see the Soviet people on this day, would realize the utter falsehood of the ravings about "Soviet imperialism" and "Soviet aggression". These false tunes sung by the representatives of international reaction are a vile slander of the Soviet people who desire but one thing: to live in peace with all peoples, great and small alike, watchfully safeguarding their own happiness won by labor and struggle.

All those who witnessed the May Day celebrations in the streets and squares of the Soviet capital had convincing evidence of this truth.

Demobilized Soldiers Come Home

By V. Petrov

Demobilization of older age groups, effected according to a decision of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued in February, was completed at the end of March. The USSR thus becomes the first great Power to return its Army to a peacetime footing. The return to civil life of the demobilized soldiers is described in this article.

It is lively these spring days at railway stations and on the trains which cross the broad expanses of the Soviet Union from east to west and from north to south. Soldiers and sergeants of the older ages, demobilized from the Soviet Army, are returning home to the cities and villages of the USSR, to peaceful work in the fields, in the factories and plants, at the new construction sites of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

At Mozhaisk, not far from Moscow, we got on a train full of demobilized soldiers returning from eastern Germany.

"Going very far?" I asked the man nearest to me, who wore the insignia of an artillery sergeant.

"I'm a Muscovite," answered this sunburned, tall, smiling fellow, who introduced himself as Paul Masurin. "Haven't seen Moscow for six years now, and I sure am dying to see it!"

"What do you intend doing?" I asked him.

"Going to work for the 'Metrostroi' (Moscow Subway Construction Trust). I'm a tunneler. Before the war I helped to drive the tunnels between Okhotny Ryad and the Kursk Station, and the tunnels under the Moscow River bed. This time it'll be the Circle Line, I guess."

The sergeant told me that since he left for the front he had been corresponding regularly with his fellow workers.

"Of course, they're mostly newcomers now, but I know nearly all of them through the letters I have received. Last month I got a letter from the section engineer telling me to be sure and return to my former job after demobilization. 'And as soon as we get through with the job', he wrote me, 'we'll send you to the Mining Institute to study.'"

HOME AGAIN. Detraining in Moscow.

"Is anybody here not a Muscovite?" I asked the rest of the soldiers in the compartment.

"I'm from Gorki, from the Molotov Auto Plant."

"I'm from the Budyonny Collective Farm in the Altai in Siberia."

"I'm from Omsk" . . . "From Krasnoyarsk" . . . "From Chelyabinsk."

"We're from Siberia," said one of them for all the rest.

Swarthy, weather-beaten faces, young but already mature soldiers. In the difficult days of the war they came at their country's call from the Siberian cities and villages, from the Urals and the banks of the Volga. Hammersmiths and miners, woodcutters and farmers, fishermen and hunters, they became mortar gunners and scouts, cavalrymen and tankmen, signalmen and artillerymen.

They beat the Germans at Stalingrad, surrounded them at Korsun-Schevchenkovsky, drove them out of Byelorussia and Poland, went through east Prussia, liberated Bulgaria and Yugoslavia, Romania, and Hungary. Many of them shed their blood for the liberation of their brother Slavs. Their country healed their wounds, surrounded them with care and attention.

EN ROUTE. Demobilized soldiers, en route home, dine at the Byelorussian railway station in Moscow.

Our chat is interrupted by the sounds of an accordion. A song wells up: "In the wild Transbaikalian steppes where gold is mined in the hills."

But here we are in Moscow. The train slows to a full stop alongside the platform, and the soldiers, barely able to curb their impatience, pour out onto the footboards of the cars, waving their hats at those who have come to meet the train.

Hello, Moscow, dear old capital!

HAVING arrived in Moscow, the soldier wants to relax after his journey, book his ticket further to his ultimate destination, get some information on this or that, have a meal, rest, see a movie, get acquainted with Moscow, do some shopping.

He can do all this at any one of the Moscow stations. All stations have special halls for demobilized soldiers, which offer all kinds of service. He can give his underwear, towels and handkerchiefs to an orderly, and in three hours he gets them back washed and ironed. There is no need to stand in line for his ticket; all he has to do is hand in his documents and a special orderly does all the rest.

ALL Muscovites returned from the Army are sure to visit their Regional Military Commissariat. These Commissariats are a great help to demobilized soldiers. Upon application, those who need it are granted money to buy civilian clothes. Many soldiers are given accommodation in hostels. The Military Commissar has a talk with each soldier, gives him advice, and helps him get a job.

"Demobilized soldiers have no trouble getting jobs," the Leningrad Region Military Commissar, Lieutenant Colonel Kondratyev, said. "We are literally bombarded with inquiries from factories, plants and offices." Demobilized soldiers must be, by law, given jobs no less desirable than those they occupied before the war. Most of them return to the factories and plants they worked in before the war, where they are invariably very warmly received.

Before beginning work each demobilized soldier is given leave to have a rest and to get settled. During the course of a year after demobilization, soldiers and their families retain all the privileges and advantages provided

(Continued on page 296)

BACK AT WORK. Alexander Akinshin, a former soldier, checks a part in the factory.

WAITING FOR TRAINS. Soldiers rest at the Byelorussian station.

The Soldiers' Dreams Come True

By Nikolai Sokolov

Designer at Stalin auto plant, War Veteran

Is there a soldier that has not dreamed of the future at night while sitting around a campfire or in the pitch darkness of night, in trenches flooded with muddy water or in a cold pillbox just captured from the enemy? The thoughts dear to the heart of the soldier never leave him.

. . . The war was nearly over. Our motorized unit was fighting in Hungary; we captured Zegled, forced the Danube, routed the Germans on the east shore of Lake Balaton and cleared them out of the town of Sekesfehervar.

The front line passed through the rich estate village of Djula.

There was a short respite.

"The war will be over soon," said Corporal Fedor Kulikov. "I'll go home to my wife and daughters. What a life we'll have. . . ." A broad smile spread over his face.

The soldiers puffed on their pipes—"nose-warmers"—and blue clouds of smoke rose into the air.

Mikhail Plaksin, a private from the town of Irbit in Siberia, said with determination:

"Whatever happens, I'll enter the Metallurgical Institute in Sverdlovsk."

We all knew that while Plaksin was still in the seventh grade at school he had planned to become an engineer.

"And I," said our merry accordion player, Senior Sergeant Ali Mukhamedov, a bit dreamily, "I'll go to Uzbekistan. I want to become a teacher and teach our Uzbek children their native language and literature."

These men were expressing their most cherished dreams.

Sergeant Alexander Poddubny, a Ukrainian, wanted to work on the restoration of the Dnieper dam.

"The Lenin Collective farm where I come from is near Zaporozhye. I'll fetch my wife and children and then go to work on the Dnieper power station. We'll restore it and I'll stay there for good."

"I'll go back to the collective farm and become head teamster," said Senior Sergeant Alexander Krupnov.

ON THE FARM. Hero of the Soviet Union I. Lubyanoi was demobilized some time ago.

"And what are you thinking of, Sergeant?" the men said to me.

I had been thinking of my family. My wife Katya had been killed by a German bomb. My son was with his grandmother. I said to my friends:

"I'm interested in technology. When I get back to Moscow I intend to work at a big plant and study at the same time."

. . . Then again there were marches and grim battles. It was the last assault against the Germans who had drenched freedom-loving Czechoslovakia in blood. The inhabitants of Prague gave us a rousing welcome.

And then came the long awaited Victory Day—the first day of peace in war-torn Europe!

Two of our friends were no longer with us; Fedor Kulikov and Mikhail Plaksin had given their lives for the liberation of the Czechoslovakian people. I have a photograph of the graves of these two soldiers in the village of Komin in the northwestern section of Brno. I am sure that today, too, bright tulips grow on those graves so dear to us; they are the modest gift of the local people to our brave Soviet soldiers.

In June, 1945, a train was taking us swiftly to the Far East for the last powerful blow at the enemy. Under the command of Marshal Malinovsky we made an unprecedented march across the Great Khingan Range. A devastating blow was struck at the Japanese invaders, and my comrades and I went all the way to historic Port Arthur and Dalny.

. . . I came home to my flat in Moscow on March 23, 1946. The three thousand rubles I had received on demobilization made it possible for me to arrange my personal affairs. I brought my son home from the village. He is now nine years old and is in the third grade at school.

I soon entered the designers' courses at the auto plant. As a former serviceman I was given preference in enrollment. We got six hundred rubles a month apiece as a stipend, and within a year I began to work as a designer at the forge shop.

My dreams have come true.

Ali Mukhamedov writes that he is working in his home town, Kokand, and goes to evening preparatory courses. In the fall he will enter a pedagogical school. He promises to come to see me this summer and bring his fiancee with him.

Sergeant Alexander Poddubny's dream has also come true. He is working as a fitter at the shops of the Dnieper power station and is taking part in its restoration.

My third friend, Alexander Krupnov, writes me from the village of Novo-Vysokovo, Uglich District, Yaroslavl Region. He says everything is O.K. The collective farm board readily entrusted this Order-bearer with the leadership of the farm brigade he headed before the war.

. . . Our simple soldiers' dreams have all come true. Our country is again prospering, the people are joyfully engaging in their occupations and happiness has returned.

We have paid for this happiness by the blood and tears of millions, and we shall never yield it to anyone.

Two Years' Work on New Soviet Land

From an article by V. Shcherbakov

Secretary of the Kaliningrad Regional Committee of the Communist Party

A NEW Soviet region with its center in the City of Koenigsberg was formed by the edict of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of April 7, 1946. Before long the city was renamed Kaliningrad, after M. I. Kalinin, one of the outstanding leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet State.

Many Soviet citizens—workers and collective farmers, engineers and technicians, agronomists and doctors, workers in various trades and professions—have moved into Kaliningrad Region.

The frantic German aggressors left behind them a ruined and plundered economy. The Soviet people had to build everything anew, to rehabilitate industry and transport on a new socialist basis, to establish collective and state farms, to introduce socialist order everywhere.

There have already been put into operation 160 enterprises of state and co-operative industry, including a pulp and paper plant, a paper mill, a railroad car building works, a shipbuilding yard, electric power stations, railroad junctions, a seaport, an amber factory, fishing and timber enterprises. The Region already has 40-ton self-unloading cars, mechanisms for the building industry, for the manufacture of pulp and paper, sulphite alcohol, timber materials, etc.

Working people in the region have done much for the rehabilitation and building of dwelling houses and municipal enterprises. More than 1,500,000 square meters* of dwelling space, 50 kilometers** of street car lines, 372 kilometers of water mains and 329 kilometers of drainage have been rehabilitated in the Region.

A large network of medical institutions has been created in the Region during the two years since its formation. Functioning in the cities and districts are 45 hospitals, 56 dispensaries and polyclinics, 142 maternity and first aid centers. Sanatoria and rest homes have been opened on the Baltic seacoast.

Kaliningrad Region is leading a vigorous political and cultural life. Four hundred and twenty-two elementary and secondary schools, four technical and two teachers' training schools, houses of culture, movie theaters, clubs, libraries and a regional dramatic theater have been opened and a pedagogical institute is to be opened this year.

* One square meter=10.764 square feet.
** One kilometer=.62137 of a mile.

KALININGRAD. North Street in the new Soviet city.

One of the major tasks facing our Region is the creation of a socialist agriculture. Many thousand collective farm families and state farm workers from various parts of the USSR have settled in the Region. All the collective farmers now have dwelling houses with plots of land and farm buildings. The State has provided them with cattle, seed, and food. The former Junker estates, based on semi-feudal labor, mainly of Lithuanian and Polish farmhands, have been replaced by 53 state farms and 367 collective farms served by 30 machine and tractor stations.

This year's plan for agricultural work calls for a high pace of development of all branches of agriculture. Sowing areas of collective and state farms are to be 54 per cent greater than last year. It is important to emphasize that the proportion of food crops in the total sowings in collective farms will constitute 46.5 per cent against 21 per cent in 1947. Along with the extension of sowing areas, the plan also provides for a considerable rise in crop yields and an increase in the total harvest of all agricultural crops.

All this, however, is only a beginning. New production capacities will have to be mastered and increased.

Of immense importance in the economy of the region are the machine building plants. In the current year the railroad car building plant is to start working at full capacity. An amber works is being rehabilitated near the rich amber deposits. Amber is a valuable material for precision apparatus construction. Steps are also being taken to double the output of the pulp and paper works in the current year.

To ensure the growth and development of the fishing industry, the fleet of the Baltic State Fishing Trust will be replenished with new vessels, fish

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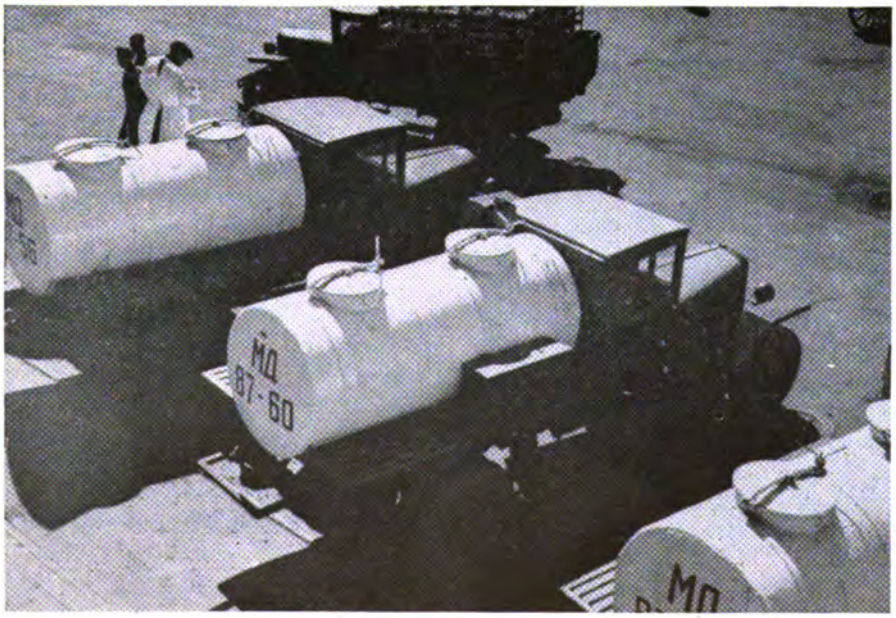
Soviet News in Pictures

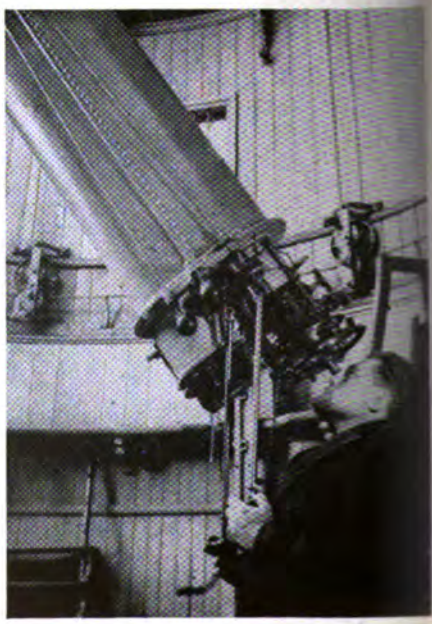
CHESS CONTESTANTS. The second half of the world championship matches is being held in Moscow. Contestants (left to right) P. Keres, V. Smyslov, S. Reshevsky, M. Euwe, and M. Botvinnik.

TEAGOWN. A new model of silk.

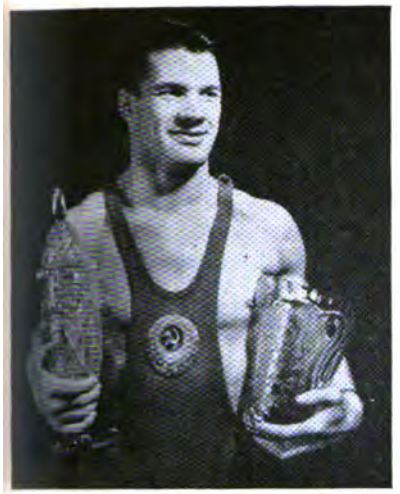
SPECTATORS. At the matches, young and old follow the moves.



MILK. Its sales volume has increased since rationing ended. Trucks bring the milk to a Moscow dairy.

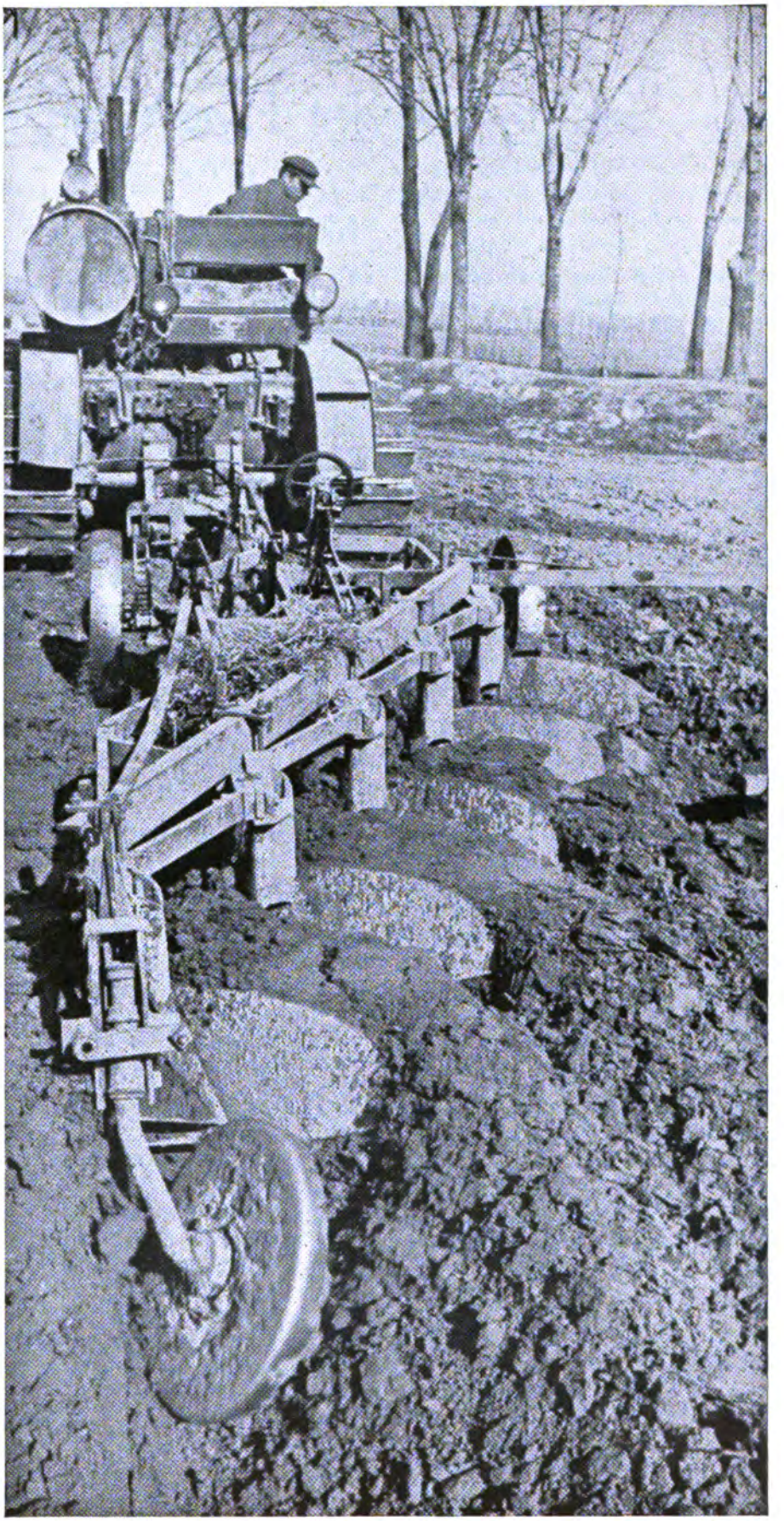


KIEV. Professor S. Vsekhsvyatsky, director of the reconstructed Observatory.



CHAMPION. N. Belov, wrestling champion of Europe.

"IVAN THE TERRIBLE." Painting by V. Vasnetsov. In the Tretyakov Gallery.



SPRING. The fields of the collective and state farms again give promise of a rich crop.

The Third State Loan of the Soviet Five-Year Plan

By A. Kosygin

Minister of Finance of the USSR

THE Soviet Government has issued the Third State Loan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR.

Two previous loans issued after the end of the Second World War, each in the sum of 20,000,000,000 rubles, were oversubscribed in the course of a few days: the first in 1946, in the sum of 22,000,000,000 rubles; the second in 1947, to the sum of 22,900-000,000 rubles; that is, considerably in excess of the sum fixed.

The success of the Soviet loans is an indication of the high patriotic consciousness of the Soviet people, rallied around their Government, around the Party of Lenin and Stalin.

Every year, the Soviet loans gain in popularity among the people. Every year the number of subscribers increases—it already exceeds 65 million.

The success and popularity of the Soviet loans show at the same time the harmony existing between the state interests and the interests of the widest masses of the working people. The loan that contributes to the economic and cultural development of the USSR also offers subscribers additional material benefits—winnings—the importance of which has particularly increased now that the rationing system has been abolished, the value and purchasing power of the Soviet ruble has become enhanced and prices have declined. Under these conditions, the Soviet loan is a reliable means of accumulation for the savings of the population, bringing income to those who possess bonds.

The new loan is calculated as a further mobilization of the monetary resources of the population for the practical realization of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan. The funds which the Soviet people lend their State will aid in carrying out the main task set before the country by their leader, Stalin: to considerably exceed in the near future the prewar level of the development of the national economy, to raise the material welfare of the people and still further to strengthen the military and economic might of the Soviet State.

The first year of the new Five-Year Plan—1946—saw the postwar reconversion to peacetime work of the main branches of the national economy.

As a result of the considerable acceleration of tempos in the economic development, the average quarterly level of gross industrial output of 1940 was equalled in 1947. At the same time, great successes were achieved that year in agriculture, where the prewar level for grain crop yields was restored. In regard to the turnover of trade and the circulation of money, important measures were carried out—the money reform and the abolition of rationing of provisions and consumers' goods.

Last year was marked by an uninterrupted increase in tempo. The output of industrial production in 1947 increased by 22 per cent as compared with 1946. The production in light and textile industries increased by 33 per cent during the same period. Sugar production was more than doubled, the total hauls of fish increased by 28 per cent, the production of vegetable oil by 24 per cent and the manufacture of soap by 28 per cent.

At the same time, wages for workers and employees increased by 23 per cent in 1947 as compared with 1946.*

Soviet collective farm peasants, among whom are hundreds awarded the honorable title of Hero of Socialist Labor, raised a splendid harvest. The gross production of agriculture as a whole increased by 32 per cent in 1947, the gross production of field crops by 48 per cent.

This is the decisive year of the Five-Year Plan. The working people of the Soviet Union are making heroic efforts to complete the postwar Plan in four years. In 1948, the prewar level of industrial production will be exceeded, the volume of capital construction will be considerably increased, a tremendous impetus will be given to every branch of the national economy and consequently there will be a considerable increase in the production of commodities for the population.

Marked successes have been won in the first quarter of this year. The quarterly industrial plan has been overfulfilled by two per cent as a whole, and the industrial output in this period increased by 32 per cent as compared with the same period last year. This increase of production by one-third is all the more promising inasmuch as the first quarter is the hardest, the winter period of the year.

The number of workers and employees in the national economy shows an increase of two million compared with the first quarter of last year; the productivity of labor in industry shows an increase of 21 per cent.

Particularly important are the successes gained this qurater in heavy industry, the leading force of the entire economy. The production of consumers' goods and foodstuffs also shows a marked increase.

A steady improvement is noted in agriculture, too. Preparations for springtime field work were more efficient than last year; the plan for autumn and winter repair of tractors in the machine and tractor stations and state farms was completed in good time; both state and collective farms were fully provided with supplies of seeds and the best modern equipment. The spring sowing was better organized and of an altogether higher agrotechnical standard.

The economic plan for the third and decisive year is expressed in the figures of the State Budget approved at the session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR at the beginning of the year. The income of the Budget was approved at 429,149,697,000 rubles income and 388,040,597,000 rubles ex-

*Nominal, or money wages. The increase in real wages is higher.

penditure; that is, an excess of approximately 41,000,000,000 rubles in income over expenditure.

Nearly 40 per cent of the expenditure—149,000,000,000 rubles or 16,300,000,000 rubles more than in 1947, goes to finance the national economy.

About 61,000,000,000 rubles will be expended on capital construction alone this year.

Allocations for social and cultural measures also show considerable increase; they are 116,500,000,000 rubles, almost 10,000,000,000 more than last year. Approximately half of the sum—60,500,000,000 rubles, is to be expended on education. This is 9,000,000,000 rubles more than last year's expenditure and a considerable increase over the prewar expenditure for education. Important among the social and cultural measures are those for health protection; 20,900,000,000 rubles are to be spent on them in 1948.

A considerable extension of the system of health institutions, maternity homes and children's health organizations and institutions is provided, and 22,600,000,000 rubles are allocated for social maintenance, principally for the payment of pensions to war and labor invalids, also for allowances to women with large families and unmarried mothers.

In the main, the Soviet Budget derives the funds necessary for the realization of its immense financial program for 1948 from the socialist economy, that is, from industry, transport, agriculture and trade. This income is based on the uninterrupted growth of production, the increase in the turnover of trade, the reduction of costs and the protection of circulation, the cheapening of construction and the mobilization of existing reserves.

A prominent place in the income section of the Budget is taken by loan subscriptions, which are reckoned at 20,000,000,000 rubles for 1948. Comparing this figure with the sum of capital investments, it will be seen that one-third of the whole capital construction may be covered by the funds provided by the state loans.

The new loan is issued following the introduction of the money reform and the accomplishment of the transition from rationing to free Soviet trading at reduced uniform state prices.

These important postwar economic measures did away with the evil consequences of the war in the field of money circulation and trade.

As a result of the reduction in the state retail prices for provisions and consumers' goods, as well as the reduction of prices in co-operative trading and on the collective farm markets, the purchasing power of the Soviet ruble increased by 41 per cent during the first quarter of this year. As a result of the rise in the purchasing power of the ruble and the increase in wages, real wages show an average rise of 51 per cent in comparison with the first quarter of 1947.

At the beginning of 1946, Joseph Stalin, speaking of the tasks of the postwar Five-Year Plan, pointed out that particular attention would be paid to the extension of the production of commodities and to raising of the working people's living standard by means of consecutive reductions of prices on all goods.

The first stage in the reduction of prices was accomplished with the introduction of the monetary reform in December, 1947. The Council of Ministers of the USSR recently carried out the second stage in the reduction of prices; as of April 10, state retail prices for certain goods were reduced by 10 to 20 per cent.

As a result of this consecutive reduction of prices, the level of real wages of workers and employees and the level of the peasants' incomes is steadily rising; this creates favorable conditions for the increase and stabilization of the people's savings, which serve as the basis for the Soviet state loans.

The Third State Loan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR is issued in the sum of 20,000,000,000 rubles for a term of 20 years. The loan carries interest, on the average, of four per cent per annum. The principal, together with the interest, will be redeemed annually in the form of winnings during the course of 20 years. The State will pay the holders of bonds more than 31,000,000,000 rubles, the total sum of the loan being 20,000,000,000 rubles.

As in previous years, subscription to the loan is strictly voluntary. The subscriber may pay the cost of the bonds he acquires in cash or in installments over a period of ten months. Like all subscribers, peasants are allowed a ten-month period in which to pay for bonds they have acquired.

The tasks before this country in the third and decisive year of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan are immense and complex.

The Soviet people are coping with these tasks successfully. Through their great and patriotic efforts, the people of the USSR are fulfilling and even exceeding the Stalin plans for the further strengthening of our country's might.

Kaliningrad

(Continued from page 281)

cessing factories, ship-repair yards, d fishing ports and moorages will built.

Brick and tile works, nail factories, achine repair plants, furniture factos, a factory for the production of ts, and a tannery will be put into eration in the current year. Produc- n of drainage tubes necessary for the mption of land reclamation is being anized. The volume of production enterprises of local industry and in- trial co-peratives will be more than bled in the current year.

This year's state plan provides for increase in the number of cattle in lective farms by 78.8 per cent, of pigs ive times, of sheep by 2.5 times, of rses by 27.7 per cent.

Many collective farms, machine and tractor stations and state farms in the Region are taking the initiative in the electrification of agriculture.

Socialist emulation for the fulfillment of the post-war Stalin Five-Year Plan in four years, for the fulfillment of state plans and assignments ahead of schedule, is developing in the factories, collective and state farms and machine and tractor stations of the new Soviet Region.

Soviet Army's Contribution

(Continued from page 273)

the Anglo-American troops and ensured the conditions which enabled the Allies to pass to a determined offensive.

Such are the historic facts, which no falsifier of history or slanderer can distort, since facts are stubborn things —gossip and slander fade away but facts remain.

How Higher Soviet Wages Are Spent

EVIDENCES of the swift rise of the Soviet living standard since the first of the year are apparent in every part of the country, from East to West, and North to South.

The extraordinary rise in real wages —which averages 51 per cent increase over the figure of a year ago*— means that there is plenty of buying power in the pocketbooks of Soviet citizens.

The abolition of rationing and the vastly increased trade network, together with the emphasis which has been placed on expanding consumer industry, mean that there are plenty of goods to be bought.

A few instances are typical.

In Riga, the capital of Soviet Latvia, margarine has been withdrawn from the shops, where it was finding no buyers, since there is butter for everyone, and everyone can afford butter.

Latvian shops are offering 70 varieties of sausage and smoked meats, 50 kinds of fish products, 50 assorted preserves, and two hundred different kinds of chocolate and confectionery goods. Buying is heavy—purchases of sugar and confectionery, for instance, increased five hundred per cent during the first month of unrationed trade—and the Ministry of Trade reports that warehouse stocks and production are ample to meet all demands.

Stocks of manufactured goods are also large. Riga has one thousand shops, of which 220 are new ones opened when rationing ended. Many of them are dry goods stores, which now are crowded with cotton, wool and silk fabrics, leather and rubber footwear of good quality, silk stockings, and ready-made clothing.

At Riga's traditional winter fair, the central market was literally flooded with foodstuffs.

Fifty state and co-operative trade organizations of the Latvian SSR opened 230 shops and pavilions at the fair, to sell not only consumer goods, but agricultural machines and tools.

The seven thousand peasants who attended the fair bought lavishly, for the prices of manufactured goods have on the average declined by two-thirds, and the farmer's income buys much more than before. Purchases at the fair amounted to nearly eight million rubles.

AT Sverdlovsk in the Urals, officials of the Central State Department Store report that the demand for ready-made clothing has increased tremendously, and that the store has opened two additional made-to-order departments to supplement the one it had, so great is the demand for tailor-made suits, coats and dresses.

It has also enlarged its millinery department, for the women of the city almost universally have celebrated the end of clothing rationing by purchasing modish hats such as were unobtainable during the years of war and rationing.

PRESERVES. Canned fruit at a Rostov cannery.

The prices of ready-made clothing have dropped by approximately two-thirds since the currency reform of December 16, 1947.

Phonographs, carpets, and musical instruments are items in great demand at the Sverdlovsk store. The departments selling them experience a constant rush of buyers.

IN Soviet Estonia, a republic with a large agricultural population, the general prosperity is everywhere apparent. Though prices on the free market where the peasants sell their surplus produce have declined to approximately the level of state store prices, the farmer's ruble now buys so much more in manufactured articles and prepared foodstuffs that he is more prosperous by far than before the currency reform.

On the very first day after the end of rationing, the collective farmers brought an unprecedented amount of goods to market. The warehouses and refrigerators were filled to overflowing with meat, milk and vegetables. The reduction of state prices and the abundance of consumer goods had a favorable effect upon the market trade.

In the vicinity of the farmers' market, six dry goods and haberdashery shops have been opened, which experience a constant stream of buyers who have sold their produce at the nearby market and have come to spend their money.

IN the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic, three times as much goods is now being delivered to shops of the villages of the countryside as during the period of rationing. These village stores, serving the rural population, report that, in addition to more staple items, heavy purchases are being made of radios, bicycles, motorcycles, and pianos.

The problem of supplying the increased consumer demand in the Svanetia, Khevsuretia, and other mountain areas of Georgia, which are completely cut off from the rest of the Republic at times by bad weather and mountain snowfalls, has been solved by supplying their shops with six months' stock of goods at a time.

* See Information Bulletin #8, April 28, 1948, p. 240.

PRAVDA. Though "Pravda" publishes more copies than any newspaper in the world, editions are always sold out. Many read it at public stands like this.

The Soviet Press

By V. Fedoseev

PRESS Day is marked annually throughout the USSR on May 5, the anniversary of the founding of the newspaper *Pravda,* the central publication of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks). *Pravda* published its first issue on May 5, 1912. It was organized by Stalin at the direct request of Lenin.

The Soviet people celebrate Press Day with the joyful feeling that their press is peculiarly of the people, published by their organizations, reflecting their life and their aspirations. In the USSR, there is no private ownership of printshops and publishing houses. They belong either to the State, or to the trade unions and other public organizations.

In one of his articles, written in 1905, the great Lenin wrote of the future Soviet literature that it would be a free literature, because it would be not greed, nor careerist ambitions, but the ideal of socialism and sympathy for the working people which would constantly attract new forces to its ranks. It would be a free literature, he said, because it would serve not the satiated dilettante, not the bored and overfed "upper ten thousands", but the millions and tens of millions of working people who constitute the flower of the country, its strength, its future.

This literature exists in the land of the soviets. Literature, and the printed word in all its forms, have become equally close and dear to the workers, peasants and intellectuals of the Soviet Union.

The road to knowledge, to light and the truth was blocked to the people by the Government of tsarist Russia. This is substantiated by official statistics. Only 338 books and pamphlets on agriculture were published in Russia, in the Russian language in 1901, whereas the number of mystical books published covered a range of 1,222 titles. This so-called literature, designed to poison the minds of the people and to divert their attention from facts, was issued in editions which surpassed the editions of agricultural literature by more than 20 times!

Immediately after the Great October Socialist Revolution, the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and the Soviet Government placed the printed word at the service of the people. The press became an instrument of enlightenment, a powerful means for the cultural and political education of the people. Newspapers and magazines are published in the USSR exclusively by state and public organizations of the working people. In accordance with a provision of the Constitution of the USSR, the State places at the disposal of the working people and their organizations printing presses, stocks of paper, public buildings, and other material requisites necessary for ensuring the freedom of the press. Newspapers are published in the USSR by the Soviet of Working People's Deputies, Party organizations, trade unions, sports societies, writers' associations, and so on.

The number of newspapers and their circulation have increased considerably in Soviet years. A fundamental change has also taken place in the character and contents of the newspapers, which now really express the opinions of the working people. Only 859 newspapers were published in pre-Revolutionary Russia in 1913. Newspapers totaling 7,163 with a circulation exceeding 31 million are published in the Soviet Union. Newspapers are published in the most outlying districts of the USSR: even beyond the Arctic Circle, in the Taimyr National Area, on Igarka, and in the mountain villages of the Badakhshan highlands.

The foundation for a district press was laid during the First Stalin Five-Year Plan Period, and in 1929 there were already 309 district newspapers published in the USSR. The number of newspapers published in the Union

MAILING. Periodical room of the Moscow postoffice.

Republics in the respective state languages is growing from year to year. More than eight hundred Ukrainian papers are now published in the Ukrainian SSR, where only one paper was published in the Ukrainian language in 1923.

Newspapers are published in the Soviet Union in 80 languages; these include 20 languages of the peoples who had no written language of their own before the Revolution (Abazin, Tabasaran, Shorian, Lezghin, etc.). Newspapers are published in the native languages of the population in the national areas and districts. Thus, newspapers in the Magyar and Romanian languages are published in the Transcarpathian Region of the Ukraine, and in the Tuvinian language in Tuva Region.

During the war the army press (army, corps, division and front-line papers) played an important part in inspiring the soldiers to heroic deeds; the underground press published by the guerillas in the districts which fell temporarily into the hands of the enemy exposed the brazen lies and slander circulated by the fascists, and informed the Soviet people of the real situation on the fronts.

A significant role is played by the newspapers published in the factories and mills, state farms and schools, scientific institutions and units of the Soviet Army. More than 4,500 such newspapers were published in the USSR before the Great Patriotic War. In addition to printed newspapers, tens of thousands of factories, collective farms and institutions published their own wall newspapers. The development of this press follows the course mapped out by V. I. Lenin, who insisted on the broadest opportunities for the workers to write in the newspapers on all possible questions, to write at length about their daily life, their interests and work.

The publication of books—fiction as well as scientific literature in all branches of knowledge—has attained unprecedented proportions in Soviet years. Tens of thousands of new editions are being added annually to the book treasure-store of the USSR. During the Soviet period, 11,000,000,000 books, covering a range of 873 thousand titles, were published. Particularly marked is the progress of the national press. Books are published in the USSR in 119 languages, whereas in pre-Revolutionary Russia they were issued only in 49 languages.

The publication of books and newspapers continued during the war; their postwar editions have already surpassed the number of books published in the last prewar year.

It has been made possible for scores of peoples of the USSR to read in their native languages the immortal classics of Marxism-Leninism, classical literature, the best works of contemporary Soviet and foreign writers, scientific and technical literature. More than 40 peoples had no written language before the Revolution.

The works of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin are issued in tremendous editions in the Soviet Union.

FOR ALL PEOPLES. Formerly backward and oppressed peoples are cultured now. Book store in Buryat-Mongolia.

YOUNG JOURNALISTS. Every organization has some publication. High school girls prepare a wall newspaper.

The History of the CPSU (B) (a Short Course), written by Joseph Stalin, has been published in 33,528,700 copies, and is the all-time Soviet best-seller.

Stalin's book, *On the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union,* has been published in 58 languages in a total printing of 16 million copies. This book played a tremendous role in organizing and mobilizing the Soviet people for the struggle against the German invaders and the Japanese imperialists.

Immensely popular are the works of the brilliant Russian philosophers, Chernyshevsky and Belinsky, Herzen and Dobrolyubov. They have been published in editions totaling 40,450,000 copies. Plekhanov's books have been published in 3,949,000 copies.

The classical philosophers and naturalists, Aristotle, Bacon, Voltaire, Hegel, Democritus, Diderot, Spinoza—whose books hardly ever appeared in tsarist Russia—have been published in the USSR in huge editions.

The publication of scientific literature has attained immense proportions: 174,500,000 books in natural history and mathematics alone have been published during the past 30 years.

There were no scientific magazines in pre-Revolutionary Russia with the exception of one on physics, and this magazine had only two hundred subscribers. The five large magazines now published on questions of physics have mass circulations. Special series of popular science books, such as the pocket library on natural science, *Nature and Man,* etc., are sold in huge editions.

An expression of the exceptional attention devoted in the USSR to the education of the young generation is the extensive publication of textbooks. More than 1,561,000,000 school textbooks have been published during the past 10 years. One-third of these books were printed in the various national languages used in the USSR.

The average edition of agricultural books before the Revolution was three thousand copies at the most. The Soviet village now finds available millions of books and pamphlets dealing with different problems of agriculture. The number of agricultural publications issued in the USSR during the past 30 years was 25.3 times the total published in two centuries in pre-Revolutionary Russia. They range from popular science pamphlets to the voluminous works of Darwin, Timiryazev, Michurin, Williams, Prianishnikov, Lysenko and many other scientists.

The appearance of new professions and skilled trades in the collective farm village, the huge army of tractor drivers and combine operators, has called to life new types of books—textbooks and manuals for practical agriculturists. These books are issued annually in large editions.

The industrialization of the country created a large demand for technical literature. The total published in the USSR during the past thirty years covers a range of 156 thousand titles issued in 713 million copies. Among the innovations in this

NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES. There is much variety in Soviet publications. To the left, a display of newspapers; to the right, magazines.

field are books written by Stakhanovites to popularize their methods of work. A total of 4,643 pamphlets on Stakhanov methods of work in industry and transport alone have been published in 49 million copies during the six years following the birth of the Stakhanov movement.

A place of prominence among the books published in the Soviet Union belongs to fiction. The total published during 20 years (1928-1947) embraces 70,450 works of fiction in editions totaling 1,299 million copies. The works of Maxim Gorky were published in more than 44 million copies, as compared with one million during the pre-Revolutionary period; Pushkin's books, in 36 million copies in 76 languages, as compared with the total of nine million before the Revolution. As compared with the pre-Revolutionary period, the editions of Leo Tolstoy's books have trebled, and those of Chekhov's works have increased by 36 times.

Since 1918, a total of 167 million copies of foreign books of fine literature have been issued. Shakespeare's works have been published in 20 languages in more than 1,500,000 copies; Victor Hugo's in 41 languages in aggregate printings exceeding four million copies. Large editions of the works of Dickens, Thackeray, Balzac and Guy de Maupassant have also been published.

Of the contemporary foreign writers, Romain Rolland, Theodore Dreiser, J. B. Priestly and J. Hasek have been particularly widely published. Books by modern Soviet writers are immensely popular, their editions amounting to more than 50 per cent of the total fiction published in the USSR.

With rare exceptions, books by authors of the non-Russian nationalities of the country were practically not published in Russian, nor translated into other languages in tsarist times. In the Soviet Union the works of the national writers have been translated from 35 languages and made available to all the Soviet people. For example, the brilliant epic of Shota Rustavelli, *The Knight in a Tiger Skin,* was published in Russian in six different translations, and also in 14 other languages of the Soviet peoples. The Armenian epic, *David of Sassun,* has been translated into seven languages used in the USSR. The poems of Taras Shevchenko (Ukrainian) have been published in 33 languages, their total editions surpassing five million copies; the poems of the Kazakh bard Djambul have been published in 21 languages. The books of many national classics were not known to the general reading public before the Soviet period.

Well-illustrated books are published for children of all ages. The total number of books for children published in the USSR during the past 20 years reached more than 661 million copies, covering a range of 26,282 titles. The works of Pushkin, Lermontov, Gorky, Griboyedov, Tolstoy, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Chekhov, Turgenev, Shevchenko, and foreign classics—Shakespeare, Dickens—as well as those of Mayakovsky and other Soviet writers have been published in special editions for children.

The circulation of magazines has likewise attained tremendous proportions. More than 1,400 magazines are published in the Russian language, and 350 in other languages of the peoples of the USSR.

Devotion to the interests of the people is the motto of Soviet literature, of the Soviet press. The people have supreme faith in their press, in their literature; they highly esteem it and they themselves contribute to it.

TRADE UNION JOURNALISM. Mikhail Laktionov, a worker of the Sickle and Hammer steel mill, dictates an article at the union paper's office.

CONTRIBUTORS' CIRCLE. The same union paper sponsors this literary circle. From it have come real poets and writers.

Soviet Music Congress Is Held

By Tikhon Khrennikov

Secretary General of Union of Soviet Composers

Some five hundred composers and musicologists of the USSR gathered at the Soviet capital for the First All-Union Congress of Composers, which opened on April 19. The Congress discussed the report on *Soviet Music During 30 Years, and the Tasks of Soviet Composers.* Reports were also delivered by representatives of the composers' unions from the various Soviet republics.

The necessity for this congress was evident. The decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) on Vano Muradeli's opera, *The Great Friendship,* has aroused all the composers of our vast country to new creative work. At meetings preceding the congress, composers in all the union republics discussed the decision and welcomed it as an historic document, which called upon all Soviet composers to take a realistic stand and to create music that is understandable and appeals to the people. The composers of the Soviet Union are striving to respond to these legitimate demands of the people as quickly as possible. High ideas in music, truth and a distinct melody attract our people.

Prompted by the voice of the people, our composers are already writing operas, songs and symphonic music with due consideration of the criticism leveled at the mistakes made by composers whose music had taken a formalistic trend.

Dmitri Shostakovich is working on an opera based on Alexander Fadeyev's *Young Guard* and the music for a new film, *Meeting on the Elbe* being produced by Grigori Alexandrov; Sergei Prokofieff is writing an opera based on *The Story of a Real Man* by the Soviet writer Boris Polevoi. Reinhold Gliere, one of the oldest composers in the USSR, has completed a new ballet, *The Bronze Horseman,* after Pushkin's poem of the same name.

The noted Russian composer and musicologist, Academician Boris Asafyev, recently completed work on a new ballet, *The Family.* The scene of this ballet is laid among the Yugoslav partisans during the war against the German invaders. The well-known Soviet symphony composer Nikolai Myaskovsky is beginning work on the music for the film, *Court of Honor.*

CONCERT. Aram Khachaturian congratulates violinist L. Kogan after a Khachaturian work is played at the congress.

The composer Marian Koval, author of the operas *Yemelyan Pugachev* and *Defenders of Sevastopol,* is now working on a symphony. Ivan Dzerzhinsky, author of one of the first Soviet operas, *And Quiet Flows the Don,* has begun work on a new opera based on the second, third and fourth volumes of *And Quiet Flows the Don* by Mikhail Sholokhov.

Soviet song writers created many fine new songs dedicated to the thirtieth anniversary of the Soviet Army. Anatoli Novikov, Matvei Blanter, Dmitri Vasilyev-Buglai, Evgeni Zharkovsky and many others have written songs dedicated to Moscow and May Day.

I am completing work on an opera entitled *Frol Skabeyev,* based on a tale of the same name by an anonymous author of the seventeenth century. This is an opera about the beauty and strength of the Russian character. The opera is now being rehearsed at the Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko Theater in Moscow. Simultaneously I wrote the music for a new feature film, *Eastbound Train,* which is being produced by Julia Raisman.

I have mentioned but a few of the compositions on which Soviet composers are now working. I am sure that in the near future they will satisfy the demand of the people, and our music will be enriched by compositions which depict the greatness of the effort of the peoples of the USSR for a brighter future.

During the congress several concerts of symphony and chamber music by the best Soviet composers were played at the concert halls of Moscow. The program included the work of A. Balanchivadze (Georgia), E. Tikotsky (Byelorussia), V. Zakharov, N. Myaskovsky, D. Kabalevsky, Y. Shaporin, A. Khachaturian and others.

On My Work

By Sergei Prokofieff

THE strength and vitality of all that great composers have written lies in this: that their works were always comprehensible and accessible to the people. These men did not shut themselves up in their studios but kept in close contact with the people, felt their influence and created for them.

Such are the democratic traditions of the world's musical classics.

At the same time, western art of the last few decades introduced into music an entirely different principle proclaiming the cult of "pure" form and technical method. This resulted in a marked impoverishment of musical speech which lost its simplicity, clarity and harmony.

A wider audience will not acknowledge such music because, whether the composer likes it or not, it is far from the heart of the people. Millions of ordinary listeners do not understand formalistic ingenuities.

It is not easy for me to draw this conclusion. I myself am guilty of permitting formalistic errors in my work.

The elements of formalism were characteristic of my music at an earlier period. Contagion had evidently spread from contact with certain western trends. Following the criticism to which the formalistic mistakes in Shostakovich's opera were subjected by Soviet listeners, I thought a great deal in my time about the creative methods in my own compositions and came to the conclusion that I was on the wrong track. The outcome was a search for an articulate language with fuller inner content. In a number of subsequent compositions: *Alexander Nevsky, The Toast, Romeo and Juliet* and the *Fifth Symphony*, I endeavored to free myself from the elements of formalism and succeeded to some degree, I thought.

The presence of formalism in several compositions is accounted for by certain self-reassurance and an insufficiently clear realization that this was not what our people needed.

As regards the question of the importance of melody, I have never felt any doubts. I love melody. I consider it the most important element in music, and I have been striving for the improvement of its quality in my work for many years. To find a melody that is immediately understandable to even the most inexperienced listener and at the same time is original, is a most difficult thing for a composer. Many dangers lie in wait for him here: he is liable to fall into triviality or banality, into the repetition of something that has been done before.

In this respect, the composition of more subtle melodies is much simpler. It sometimes happens that a composer, after spending time working up his melody and finishing it, does not notice that he has made it over-refined or complicated, and is getting further and further from the clarity of ideal language and simplicity. It was into this trap that I fell in the process of my work.

A composer must be particularly careful to keep the melody simple without becoming trivial, cloying or imitative. It is easy to say this but hard to do, and all my efforts will be bent towards making this more than a precept and putting it into practice in my work for the future.

I must admit that I am guilty of atonality which is often closely connected with formalism. Yet it must be said that I have felt drawn to tonal music for a fairly long time, ever since I realized clearly that the construction of a composition in tone may be compared to building on rock, whereas the construction without tone is building on sand. Furthermore, tonal and diatonic music yields greater possibilities than atonal and chromatic: this is evident from the fact that Schoenberg and his adherents have arrived at a blind alley. Atonality is to be met with in some of my compositions of the last few years. Without feeling any particular sympathy for this method, I used it in the main to give a contrast and throw into relief the tonal parts.

In opera, I have often been reproached with allowing recitative to predominate over cantilena. I love the stage as such and I consider that the audience at an opera has a right to expect impressions not only for the ear but also for the eye. Otherwise, they would go to a concert and not to an opera. But all the movement on a stage is connected first and foremost with recitative, whereas cantilena determines to a certain extent immobility on the stage. I remember how trying I found it to watch the stage in some of the Wagner operas when not a single person moved throughout the act which lasted about an hour. It was this dread of immobility that hindered me for a long time from dwelling on cantilena.

I thought over this question very thoroughly and came to the conclusion that in every opera libretto there are places that require recitative and places that must be treated in ariose style. But there are also passages—and they take a very large place—which a composer may interpret as he feels inclined, either in recitative or in arias. An illustration is Tatiana's letter in *Eugene Onegin*: it would have been by no means difficult to write the greater part of this in recitative but Tchaikovsky directed his musical language toward cantilena, thus turning the whole letter into one long aria. The method has this advantage, furthermore: that it is rendered with simultaneous movement on the stage, affording impressions not only for the ear but also for the eye. This is the direction in which I want to advance my work on a new opera for which I have chosen a contemporary subject, *Tale of a Real Man* by the Soviet writer, Boris Polevoi.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union on music, a document which I regard as expressing the requirements of the people, points in particular to the desirability of polyphony, especially in choral and ensemble singing. This is really an interesting task for the composer and a great pleasure to the audience. I intend to introduce into my opera, *Tale of a Real Man*, trio duets and contrapuntally developed choruses for which I am making use of some extremely interesting records of folk songs of the Russian North. Distinct melodies and as far as possible simple harmonic language—these are the other elements at which I shall aim in this opera.

I am seeking for clear musical language, comprehensible and close to all our people.

A Soviet Engineer

Vladimir Sivak, a typical Soviet engineer, is employed at the Dnieprodzerzhinsk iron and steel works in the Ukraine. This is one of the great industrial plants which was reduced to rubble by the invading Nazis. Its rebuilding, which started immediately after the German retreat in 1943, is a heroic episode in the struggle of the Soviet workers to restore production.

Sivak helped restore the plant; now he is working to raise its production so that it can produce five years' scheduled output in four years. His life has purpose and is pleasant.

AT WORK. Sivak in the factory.

STUDY. Sivak in the engineers' room of the metallurgists' palace of culture.

CHILDREN. Sivak and his sons.

GUESTS. The Sivaks entertain.

DANCING. An evening with friends is spent pleasantly.

SANATORIUM. Breakfast at the Central Institute of Balneology. Nurse and patient chat as it is served.

Soviet Social Insurance—How It Operates

By P. Yegorov

THIS year's State Budget of the Soviet Union provides 15,700 million rubles for social insurance. The social insurance fund has been growing year by year. In 1946, the first postwar year, it amounted to 11,593 million rubles, in 1947 to 14,521 million, and in the current year, as will be observed from the above-mentioned figure, the insurance fund exceeded that of 1947 by nearly 1,200 million rubles.

This continuous growth is due to the steady expansion of industry, the annual increase in the number of persons employed in the various branches of national economy, and the growth of the wage fund.

The social insurance system in the USSR differs in principle from that in capitalist coutries. In the Soviet Union, social insurance of all employed persons is compulsory and its cost is entirely defrayed by the State. Every enterprise or institution is bound by law to pay into the social insurance fund a sum equal to a definite percentage of the amount of wages or salaries it pays out. The percentage depends upon the nature of the enterprise and generally constitutes from seven per cent to eight per cent. The worker, manual or mental, contributes absolutely nothing to the social insurance fund.

Who administers the social insurance fund in the USSR?

The Soviet Government has placed the administration of this fund in the hands of the trade unions. This means that it is administered by the working people themselves. The Central Council of Soviet Trade Unions has a special department dealing with social insurance and an administration managing health resorts, sanatoriums and rest homes. In enterprises and institutions, social insurance is administered by the local trade union committees, which form special social insurance councils.

For what purpose is the social insurance fund spent?

In the USSR, the social insurance fund is spent for the payment of disability and sickness benefits, maternity benefits, funeral benefits, accommodation of factory and office workers in sanatoriums and health resorts, dietetic nourishment, accommodation of factory and office workers' children in summer camps and sanatoriums, on facilities for the development of physical culture, on lump sum grants to needy factory and office workers with large families, etc.

The principles of the organization of social insurance in the USSR and the purposes for which the social insurance funds are used show that the Soviet system of social insurance is most democratic, most progressive.

How are the huge funds allocated for Soviet social insurance spent?

Allocations for the payment of grants in aid and pensions have been considerably increased. The Government of the USSR has adopted a number of measures for improving the conditions of pensioners. A sum of 6,350 million rubles will be spent in the current year on pensions. Expenditure on benefits in the case of temporary loss of working capacity, and on maternity benefits, will amount to 6,279 million rubles.

Large sums are allocated—much greater than in 1947—for holiday facilities and cures for workers, both manual and mental. A sum of 1,309 million rubles is to be spent on cures in sanatoriums and health resorts, and 285 million rubles on the rehabilitation, equipment and capital repairs of health institutions. In the current year 1,865 thousand working people—a few hundred thousand more than in 1947—will be provided with passes to health resorts and rest homes. Cures and rest will be provided in the overnight sanatoriums of factories to 105 thousand persons. Special sums are allocated for the payment of fares to the health resorts.

By the end of last year, 736 sanatoriums and rest homes belonging to trade unions were functioning in the USSR. These rest homes had accommodations for 120 thousand persons. Another 80 similar trade union health institutions will be opened during the current year. In addition, the Ministry of Public Health and other departments have hundreds of sanatoriums in which Soviet working people are accommodated. In this way, millions of Soviet people will spend their annual vacations in sanatoriums and rest homes.

A sum of 750 million rubles has been allocated for holiday facilities for the children of factory and office workers.

Soviet legislation in the sphere of social insurance pursues but one aim: to raise the standard of living of the working people, to improve their well-being. In this, it helps implement the Soviet Constitution's provisions which guarantee rest, leisure, and medical treatment for everyone.

The Essentuki Health Resort

By P. Yegorov

FORMING part of the famous group of health resorts of the Caucasian Mineralniye Vody (mineral springs), Essentuki has been in existence for nearly 140 years, but only during the past three decades, i.e., in the years of Soviet power, have all the facilities of this health resort been utilized for the benefit of the broad masses of the people. Suffice it to mention two figures as an illustration: in 1916 only five thousand persons took cures or spent their holidays in Essentuki. The overwhelming majority of them were representatives of the propertied classes: factory owners, merchants, landowners, tsarist officials. As a rule, the health resort was inaccessible to a worker, a peasant or a clerk. In 1947, on the other hand, nearly 30 thousand persons underwent cures in the sanatoriums of Essentuki. All of them were working people: factory and transport workers, miners, engineers, peasants, office employees, scientific workers, teachers, students, artists, soldiers and officers.

Essentuki is situated at a picturesque spot in the Caucasus. Its bright, splendidly equipped sanatoriums and rest homes nestle in greenery and woods. Used for the treatment of gastric and intestinal diseases, the medicinal properties of the Essentuki mineral springs and muds are well known both in the Soviet Union and abroad.

During the years preceding the Second World War, the Soviet Government fundamentally reconstructed the mineral water resources of Essentuki. New medicinal springs, including those of Essentuki Narzan waters, were discovered. Thus Essentuki became a center not only for the treatment of gastric and intestinal diseases, but also for diseases of the heart. Trade unions, the Ministry of Public Health, and various departments have built a number of magnificent sanatoriums in Essentuki. The bath houses and pump rooms have been thoroughly reconstructed.

During the brief period of their occupation, the Germans inflicted on Essentuki enormous damage estimated at 55 million rubles. Before retreating, the Germans blew up and burned many sanatoriums, reduced to ruins the clinics of the Balneological Institute and other buildings, and looted the property of the sanatoriums.

Rehabilitation of the health institutions commenced immediately after the German invaders were driven out of Essentuki. For this purpose large sums were allocated by the Soviet Government. Twenty-three sanatoriums and rest homes are already functioning in

ESSENTUKI. This graceful pavilion is the pump-room of an Essentuki spring.

Essentuki, and the balneological institutions have been rehabilitated. Equipped with the most up-to-date apparatus, the hydrotherapeutic and mechanotherapeutic departments, as well as one of the best inhalation establishments in the USSR, are working.

The main wealth of the health resort, its mineral spring, has been exceptionally well developed in Soviet times. In tsarist Russia the Essentuki springs were exploited rapaciously. More water was taken from them than was permissible. The result of this was that some springs either ceased to function entirely or their output of water greatly declined. The Soviet authorities carried on drilling on a large scale and organized the exploitation of the springs on a strictly scientific basis. As compared with pre-Revolutionary times, the output of mineral waters in Essentuki has increased by almost 4.5 times and it fully meets the needs of the health resort. Bacteriological analyses of the waters of the springs are now made daily.

The other source of wealth of the health resort is its medicinal muds. The Essentuki Mud Clinic is the best in Europe. It is unique for the beauty of its architecture and the variety of its equipment. Before the October 1917 Revolution the number of mud treatments given yearly in Essentuki amounted to 48 thousand. Before the Second World War 400 thousand mud treatments were given annually. The Germans ruined the mud clinic, and much effort and a great deal of money had to be spent to restore its complex underground installations. The Soviet Government spent more than two million rubles for this purpose.

Essentuki has an excellent staff of physicians. A great deal of scientific work, directed by the Scientific Health Resort Council, is carried on in Essentuki. Among those who are participating in this work are such eminent medical authorities as Professors Vishnevsky, Shereshevsky and Rybinsky.

Expenditures for the rehabilitation and repair of the health institutions are growing year by year. They amounted to 11,500,000 rubles in 1946, and almost 13 million rubles in 1947. The Five-Year Plan provides for an expenditure of about 40 million rubles in Essentuki. Besides the building and restoration of various health institutions, great attention is paid to improving the general conditions of the resort—road repairs, landscape gardening, etc., for which purpose 1,500,000 rubles is spent annually.

In 1950, the last year of the Five-Year Plan, the health resort is to accommodate 57 thousand persons. Most of those taking cures in Essentuki receive free passes to the health resort. The cost of the cure, board and lodging in sanatoriums or rest homes is defrayed either by the state social insurance fund or by the enterprises and institutions where they work. Some of them, whose earnings are considerable, pay for all the accommodations themselves.

Essentuki, like all health resorts of the Soviet Union, is at the service of the people.

Demobilization

(Continued from page 279)

for military men by Soviet legislation.

GRIGORI VASYLIEV, drafted in 1943, was in the Marines. Before joining the forces, he was a lithographer at one of the Moscow printing shops.

During two years of army life, Vasyliev traversed the long path from Smolensk to the river Elbe in Germany. There he shook hands with American infantrymen. He even has a souvenir —a U. S. infantry badge—presented him by a thick-set soldier from Texas.

On March 19, 1948, Vasyliev returned to Moscow. By law he has the right to a month's vacation, but after visiting his friends at the printing shop he decided he would return to lithography on April 1.

"I want to get back to my job," said Grigori Vasyliev. "Simultaneously I shall study at the evening courses and in the autumn apply for admission to the polygraphic technical school."

IVAN YANOSH, a demobilized soldier (son of a Byelorussian peasant from the Baranovichi Region, Novgorod District, Nesutychi village) told his story at the Byelorussian railway station in Moscow.

Yanosh is on his way home from Transbaikal. He took part in the operations against the Japanese Kwantung army and is holder of three army decorations.

"What are your plans?" he was asked.

He replied: "In the Army I learned radio-telegraphy and could continue this work in civil life, but I have always dreamed of becoming an agronomist.

"I'm on my way to my parents on the collective farm. This collective farm was only recently established, but last year it had already reaped a rich harvest, so Dad is well supplied. I shall take things easy for a while and then begin preparing for the entrance exams of the Agricultural Institute."

VASILI DROZHINOV was an AA gunner. Before being called up he was a plasterer at the house building sites of Moscow. This demobilized soldier, saw action on the approaches to Leningrad, on the Finnish front and took part in the liberation of Norway.

Drozhinov rested for a month and then joined the building organization which is to erect the new building of the Moscow State University at Lenin Hills on the Moscow River.

The new twenty-storied building will accommodate several faculties, seven university museums and a library with 1,200,000 volumes. It will have six thousand rooms for students and post-graduates and comfortable apartments for the teachers.

"I shall be very glad to help build this new palace of science in Moscow," said Drozhinov.

VLADIMIR KUDASHOV is on a short stay in Moscow. He was demobilized from a unit in eastern Germany and is now going back to his home town of Molotov in the Urals.

"Five of our family fought against Hitler Germany and Japan," he related. "Two of my brothers were killed in action. A third became an officer pilot, the fourth who was discharged two years before me, is now completing his musical education. I shall follow his example.

"Before being drafted I was a student at a music school.

"Before my discharge I wrote to the school to ask whether I could continue my musical education there. Soon the reply came that I—a demobilized soldier—would get my education free of charge and receive a cash stipend too."

A Soviet Miners' Union

By S. Zaitsev
Chairman of the Central Committee of the Shale and Coal Mine Workers' Union of the Western Districts of the USSR

THE trade unions are in an entirely different position in the USSR than in the capitalist countries. In the USSR, where the means of production are public property, there are no contradictions between the interests of the workers and those of the management of the enterprises, for both are interested in the economic progress of their country, in a higher living standard for all the people. Inasmuch as improvement in the living conditions of the working people and the rise of their cultural level depend entirely on the successful realization of the national economic plans of the Soviet State, the Soviet trade unions are energetically co-operating in the achievement of this cardinal task of Soviet society.

In this sense, the Shale and Coal Mine Workers' Union of the western districts of the USSR does not differ in any way from other Soviet trade unions. Its tasks are determined to a considerable extent by the obligations assumed under the collective agreements concluded between the respective managements and the trade union committees. Each agreement stipulates the necessary measures for facilitating the realization of the production plans of the enterprise and for the constant improvement in the organization of production; the accepted wage rates; the cultural and other facilities necessary for satisfying the needs of the working people, and demands the strict observance of protection and safety rules.

As are all the working people of the USSR, the Soviet miners are conscious of the identity of their personal interests with the interests of their socialist State. This realization has inspired the initiative which led to the development of a country-wide movement for the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule.

In 1947 the Donbas mined seven million tons more coal than in 1946. The Moscow Coal Basin and the Estonian Shale Basin likewise topped their annual production plans. The miners of the Moscow Basin more than doubled the prewar output of coal, and the Estonian shale miners, who brought up the basin's capacity to the prewar level in 1946, raised it by a further 50 per cent in 1947.

The rise in labor productivity raises the output of coal and shale, and, simultaneously, the earnings of the miners. Thus, for example, during the first 11 months of last year the average productivity of the Donbas hewers, proppers, tunnellers and other mine workers increased by 12 per cent, and the average earnings of these miners rose by 26 to 50 per cent.

The mine committees of the union likewise assist in the realization of the plans for housing construction, for cultural and other services for the workers. By assisting the miners in securing long-term credits from the State, our union in 1947 helped more than nine thousand members build their own houses.

Our union keeps a strict watch over the enforcement of labor legislation and safety rules. Technical inspectors of the trade union committees check on the conditions in the mines.

An important field of trade union activity is social insurance. All the workers in the Soviet Union are insured at state expense. The social insurance budget is made up of contributions from the enterprises and institutions, amounting to seven or eight per cent of the payroll. The workers make no contribution whatever to the social insurance fund. The fund is administered by the trade unions and is used for paying sick benefits, pregnancy and maternity benefits and pensions, for the maintenance of rest homes, sanatoriums, kindergartens and summer camps for children, etc. Factory and office workers pay only 30 per cent of the cost of their maintenance in a sanatorium or rest home, the remaining 70 per cent being covered from the social insurance fund, and in some cases accommodations are provided free of charge. As compared with 1940, the social insurance budget of our union has increased 2.5 times.

We have five sanatoriums and ten rest homes in the Caucasus, in the Crimea, on the Riga coast and in other health resorts of the USSR. Last year tens of thousands of miners spent their vacations (which are taken annually with full pay) there.

We have 17 palaces of culture, 840 clubs and more than 60 parks and gardens. Cinema installations are available in the palaces of culture, clubs and at all the large mines. Our union is running hundreds of radio relay centers in the coal and shale districts. Three hundred libraries of miners, opened since the end of the war, have collections totaling about one million volumes.

The miners of the western districts of the USSR have their own sports society, *Shakhter* (The Miner), with some 40 thousand athletes. This society has built six stadiums and equipped more than three hundred fine sports grounds. The trade union has secured conveniently situated gardening allotments for its members and credits for purchasing cattle and poultry. These long-term credits have been granted by the Land Bank of the USSR to thousands of miners on easy terms; the total for this year is expected to reach 9,300,000 rubles.

The steps taken to improve the living conditions of the miners likewise tend to stimulate labor productivity.

One of the most widespread and popular forms of trade union work is the production conference. Many valuable suggestions have been made by the miners at these conferences. Their realization has helped to raise labor productivity, and coal production.

The Five-Year Plan calls for increasing the production of coal to 250 million tons in 1950, but the miners are determined to achieve this goal a year ahead of time, and this is the aim pursued by the extensive socialist emulation movement among the miners.

Jacobi's Electric Motor

By A. Lurye

LARGE throngs gathered on the banks of the Neva one fine summer day in 1839. They were attracted by a sight unusual for those days: a boat propelled by electricity. It was designed by the talented Russian scientist B. S. Jacobi, Member of the Academy of Sciences. The boat, equipped with paddle wheels and carrying fourteen passengers, sailed up and down the river for several hours, moving even upstream and against a strong wind. Its engine, invented by Jacobi, was fed by electricity from 64 galvanic elements and had a capacity of one horsepower.

Boris Semyonovich Jacobi (1801-1874), Russian physicist and power engineer, did not belong to that group of scientists who confine themselves to their laboratories, but he kept in close touch with all scientific and technical developments of his time and sought to apply them in practice. At that time, two remarkable discoveries in the field of electricity directed the attention of designers along two trends which differed in principle. Whereas one group of inventors tried to develop the first electric motors based on the principle of reciprocating motion, the others tried to create rotary electric engines. It was in keeping with the latter principle that Jacobi designed his engine.

Here is the way Jacobi's engine was described by one of his contemporaries: "Jacobi's machine consisted of two stationary wooden vertical discs along the circumference of which were fastened 12 horseshoe shaped electric magnets. Between these electric magnets was placed a system of electric magnets likewise fastened to a disc; the influence of the attraction and repulsion of the stationary poles brought this disc into rotary motion. Every time the mobile electric magnets passed the stationary ones, the direction of the current was changed with the aid of a relay. To make the latter Jacobi used four brass pieces whose teeth were isolated by ivory. The shaft of the mobile wooden disc transmitted the motion to the working shaft."

The mechanism of the machine, Jacobi himself explained in 1834, is very simple when compared with the steam engine: it has no cylinders, no pistons, no valves, no considerable friction, which causes the loss of more than half of the energy; in this machine the loss is due only to the friction of the bearings. Furthermore, this machine produces a direct rotary motion which can much more easily be changed into other forms of motion than the reciprocating one.

Jacobi's great service was that he proved in practice the reversibility of the cycle. If instead of expending galvanic energy to produce mechanical power, his engine was set into motion by mechanical power (by rotating the shaft) it would have become a generator of electric power, i.e., could work as a dynamo. This remarkable idea about the "reversibility", the actual identity between a generator of electric power and a magneto-electric engine, was first expressed by Russian scientists, by Lents and after him by Jacobi (1850).

Jacobi always tried to apply scientific theories in industry. He was the first of the world's electrotechnicians to treat electricity as a power engineer. Jacobi was the first to apply the remarkable discovery of induction and electro-magnetic rotation for practical use, for propelling a boat. Hence he is rightly regarded as the pioneer of electric power engineering.

In 1837 Jacobi made another of his remarkable discoveries — galvanoplastics. During his experiments with galvanic elements he discovered an uneven layer of copper on one of the electrodes. At first he thought this was due to poor flattening of the copper, but careful verification and experimentation convinced Jacobi that he had hit upon an entirely new and hitherto unknown phenomenon, which is the result of the chemical influence of electricity on the electrode and the liquid in the galvanic element. In 1840 Jacobi published a paper entitled "Galvanoplastics, or method for producing copper articles from copper solutions with the aid of galvanism." For this work Jacobi was presented the Demidov prize by the Russian Academy of Sciences.

At that time, however, galvanoplastics had not developed to any appreciable extent, for its practical application demanded greater and cheaper electric power than the current produced by galvanic elements.

Jacobi was able to gaze far into the future and to pose before science and technology problems whose solution was to be tackled by future generations.

Of interest also are Jacobi's researches in the field of liquid conductors and polarization. His later work resulted in the development in 1847 of the so-called counter-battery, a device for transmitting telegrams over poorly insulated wires, which was of great practical value. In 1845 Jacobi completed a telegraph connecting St. Petersburg with Tsarskoye Selo, utilizing underground wires. For this line he designed several original telegraph apparatuses which are kept in a museum to this day.

By placing the underground wires in glass tubes, Jacobi made the important discovery that a telegraph can consist of only one aerial wire, while the ground can serve as the reverse conductor.

In 1850 Jacobi invented the first letter printing telegraph apparatus in the world. In this field, too, priority belongs to Russian science, since an analogous apparatus was patented by Hughes in the United States only in 1885.

Jacobi's researches and inventions gained him world renown. A member of the Russian Academy and of many European scientific societies, he raised high the banner of Russian science. Jacobi's fruitful activity is additional evidence of the fact that in the field of electricity, this greatest energetical factor in modern progress, Russian science was on many occasions ahead of science in other countries.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE recent three-day round-trip flight from Moscow to Khabarovsk, along regular airline routes, accomplished by the pilot Denissov and his crew, set a new civil air-transport record for the distance.

The flight, which ended April 29, cut the time regularly scheduled for the distance approximately in half. Denissov's flight attracted great attention and enthusiasm, since the post-war Five-Year Plan envisages much speedier air communication with remote districts of the country, particularly with Siberia and the Far East. The flight was made with a regular multi-seated passenger plane under unfavorable weather conditions.

★

In the USSR education by correspondence courses may be obtained in 16 special higher educational institutions and 372 special departments of universities and institutes. Over 200 thousand specialists for industry, transport, agriculture, and other branches of the national economy are trained at these courses.

★

Every night, call signs of Soviet short wave amateurs fill the air. One can hardly point to any spot on the globe with which the well-known Soviet radio amateurs, Baikuzov, Krenkel, Vostryakov and many others, have not maintained two-way communications. Within 20 years, radio amateur Nikolai Baikuzov received about 10 thousand QSLs (cards, containing the call letters of an amateur sending station, which verify a contact) from Europe, America, Africa, Asia and Australia. Short wave radio is being used on an ever greater scale in the Soviet Union. It has become irreplaceable at arctic wintering stations and in navigation. During the recent war, many thousands of amateurs became army radio operators, furnishing the Soviet armed forces with reliable communications. In peace time, short wave radio stations are used for communications between machine and tractor stations and collective farms, in lumbering operations, on railway transport, at wintering stations high in the Pamir and Caucasus ranges.

One hundred and eighty thousand new students will be enrolled by colleges and about 348 thousand by specialized high schools in 1948-1949, according to the plan approved by the Ministry of Higher Education of the USSR. An additional 106 thousand are expected to take college correspondence courses. In the coming autumn the number of college students in the USSR is expected to reach 722 thousand, i.e., to surpass the attendance envisioned for the last year of the Five-Year Plan (1950).

★

In the Turkmen Soviet Socialist Republic (Central Asia) extensive work is proceeding on the translation of Russian and world classics into the Turkmenian language. These include the works of Pushkin, Gogol, Shakespeare and others.

★

The Leningrad State Theater of Opera and Ballet recently held a playgoers' conference to discuss the theater's repertoire and its plans. The conference lasted for several days and evoked great interest among Leningraders. The floor was taken by engineers and doctors, teachers and students, as well as actors, composers and other art workers.

Although the Lenin Collective Farm of Chadyr-Lupg District in the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic has been in existence for only 18 months, the advantages of the collective farm system are already felt by its members. Distribution of the farm's income among its members has been recently completed. For each workday (a measure of labor on a collective farm) put in by the collective farmer he or she received 13.2 pounds of grain, 3.3 pounds of vegetable oil seeds and ten rubles in cash. The Arikov family, who were credited with 1,370 workdays, received 8.3 tons of grain, two tons of oil seed and more than 13 thousand rubles in cash. Arikov sold his surplus produce to the co-operative society. He built a new house for his elder son and gave him 10 thousand rubles for furniture and household expenses. The family also bought a calf, five sheep and a pig. In the village shop, the Arikovs bought four coats, several pairs of shoes, about 110 yards of fabrics, furniture and a sewing machine. The remaining money Arikov deposited in his savings account. Other members of the farm have done equally well.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

(May 17—May 30)

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from May 17 to 30 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88, and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays, May 17 and 24—Economic Affairs.

Tuesday, May 18—Trade Unions.

Wednesdays and Fridays, May 19 and 21, 26 and 28—Cultural Programs.

Thursday, May 20—Programs for children.

Tuesday, May 25—Program for farmers.

Thursday, May 27—Programs for youth.

On Saturdays—weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners. Concerts.

On Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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MAY 26, 1948

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MICHURIN APPLES. Yevgenia Dolgova checks hybrid apples developed on the principles of the great plant geneticist, Michurin. (Story on Michurin, p. 310.) FRONT COVER. A girl athlete of Soviet Georgia. BACK COVER. Children in a Moscow park.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

N. M. Shvernik's Sixtieth Birthday Is Observed in USSR

THE sixtieth birthday of Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik, President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, outstanding leader of the Bolshevik Party and Soviet State and loyal comrade-in-arms of great Stalin, was observed in the Soviet Union on May 19.

Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik belongs to the glorious group of revolutionaries who dedicated their lives to the service of the working class, to the cause of communism. His name is inseparably associated with the history of the Bolshevik Party, with its struggle for the victory of the Socialist Revolution and for the construction of socialism in the USSR.

The whole Soviet country knows Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik as a staunch, unwavering Bolshevik, who has been devoting all his indomitable energy, all his tremendous experience and organizational talent to strengthening the might of the Soviet State, to the construction of socialism. All his life and work represent a model of selfless service to his native land, to the Soviet people.

The son of a working-class family, Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik began work in a factory in 1902 as a turner. In 1905, at the age of 17, he joined the ranks of the Bolshevik Party and since then has linked his life with the life of the Party. From the very first days of his underground work, Shvernik joined in active revolutionary activities and mastered the theory of Marxism-Leninism; he undertook responsible assignments and leading Party functions in Petersburg and later in the Nikolayev, Tula and Samara Committees of the Party.

The young revolutionary was cruelly persecuted by the tsarist Government. Between 1905 and 1917, he was arrested several times, confined to prisons and spent about three years in exile. But the persecutions of the tsarist Government, the hardships and privations failed to break the spirit of the staunch revolutionary. It merely steeled him, armed him with new experience and strengthened still further his confidence in the justice of the Bolshevik cause and in the inevitable victory of the proletariat.

NIKOLAI M. SHVERNIK

After the Great October Socialist Revolution, Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik held a number of high posts. In the days immediately following the October Revolution, he headed the All-Russian Committee of the Workers of Ordnance Works, and subsequently worked as the Chairman of the Samara City Soviet and fought in the battles on the Eastern Front and against Denikin. In the years 1923-1925, Shvernik was a member of the Presidium of the Central Control Commission of the CPSU(B) and held the post of People's Commissar of Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the Russian SFSR.

In 1925-1928, he was Secretary of the Leningrad Regional Committee of the CPSU(B), Secretary of the Central Committee of the Party and Secretary of the Urals Regional Committee of the CPSU(B).

After the death of V. I. Lenin, Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik became a member of the leading nucleus of the Party, headed by Stalin, which safeguarded the great banner of Lenin, rallied the Party to carry out Lenin's

AWARD. Shvernik presents the Order of Mother Heroine to Sophia Romanova, honored as an exemplary mother.

behests and guided the Soviet people in the country's industrialization and the collectivization of agriculture.

In 1930, Shvernik was elected First Secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. The new trade union leadership, headed by Shvernik, developed criticism and self-criticism in the trade unions on a large scale, mobilized the members for the construction of the socialist society, for the successful realization of the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

Shvernik's name is associated with the great achievements of the Soviet trade unions. These accomplished great things in rallying many millions of non-Party people around the Bolshevik Party, around the leader and teacher of the Soviet people, Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin.

As the largest mass organizations of the working-class, the Soviet trade unions played a vital role during the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods, in mobilizing the efforts of the working people for the realization of the Five-Year Plans, developing the socialist emulation and Stakhánov movements.

Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik has elaborated very important questions of the Soviet trade union movement, questions connected with the active participation of large masses of working people in the trade unions in Soviet and State construction.

Since the Fourteenth Congress of the CPSU(B), Shevernik has been a member of the Central Committee of the CPSU(B); since the Sixteenth Congress, a member of the Organizational Bureau of the Central Committee of the CPSU(B); and since the Eighteenth Congress, an alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party.

Shvernik was repeatedly elected to the All-Russian Central Executive Committee and the Central Executive Committee of the USSR.* At the Tenth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, in March 1944, N. M. Shvernik was elected First Vice-President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR; at the Fifth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR, in March 1944, he was elected President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR. The Eleventh Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, held in March 1946, elected him President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

In the post of President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, N. M. Shvernik is devoting all his powers and knowledge to the practical application of the ideas of Lenin and Stalin, to the strengthening of the might of the Soviet State, to raising the cultural and living standards of the working people of the USSR, to rallying all the peoples of the Soviet Union around the Soviet Government and the Party of Lenin and Stalin.

By all his activities, Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik is untiringly assisting the CPSU(B) to achieve ever new successes in socialist construction. He is assisting in the undeviating pursuit of a policy of peace in the whole world, in strengthening friendly relations with all the peace-loving countries. Ardent in his propaganda of the great principles of the Stalin Constitution, he is striving daily to improve the state apparatus of the Soviets.

"Our most important task," says he, "is that of strengthening and improving the activities of the Soviets, by encouraging the working people to share actively in the work of the Soviets on a large scale. In all their activities, the Soviets of Working People's Deputies must attract the cooperation of as many workers, peasants and intelligentsia as possible in the efforts for the realization of the Five-Year Plan for the Development of the National Economy, and must insist upon strict state discipline in industry and agriculture. The Soviets must organize effective control in regard to the practical realization of the decisions of the Party and the Government by state and economic institutions.

"It is the task of the Soviets to put into practice undeviatingly the Stalin Constitution, to strengthen the friendship of the peoples and to promote the moral and political education of the people in a spirit of patriotism and devotion to their Motherland."

The Soviet Government and the Bolshevik Party are expressing the will of all the Soviet people in showing appreciation of the services of Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik to his country. On the occasion of his sixtieth birthday, he was decorated for the third time with the Order of Lenin. He had previously received this high award in 1938, for distinguished services to the working class; and in 1946, for the successful realization of the task of ensuring labor power to industry, construction, and transport.

The working class, collective farm peasants, Soviet intelligentsia—all the working people of the great multinational Soviet Union, highly appreciate and sincerely love Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik, a true comrade-in-arms of the great Stalin, an outstanding statesman of the Lenin-Stalin epoch, whose life is being spent in an untiring struggle for the achievement of communism.

*Before 1936, the highest organs of state power, between sessions of the Congress of Soviets, of the Russian SFSR and the USSR respectively.

Text of J. V. Stalin's Reply To Wallace Letter

J. V. Stalin's Reply to Mr. Wallace's open letter (from Pravda, May 19).

I BELIEVE that among recent political documents having as their purpose the consolidation of peace, the promotion of international co-operation and the securing of democracy, the open letter of Mr. Wallace, the Third Party Presidential candidate in the United States of America, is a most important document.

Mr. Wallace's open letter cannot be considered a mere declaration on the desirability of improving the international situation, on the desirability of the peaceful settlement of the differences between the USSR and the USA, on the desirability of finding ways for such a settlement. The inadequacy of the United States Government's declaration of May 4 and the Soviet Government's reply of May 9 consists in that they go no further than making declarations on the desirability of settling Soviet-American differences.

The great importance of the open letter lies in the fact that it does not confine itself to making declarations, but goes further, makes a serious step forward and gives a concrete program for the peaceful settlement of the differences between the USSR and the USA.

It cannot be said that Mr. Wallace's open letter covers all the points of difference without exception. Neither can it be said that some of the formulations and comments in the open letter are not in need of improvement. But that is not the main thing now. The main thing is that in his letter, Mr. Wallace makes an open and honest attempt to give a concrete program for a peaceful settlement, to make concrete proposals in respect to all the main points of difference between the USSR and the USA.

These proposals are generally known: the general reduction of armaments and the prohibition of atomic weapons; the conclusion of peace treaties with Germany and Japan and the withdrawal of troops from those countries; the withdrawal of troops from China and Korea; respect for the sovereignty of individual countries and non-interference in their internal affairs; the prohibition of the establishment of military bases in member countries of the United Nations; the development in every possible way of international trade, precluding all discrimination; aid to and economic rehabilitation, within the framework of the United Nations, of the countries which suffered from the war; the defense of democracy and ensuring civil rights in all countries, etc.

One may or may not agree with Mr. Wallace's program. But one thing is nevertheless indubitable: Not a single statesman who is concerned for the cause of peace and co-operation among nations can ignore this program; it reflects the hopes and aspirations of the peoples for the strengthening of peace and will doubtless meet with support on the part of many millions of "common men."

I do not know whether the United States Government approves of Mr. Wallace's program as the basis for agreement between the USSR and the USA. As far as the Government of the USSR is concerned, it believes that Mr. Wallace's program could serve as a good and fruitful basis for such agreement and for the development of international co-operation, because the Government of the USSR believes that in spite of the differences in the economic systems and ideologies, the coexistence of these systems, and the peaceful settlement of differences between the USSR and the USA are not only possible but absolutey necessary in the interests of universal peace.

Moscow,
MAY 17, 1948.

Text of Mr. Wallace's Letter

ALTHOUGH the notes of Ambassador Bedell Smith and Foreign Minister Molotov are both characterized by the same self-righteousness which has led to the international crisis, they represent great hope to those of us who have consistently maintained that peace is possible and they represent a severe blow to the propagandists on both sides who have insisted that the two nations cannot live at peace in the same world. The two letters assume what we have long contended—that the wartime co-operation between the two great Powers can be rebuilt and strengthened in time of peace. The exchange of notes, opening the door to negotiations, must be followed by a meeting—an open, fully reported meeting of representatives of both the United States and the Soviet Union. With the prospect of such a meeting, I present my thoughts on the steps necessary to achieve the Century of Peace.

The USA and the USSR must take immediate action to end the cold war. This involves taking definitive, decisive steps looking toward the following objectives:

1. General reduction of armaments —outlawing all methods of mass destruction.

2. Stopping the export of weapons by any nation to any other nation.

3. The resumption of unrestricted trade (except for goods related to war) between the two countries.

4. The free movement of citizens, students and newspapermen between

and within the two countries.

5. The resumption of free exchange of scientific information and scientific material between the two nations.

6. The re-establishment of a re-invigorated UNRRA or the constitution of some other United Nations agency for the distribution of international relief.

Neither the USA nor the USSR should interfere in the internal affairs of other nations. Neither the USA nor the USSR should maintain military bases in other UN countries. Neither the USA nor the USSR should terrorize the citizens of member states of the UN by massing land forces, establishing air bases, or making naval demonstrations. Neither the USA nor the USSR should use financial pressure, economic pressure or the pressure of secret agents to obtain political results in other countries. Both the USA and USSR, in the spirit of the UN Charter, should collaborate to the limit in furthering the political, economic and cultural health of the world. To that end, the USA and the USSR should join the various subsidiary agencies of the UN such as the World Health Organization, the Food and Agricultural Organization, and the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

It is to the advantage of both the USA and the USSR to give maximum economic help to Europe as promptly as possible within the framework of the UN, proportioned to the devastation and economic need. As soon as possible the European Cooperation Administration and the United Nations and the Economic Commission for Europe should be converted into a re-invigorated and expanded UNRRA for the purpose of building a highly productive, economically unified Europe in which there would be no barriers of trade, communication or culture between Eastern Europe and Western Europe.

The USSR, the USA, Great Britain, and France should conclude a peace treaty with Germany at the earliest possible moment. The objective is the prompt re-establishment of a peace-loving German government in charge of a united Germany which is obligated to the strict fulfillment of the Yalta and Potsdam agreements. Russian, French, British and American troops should be withdrawn from Germany within one year after the signing of the German peace treaty.

Neither the USA nor the USSR should send arms into China. Both the USA and the USSR should withdraw troops from both China and Korea. There should be set up as soon as possible a government for all of Korea. Both the USA and the USSR should adhere to the principle of equal rights for all nations in China, with respect for the sovereignty of China, and refrain from interference in the internal affairs of China. Both the USA and the USSR can benefit from a China which is strong and unified on the basis of economic and political democracy.

A peace treaty with Japan based on agreements heretofore arrived at should be made at the earliest possible moment. Both the USA and the USSR have a vital interest in a democratic and peace-loving Japan. All nations having occupation troops in Japan should withdraw them within a year after the signing of the peace treaty with Japan.

The excessive use of the veto and the impasse with regard to certain phases of atomic energy control are the expression of the lack of confidence between the two nations. They are symptoms, not causes. Both can be handled constructively once confidence is established in the major issues. The door should be promptly opened to the extraordinary benefits which atomic energy can bring to mankind at peace. Atomic energy for war is a crime and a curse. Atomic energy for peace can be science's greatest blessing.

The Atlantic Charter has provision for freedom of access to raw materials by the nations of the world. This is very important for the smaller nations and both the USA and the USSR should carry out the spirit of Article 4 of the Atlantic Charter.

There are possibilities of increasing interchange of goods between the USA and the USSR to a volume many times the prewar figure. Such an increase in trade, excluding any discrimination, will promote friendly relations between the two countries and thereby strengthen the cause of world peace.

Millions of citizens in the USA believe it is the settled purpose of Soviet leaders to conquer the world. Millions of citizens in the USSR believe it is the settled purpose of the USA to invade the USSR. Both point to specific instances to make their point. Each nation should state definitely and categorically that it has no design on the territorial integrity of any other nation.

The ideological competition between communism and capitalism is a different matter from the misunderstanding between the USSR and the USA. The latter can be solved in a way that will preserve peace. But the competition between the capitalist and communist systems is never ending. It is the concern of both nations to see that this competition remains constructive and that it never degenerates into the status of such a religious war as the Thirty Years War which so devastated Europe at the beginning of the Seventeenth Century.

Russia cannot be held responsible for the excesses of local communists any more than the USA can be held responsible for the reprehensible exploitation of backward peoples by many capitalists who are not citizens or only nominally citizens of the USA. Undoubtedly many communists and capitalists have expressed the belief that their particular system will inevitably dominate the world. But that does not mean that the USSR and the USA must engage in perpetual conflict. The two countries can agree to a *modus vivendi* while the slow process of time determines the strong and weak points of the two economic systems and the free peoples of the world make day by day the small choices which eventually will evolve, on the basis of empiricism, systems which will be best adapted for the various individual countries.

There is no misunderstanding or difficulty between the USA and the USSR which can be settled by force or fear and there is no difference which cannot be settled by peaceful, hopeful negotiation. There is no American principle or public interest, and there is no Russian principle or public interest which would have to be sacrificed to end the cold war and open up the Century of Peace which the Century of the Common Man demands.

Back to Civil Life

The Soviet Army, with the demobilization of older age groups completed recently, became the first army of a major Power to return to a peacetime footing. On this page is shown the return to peaceful civilian life of one soldier, Junior Sergeant Anatoli Alisharov of Moscow.

Alisharov is now working at the Second Moscow watch factory, where he was employed before entering the Army, and where he is now a foreman in the machine shop. By law, demobilized servicemen must be given jobs as good or better than those they held before their service.

With his wife, Zoya, and his mother, Yevdokia, he occupies a pleasant apartment in the capital.

GREETING. His wife and mother meet Alisharov.

HOMEWARD BOUND. The Alisharovs leave the station.

GETTING SET. The military commissariat helps veterans get jobs and housing.

HELP. It is years since he has tied a necktie.

BACK AT WORK. Alisharov is a factory foreman.

Statements of V. M. Molotov And US Ambassador Smith

(Translation of a TASS release published by the Soviet daily press.)

On May 4 the Ambassador of the United States to the USSR, General W. Bedell Smith, called on the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, V. M. Molotov, and on the instructions of his Government made a statement to the following effect:

REFERRING to his conversation with Generalissimo J. V. Stalin and V. M. Molotov in 1946, General W. Bedell Smith stated that the European community of nations and the United States, alarmed by tendencies in Soviet policy, had rallied for mutual self-defense, and that the United States was determined to play its part in these joint measures directed towards recovery and self-defense.

The uneasiness and determination of the American people had grown in connection with the hostile attitude displayed by the Soviet Government in regard to the European Recovery Program, the idea of which was but a means of rendering American aid in the matter of recovery on a joint basis and did not threaten anyone.

The situation which has arisen, the statement continues, due to the actions of the Soviet Government or of political groups which are evidently controlled by the latter, as well as the reaction to these actions on the part of other countries, including the United States, is unquestionably very serious. In this connection, the Government of the United States wants to formulate certain points in regard to which in its opinion it is very important that there should be no misunderstanding.

Firstly, the policy of the United States Government in international affairs has lately become quite definite. This policy enjoys the support of the majority of the American people. It will be vigorously pursued in the future as well. Internal political considerations, such as, for instance, the forthcoming elections, will not influence this policy.

The Government of the United States is aware of the fact that communist organizations in various places propagate the view that an approaching economic crisis in the United States will soon bring about a change in American policy. Even those who persist in such predictions should understand that an economic crisis will by no means affect the basic productive might of the USA or the fundamental factors underlying the foreign policy of the USA. The present international situation involves issues of vital importance to the security of the United States and to general peace.

Secondly, the Government of the USA desires to make it clear that the USA does not entertain any hostile or aggressive intentions in regard to the Soviet Union. The policy of the United States has been so shaped that it can by no means unfavorably affect the interests of the Soviet Union, if the Soviet Union desires to live in peace with its neighbors and to refrain from attempts at exerting excessive direct or indirect influence on their affairs.

Properly speaking, many elements in the foreign policy of the United States, which at present call forth such sharp objections on the part of the Soviet press, would never have appeared were it not necessary for the United States to render assistance to other countries for the purpose of protecting their political integrity from attempts on the part of communist minorities to seize power and establish regimes subordinated to foreign interests. If these attempts are discontinued, certain manifestations of the foreign policy of the United States, which evidently cause discontent in Moscow, will become unnecessary.

The present state of American-Soviet relations is a source of grave disappointment to the American people and the Government of the United States. As far as we are concerned, it constitutes a painful and undesirable alternative, to which the policy of the Soviet Union and of world communism has pushed us step by step.

To this day, we have by no means given up hope for such a turn in developments as will enable us to find a way for establishing good and sensible relations between our two countries, along with a radical relaxation of the tension which at present so unfavorably affects international relations everywhere. As far as the United States is concerned, the door always remains open for exhaustive discussion and settlement of our differences.

My Government sincerely hopes that the members of the Soviet Government will not ignore the attitude of the Government of the United States as formulated here. If so, they will not encounter on our part a lack of readiness and desire to make our contribution to the cause of such a stabilization of world conditions as will be fully compatible with the security of the Soviet people.

On May 9, V. M. Molotov received General W. Bedell Smith and on the instructions of the Soviet Government made the following statement:

THE Soviet Government has acquainted itself with the statement made by the Ambassador of the United States of America, General W. Bedell Smith, on May 4 this year, with reference to the present state of Soviet-American relations. The Soviet Government views favorably the desire of the Government of the United States to improve these relations, as expressed in the said statement, and agrees to the proposal to proceed, with this end in view, to the discussion and settlement of differences existing between us.

At the same time, the Soviet Government deems it necessary to state that it is unable to agree with the Government of the USA that the present unsatisfactory state of Soviet-American relations and the international tension are caused by the policy of the USSR in Eastern Europe and

by the growing influence of the Soviet Union there.

As regards relations between the USSR and its neighbors, as well as other countries in Europe, the Soviet Government is in a position to note with satisfaction that these relations have indeed considerably improved since the war. It is known that this has found expression in the conclusion of treaties of friendship and mutual assistance between the USSR and those countries, treaties which are aimed exclusively against a repetition of aggression on the part of Germany and her possible allies, and which, contrary to the statement of the United States Ambassador in Moscow, General W. Bedell Smith, contain no secret protocols whatever. The above-mentioned countries, which were swept by German aggression, are especially interested in the conclusion of such treaties.

It is known that the United States is also pursuing a policy of consolidating its relations with neighboring countries, such as, for instance, Canada and Mexico, as well as other American countries, which is perfectly comprehensible. It is equally comprehensible that the Soviet Union is also pursuing a policy of consolidating its relations with neighboring and other countries of Europe. A policy of consolidating friendly relations with these countries of Europe will be pursued by the Soviet Union in the future as well.

The statement of the United States Government says that certain foreign policy steps of the United States in other countries which evoke the discontent of the USSR are caused by the excessive influence of the Soviet Union on the domestic affairs of those countries. The Soviet Government cannot agree with such an explanation. As regards the countries of Eastern Europe, which are referred to in this case, it is known that since the war important democratic transformations have taken place there, that they constitute a means of defense against the threat of a new war, and for this reason have created favorable conditions for the development of friendly relations between these countries and the USSR.

It would be utterly wrong to ascribe the democratic transformations which have taken place there to the intervention of the Soviet Union in the domestic affairs of the said countries. This would mean ignoring the indubitable fact that the above transformations constitute the natural result of the victory of the democratic forces over Nazism and Fascism, and are regarded by the peoples of Eastern Europe as a guarantee against the threat of a new war. In the light of the above, the promotion of Communists to leading positions is perfectly natural, because the peoples of these countries regard the Communists as the most consistent fighters against a new war.

No one has the right to dispute the fact that the implementation of democratic reforms is the domestic affair of each State. However, from the above statement of the Government of the USA, it clearly follows that this Government holds a different view, and on its part practices intervention in the domestic affairs of other States, which cannot but evoke serious objections on the part of the Soviet Government. Events in Greece are not the sole example of such intervention in the domestic affairs of other States.

The Government of the USA also explains the present unsatisfactory state of Soviet-American relations by the Soviet Government's attitude to the so-called European Recovery Program. Meanwhile, it is perfectly clear that if the question of the economic recovery of the European countries had not been dealt with in the manner adopted in the said program, but on the basis of normal conditions of international economic co-operation within the framework of the United Nations organization and with due respect for the national rights and sovereignty of States, there would have been no reason for the negative attitude of the USSR to the European Recovery Program—the more so that the USSR, as one of the States which suffered most economically during the war, is highly interested in the development of postwar international economic co-operation.

At the same time the Soviet Government deems it necessary to declare that the present unsatisfactory state of Soviet-American relations and the international tension result from the recent policy of the Government of the United States. What helps to bring about such tension is, first of all, the actions of the United States Government, such as the progressive development of the network of naval and air bases in all parts of the globe, including territories bordering on the USSR, while the press and a number of official representatives of the USA plainly state that these bases are being set up for the purpose of encircling the USSR. Measures of this kind cannot be explained by the needs of self-defense.

It is similarly impossible to overlook the fact that the present international atmosphere is being poisoned by all kinds of bellicose threats directed against the USSR, and emanating from definite circles closely connected with the Government of the USA.

The Soviet Government, on the contrary, is consistently pursuing a peaceable policy in regard to the USA and other States, does not set up military bases in other countries, and does not resort to any threats in regard to anyone.

Moreover, a military alliance of the western countries, comprising Britain, France, Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg, was recently formed. Whereas all treaties of mutual assistance concluded by the Soviet Union with the East European countries, as well as with Britain and France, are aimed at preventing another aggression on the part of Germany and are not directed against any allied State, the military alliance of the five Western States set up at present, as evident from the treaty, does not have Germany alone in mind, but can equally be directed against those States which were allies in the Second World War.

The entire British, French and American press openly says that this alliance is directed against the USSR. One cannot overlook the fact that the formation of the said military alliance has become possible only due to encouragement on the part of the Government of the USA. Clearly, the military treaty of the five Western States can by no means be regarded as a treaty of self-defense.

The unfriendly policy of the United States Government in regard to the USSR is also revealed in Soviet-American trade. Under the Trade Agreement concluded between our two States, the United States Government is obliged not to apply to exports of commodities from the USA to the Soviet

Union any more burdensome rules or formalities than those applied in regard to any third country.

However, the present policy of the United States Government disregards this undertaking of the United States and completely contradicts the Soviet-American Trade Agreement in that it establishes discrimination against the USSR, despite the fact that the Soviet Union discharges its obligations under the said Agreement in good faith. As a result of this, the export of American goods to the USSR is being disrupted, although the Soviet Union has made advance payments for these goods, or has even paid in full for them. This also causes harm to the American firms concerned. It is perfectly obvious that such a situation cannot be tolerated.

At present, the United States Government declares that the United States does not entertain any hostile or aggressive intention in regard to the Soviet Union, and expresses the hope that it will be possible to find a way of establishing good and sensible relations between our two countries along with a radical relaxation in international tension, and expresses its preparedness to assist in such a stabilization of world conditions as would also meet the interests of the security of the Soviet people.

The Soviet Government can only welcome this statement of the Government of the USA, for, as is known, it has always pursued a policy of peaceableness and co-operation in regard to the United States, and this policy has always met with unanimous approval and support on the part of the peoples of the USSR. The Government of the USSR declares that it intends to pursue this policy with perfect consistency in the future as well.

The Soviet Government also expresses the hope that it will be possible to find a means for eliminating existing differences and for establishing good relations between our countries, such as would comply with the interests of our peoples and the cause of the consolidation of general peace.

General W. Bedell Smith promised to communicate the Soviet Government's statement to the Government of the US.

USSR Recognizes Israel

Following is the text of a telegram from V. M. Molotov, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, to Mr. Moshe Shertok, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Government of Israel. It reads:

I CONFIRM the receipt of your telegram of May 16, by which you informed the Government of the USSR that the establishment of the independent State of Israel was proclaimed on the basis of the United Nations General Assembly's resolution of November 29, 1947, and requested recognition of the State of Israel and of its Provisional Government by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

I hereby inform you that the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has decided officially to recognize the State of Israel and its Provisional Government.

The Soviet Government hopes that the establishment by the Jewish people of its sovereign State will serve the cause of consolidating peace and security in Palestine and in the Near East, and expresses confidence that friendly relations between the USSR and the State of Israel will develop successfully.

Text of Mr. Shertok's Message

Foreign Minister Molotov's telegram was in answer to a telegram received by him from Mr. Moshe Shertok, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Government of Israel. Mr. Shertok's message reads:

I HAVE the honor of informing you —and request you to inform your Government—that in connection with the termination of the British mandate, the National Council of the Jewish State, composed of members of elected representative bodies of the Jews of Palestine, met on May 14, and on the basis of the United Nations General Assembly's resolution of November 29, 1947, proclaimed the establishment of an independent Jewish State in Palestine which will be called the State of Israel.

The Council has decided that pending the formation of State bodies duly elected in accordance with the Constitution which will be worked out by a Constituent Assembly not later than October 1, 1948, this Council will act as a provisional State Council, and that its executive body will be the Provisional Government of the State of Israel.

The Council has declared that the State of Israel will be open for the immigration of Jews from all countries in which they are dispersed; that it will promote the development of the country for the benefit of all its inhabitants; that it will be based on the principles of freedom, justice and peace; that it will maintain the complete social and political equality of all citizens regardless of race, religion or sex; that it will guarantee complete freedom of conscience, religion, education, culture and language; that it will safeguard the sanctity and inviolability of the relics and holy places of all religions; and that it will abide by the principles of the United Nations Charter.

The Council has also declared that the State of Israel is willing to co-operate with the United Nations agencies and representatives in the implementation of the General Assembly's resolution of November 29, 1947, and that it will do everything necessary to ensure effective economic union for the whole of Palestine.

The Council is urging all Arab inhabitants of the State of Israel to return to peaceful life and thereby to facilitate, in matters concerning them, the development of this State on the basis of inalienable and equal rights of citizens and their proper representation in the provisional and permanent Government bodies of this State.

The Council also offers peace to all neighboring countries and their peoples, and invites them to co-operate with the State of Israel for the common welfare.

On behalf of the Provisional Gov-

(Continued on page 328)

USSR-USA Relations—a Press Review

By M. Mikhailov

THE exchange of statements between the Governments of the USA and the USSR has attracted the attention of the whole world and has been met with the keenest interest in the Soviet Union. The comments of the Soviet public on this exchange of statements between United States Ambassador Smith and Soviet Minister of Foreign Affairs Molotov may be summed up as follows: The Soviet people are as one in their support of the peace policy pursued by their Government and share its good will to regulate Soviet-American relations. Moscow believes that there is similar good will among broad sections of the American people.

Reflecting the interest taken by the Soviet public in the question of Soviet-American relations, the Soviet press is widely commenting on this exchange of statements between Smith and Molotov, devoting much space to the reaction to it in the USA and other countries and evaluating the position taken by Washington circles after the publication of these statements. All the big Moscow newspapers devoted special articles to this question and the radio gave much attention to it in its broadcasts.

Pravda and *Trud* were the first in the field with their comments on May 14. Citing the favorable reception the Soviet reply received in Europe and America, Victorov, the *Pravda* commentator, pointed out that everything seemed to favor a rapid implementation of the wishes expressed by the American Government to the USSR. "But," says Victorov, "the makers of American policy followed it up with statements which once more show how far the declarations of some of the political leaders differ from their actual intentions."

Trud, the organ of the Soviet trade unions, wrote on the same day: "The Soviet Union has always pursued a policy of peace in its relations with other peoples. It has always shown its readiness to co-operate with the countries that sincerely desired such co-operation. The American press often discussed the question of concessions which it believed the Soviet Union should make in order to regulate its relations with the USA. 'But what could the United States offer in exchange?' asks the New York Herald Tribune, and comes to the conclusion that the United States could offer nothing but something intangible—peace and prosperity." Commenting on this, Kudryavtsev, the *Trud* commentator, says, "Obviously something more tangible is required to regulate Soviet-American relations, but this is just what is lacking in Smith's statement and moreover in explanations made by American official circles after its publication."

Krasnaya Zvezda, the organ of the Soviet armed forces, in its issue of May 15, carried an article by Professor Khvostov in which he stressed that the exchange of statements between Smith and Molotov was favorably received by world public opinion even outside of progressive democratic circles. True, the reaction of Government circles in various countries was different. Professor Khvostov referred to a Reuters message which said that the reaction of official circles was in sharp contrast to the general opinion of the unofficial public. The fact that the British Government was not elated at the prospect of the alleviation of the strained international atmosphere is borne out by Bevin's statement. Bidault, the French Foreign Minister, was evidently likewise disconcerted.

"The position of the American Government, which was the initiator of this exchange of statements, cannot but cause surprise," the Professor notes. The press, including the American press, understood the statement of the Government of the USA to be an offer to begin negotiations for regulating existing differences. "Indeed," stresses the author of the article, "Smith's statement could not be conceived otherwise than a proposal for a frank exchange of opinions." The subsequent declaration made by highly placed American officials, however, endeavored to give it a different interpretation. In his article, Professor Khvostov cites a report of a Washington correspondent of the United Press to the effect that in American official circles, it is admitted that the Soviet Union has succeeded in placing the USA in a difficult diplomatic position. Apropos of this, the writer says, "This assertion of the correspondent can cause nothing but surprise. The Soviet Union expressed the hope that it would be possible to find means to settle the existing differences, the removal of which, as stated by Ambassador Smith, is also desired by the Government of the USA. The answer of the Soviet Government served to explain the policy of the USSR and to express the good will of the Soviet people."

Moskovsky Bolshevik, a Moscow newspaper, carried an article dealing with this subject by Kulibin under the title *The Problems of Peace and Soviet-American Relations.* The author states: "Broad sections of the population in all countries fully realize that the stability of peace and world security to a large extent depends on the relations between the two great countries—the Soviet Union and the United States." The reaction to the statements of Smith and Molotov has shown that "world public opinion is ready to support any initiative taken with the object of regulating relations between the States and consolidating the general peace." The author points out that the reaction of world public opinion to the readiness of the two great powers to regulate their relations was prompted by a sense of responsibility for peace and security which is characteristic of millions of plain people. "It has been caused," the author writes, "by the anxiety felt by sincere upholders of peace at the irresponsible policy of certain political groups and individual statesmen in the USA. The concern of the American public for the fortunes of peace and above all for the

fortunes of the American people, has left its mark also on Smith's statement."

In *Notes by Readers,* a column of *Literaturnaya Gazeta,* the organ of the Union of Writers of the USSR, Nikolai Pogodin, the well-known Soviet playwright, notes that each step made, every word uttered with the intention of bringing about a genuine consolidation of the cause of peace and amity among nations will not be passed unnoticed by any Soviet citizen. The latter is, on the contrary, ready to reciprocate every sincere manifestation of love of peace and friendship. In the same column, the school teacher, Pomerantseva, writes, "The exchange of statements has been received in the Soviet Union with a keen interest which reflects the profound confidence of broad sections of the Soviet people in the correctness of the foreign policy of the Soviet Government. On the other hand, the utterances of members of the United States Government, made after the exchange of statements between the USA and the USSR, compel me to doubt the sincerity of the declaration made by the American Ambassador, General Smith."

Henry Wallace's open letter to Generalissimo Stalin has been read with great interest by the Soviet people. *Pravda* and *Izvestia* devoted special articles to comment upon this letter in their issues of May 16. Leontyev, in *Pravda,* noted the realistic nature and consistency of Wallace's position. Wallace, he says, realized the necessity for the USA to come to an agreement with the USSR. He understands the hopelessness of the designs of shortsighted politicians who believe that by blackmail or the notorious "war of nerves," they could compel the USSR to adopt the point of view of the American ruling circles on the questions at issue. Recognizing the absence of contradictions between the vital national interest of the powers, Wallace consistently comes out in favor of the only possible and necessary way of a peaceful settlement of the differences.

There is, however, a weak point in Wallace's open letter. This is, as Soviet commentators observe, Wallace's attempt to rise, so to say, above the policies of both Powers and assume the position of impartial judge over them. This leads Wallace to violate the facts when he attempts to get at the causes of the unsettled state of Soviet-American relations. While the propaganda of hatred for the USSR is typical for the United States, there is no propaganda of hate for the USA in the USSR, and while the USA sets up military bases far away from its frontiers, the USSR does nothing of the kind.

The commentators of both *Pravda* and *Izvestia* note that Wallace's open letter is a very positive and encouraging fact in the relations of two great peoples. The Soviet people share Wallace's opinion that there are no such difficulties between our countries as could be solved by force, and at the same time there are no such differences as could not be settled provided there is mutual desire.

Leningrad Leads the Way

An Interview with A. Podugolnikov

Representative of the State Planning Committee of the USSR in Leningrad City and Region.

THE Soviet people are now working all-out for the early completion of the postwar Five-Year Plan. Leningrad marches ahead of all other industrial centers in the socialist competition for new production successes. During the first quarter of the current year, Leningrad industry scored again, exceeding the plan by 3.2 per cent. The level of output in the first quarter of last year was topped by 41 per cent.

Leningrad sends its products to all corners of the Soviet Union. Only the other day the Stalin plant shipped to the Dnieper hydroelectric station, now being restored, the fourth of the six turbines it is manufacturing for this power plant. This is the most powerful hydroturbine in all of Europe, and its production is a point of pride not only with the Stalin plant but with all of Soviet industry.

New cotton goods mills are now being built in many Soviet towns. The equipment for most of them is being produced in Leningrad. To expedite the start of production at new mills, Leningrad workers have accelerated the production of textile machinery. For example, the output of card-combing machines during the first quarter of the year was more than doubled as compared with the same period of 1947; and of ring spinning frames, nearly trebled. The Vulcan plant, which produces card-combing machines, has organized their manufacture by the conveyor method and now a new machine comes off the belt every two hours.

Leningrad has long been renowned as a city of high engineering skill. It is putting out many intricate machines of various types. The Electrosila plant is producing powerful hydrogenerators. The automatic machine tool plant commenced producing a new metal-cutting machine which is technically superior to similar equipment manufactured in the United States. A large number of powerful overhead cranes for rehabilitated or new factories and mills was produced during the first quarter of 1948 by the hoisting and transport equipment plant. Recently the workers of this plant shipped a 75-ton crane of new design for the iron and steel mills in Mariupol, the Ukraine. This order was filled considerably ahead of schedule.

A new town has arisen in the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic in the postwar period: Kohtla Jarve. It is slated to become a large center for the production of gas from combustible shales. Leningrad is delivering large quantities of equipment for this rising industrial center.

The production of consumer goods in Leningrad likewise mounted sharply. Confectionery factories, for example, increased output by half as compared with the same period in last year. The Mikoyan confectionery factory, one of the largest in the country, doubled its assortment and is now putting out some 250 different types of candies, pastries and chocolates. The production of footwear and textiles rose. The city's public utilities—streetcar and trolleybus services, gas works and waterworks—improved operations.

The people of Leningrad are working tirelessly, for they know that their labor is a reliable source of their prosperity and of their country's might.

Curb the Greek Executioners!

A Press Review by I. Ilyin

SOVIET public opinion has been profoundly stirred by the latest events in Greece, where fascist terror has reached monstrous proportions. Foreign press reports indicate that according to far from complete data, 217 Greek patriots were shot during the first week of May. The Athenian rulers have even surpassed the Hitlerite invaders who, as is known, shot two hundred Greek hostages in May, 1943.

On May 11, the Free Greece station broadcast a report about 45 new executions and a day later, Greek Prime Minister Sofulis announced that he "will not compromise," thus clearly intimating that the mass murders in Greece will continue. Tens of thousands of other democrats, including old people, women and children languishing in concentration camps, are threatened with death. Greek reaction intends to drown the country in a deluge of blood, believing that this would intimidate the freedom-loving Greek people and break their will for resistance.

The Soviet public has been moved to deep indignation by the Greek events. The unanimous opinion of the Soviet peoples is expressed in the Soviet Government's note conveyed recently to the Greek Government. The executions of Greek patriots, says the note, are entirely unjustified in the eyes of the civilized world and "the Soviet public expects the immediate cessation of these executions which outrage the conscience of the peoples."

A vigorous protest against the executions of Greek patriots was expressed on behalf of many millions of Soviet working people by the Soviet All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. The appeal published by the AUCCTU emphasizes that since the Hitlerite atrocities "the world has not witnessed such sanguinary terror against the fighters for freedom and democracy . . . The working people of our country are convinced that the protest of the Soviet trade unions expresses the indignation of all progressive mankind."

The indignation and anger of the Soviet people are expressed in letters, telegrams and resolutions of protest pouring into the editorial offices of the Moscow newspapers in an endless stream. They come from all parts of the country, from representatives of all professions and trades. Thousands of rank and file Soviet citizens—workers and peasants, teachers and students—express their fraternal solidarity with the courageous fighters for the freedom of Greece. They raise their wrathful voices in protest against the medieval barbarism which outrages the reason and conscience of mankind.

"Silence is Impermissible!"—under this heading was an appeal published by distinguished Soviet novelists, poets and playwrights including Ehrenburg, Simonov, Fadeyev, Tikhonov, Katayev, Gorbatov and Vishnevsky. They emphasize that the Athenian hangmen who put a noose on the neck of the Greek people have still more far-reaching aims. The Sofulises and Tsaldarises, reads the statement, are trampling upon the ideas of freedom and democracy, upon "the faith of war-tortured mankind in a better post-war world. That is why silence is impermissible!" It is the duty of all the freedom-loving people in the world, say the Soviet writers, to curb the Greek monarcho-fascists. It is a matter of honor, of readiness to defend the ideals of freedom and democracy won at such a heavy cost. It is a question not only of saving the lives of Greek anti-fascists but also of the struggle for democracy in the broadest sense of this word. Another appeal signed by outstanding representatives of Soviet culture—by People's Artists, Painters and Composers—reads: "The sinister shadow of Maidanek, Oswiecim and Dachau hovers over Greece. The peoples have shed their blood on the battlefields of Europe for many long years, not in order to see the brutal fascist executioner come to life again."

The same thought is stressed in a statement published by a group of eminent Soviet scientists, headed by Academicians Vavilov, Obruchev, Bardin and Vipper. "The hand holding the sword dripping with innocent blood must be stayed!" reads the appeal of the Soviet scientists.

The voice of Soviet public opinion, which resounds through the whole world, as well as the protests of the progressive people of all countries, writes *Pravda,* express the will of all civilized mankind. "The conscience of the peoples," in the words of the *Pravda* commentators, "cannot tolerate any further continuation of the brutal terror against the Greek anti-fascists. The responsibility for this terror rests not only with the present rulers of Greece but also with those who raised them to power and continue to patronize them." The paper directs attention to the fact that even today "Voices are raised in justification of the atrocities of the Greek monarcho-fascists; that there are officially authorized representatives of certain governments who encourage the crimes of the Athenian executioners." One of the examples mentioned by *Pravda* is the recent statement of British Minister of State McNeil who, replying to Labor Deputy Chatwind, described the executions of the Greek patriots as an act of justice and stated in Parliament that in his opinion its qualification as "judicial murder is entirely unfounded."

Anna Karavayeva, the Soviet authoress in *Literaturnaya Gazeta,* writes: "Honest people the world over! Ponder over the meaning of all these sanguinary crimes! Wave aside the notion that Greece is far away from you and that all this does not concern you. No, the Greek manslaughter concerns everybody, every man and woman. Defeated in Germany, fascism is trying to come back to life in Greece to secure a place d'armes for an offensive for a new war."

Michurin, Transformer of Nature

By Pavel Voitsekhovsky

"We cannot wait until nature grants us her favors; it is our task to take them from her."

—Ivan Michurin.

On the outskirts of the city of Michurinsk, Tambov Region, stands the house in which the great Russian scholar, Ivan Michurin, lived until his last days. Here everything speaks of him, everything has remained as it was on the day of his death—the household utensils, furniture, instruments, gardening tools, his library of 2,086 books. Only the fruit nursery, founded by Michurin almost half a century ago, has been enlarged and his famous orchard has spread luxuriantly.

The Soviet people cherish the memory of the great Russian scientist. Michurin's house has become a museum. Every year it is visited by thousands of excursionists—people of the most varied professions: actors of the Moscow and Leningrad theaters and amateur gardeners from Siberia, students of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy and teachers of Tambov Region, workers, collective farmers, military men.

The guests are invariably met by Alexandra Tikhonova, Michurin's oldest assistant. Having shown the visitors over the house, she usually conducts them into the Michurin "garden of miracles."

This contains the great legacy of the daring transformer of nature—tender southern fruits cultivated in the central zone of Russia; grapes, apricots, dessert pears, cherries, mulberry trees. . . . Here we find new plants, not seen anywhere else before: apples resembling pears in shape; lilies with the scent of violets; a fragile southern rose which has acquired the frost-resisting properties of the briar; an extraordinary hybrid cherry, a cross between two remote species—the local cherry of the steppes and the exotic Japanese bird-cherry.

Michurin cultivated more than three hundred varieties of fruits and berries. Fifty-five of the best of these are now among the standard varieties of many

IVAN MICHURIN

districts of the Soviet Union. More than one million Michurin fruit trees grow in Soviet orchards. Immensely popular are the "Pepin-Shafran" and "Slavyanka" apples, remarkable for their property of bearing fruit at an early age, two or three years after planting, whereas the local varieties only bear fruit after six or eight years. While a twelve-year-old "Antonovka" apple tree usually yields 55 kilograms* of apples, the "Pepin-Shafran" of the same age yields an average of 137 kilograms per tree, and the "Slavyanka," 114 kilograms.

A whole series of Michurin fruit trees have better frost-resisting properties than the Central Russian varieties, which makes it possible to move orchards far to the north, up to Murmansk, Narym, Igarka, Kamchatka. The "Esaul Yermak", "Kitaika Anisovaya", "Kitaika Desertnaya", "Kitaika Zolotaya", "Taezhnoye" and "Slava" apple trees, and the "Nadezhda Krupskaya", "Polzhir", "Polevka", "Serednyachka", "Geroi Rannikh" and "Plodorodnaya Michurina" cherry trees are extremely valuable for fruit-growing in the north.

*One kilogram=2.204 pounds.

Such are the great treasures of Michurin's garden. But the greatest treasure which this scientist left as a legacy to his people is his theory.

Basing his work on Darwinism, Michurin found methods of directing the changeability of heredity, of guiding it into the channels desirable for man. The great scientist's methods—inter-species crossing, propagating hybrid descendants, the method of the "mentor" (grafting slips from the parent plant onto the young hybrid plant) and others provided scholars and experimenters with new weapons, accessible to all, in the fight for the transformation of nature.

During the past 20 years Michurin's teachings have been developed in the works of Academician Trofim Lysenko, who formulated the theory of the stadial development of plants. Thanks to Lysenko's researches, Michurin's teachings formed the foundation for a radical change in the method of Soviet seed-cultivation.

Academician Tsitsin, another outstanding Soviet agronomist, applied Michurin's teachings on inter-species crossing for the cultivation of an absolutely new crop—perennial wheat—by crossing cultivated wheat with wild couch-grass.

Among Michurin's many followers an outstanding place is held by his pupils—Gorshkov, now director of the Michurin Central Genetics Laboratory, and Professor Yakovlev, Stalin Prize Laureate. Recently, the Government conferred the Stalin Prize upon Professor Semyen Chernenko, an eminent continuer of Michurin's work. The son of a poor peasant, Chernenko became a learned selectionist in Soviet times and has propagated new frost-resisting varieties of apples.

Petrov, who cultivated highly fruitful varieties of strawberries, raspberries, and gooseberries in Moscow Region, the experimenters Tikhonov and Lisavenko, who have worked enthusiastically to spread fruit-growing in the Far East and the Altai, the Ukrain-

ian Magomet, Biryukov from the Urals, Ulyanishchev in Voronezh Region, and many others in different parts of the country are all continuing Michurin's work.

Horticulture as a branch of agriculture in the Urals, Siberia and the Far East arose only under Soviet administration and its establishment was largely due to the work of Michurin's followers.

In Chelyabinsk and Kurgan Regions the first collective farm gardens were planted in 1929-1930. Subsequently a movement arose among Michurin's followers for the planting of fruit trees on each collective farm and in every collective farmer's garden. In 1945 there were already 11 thousand fruit gardens in Chelyabinsk Region. The Soviet city of Magnitogorsk is 18 years old; it lies in a district where the thermometer drops to 45 degrees below zero, and the winter lasts for six months a year. Yet this city already has more than two thousand gardens. It has become a tradition here to plant a garden.

In the autumn of 1947 a fruit-growing exhibition was held in the city of Shadrinsk, beyond the Urals. The exhibits clearly confirmed the possibility of growing fruit on a market scale in the severe climate of the Urals. The exposition included more than 30 new local varieties of apples, cultivated by selectionists, followers of Michurin; of these, twenty varieties were cultivated by the Michurin-horticulturist Biryukov. In 1926 there were only nine fruit gardens in Shadrinsk; by 1946 there were nearly one thousand.

In the northern regions of European Russia—in Vologda, Archangel and Molotov Regions—there were no orchards at all before the Great October Revolution. The fruit trees froze here. Now, in these regions, pioneer horticulturists such as Chivilev in the city of Kotlas, Archangel Region, Dobryakov in the city of Belozersk, Vologda Region, and others, are successfully cultivating Michurin varieties and local varieties, acclimatized by experimenters. Apple trees bearing large fruit are cultivated here in creeping form so that in the winter the snow covers the trunks and branches, protecting them against the severe cold. Creeping fruit trees, propogated in accordance with Michurin's instructions by the Siberian gardener Kizyurin, are cultivated widely in the Urals, Siberia and the Far East.

APPLE TREES. Michurin creeping trees, which can grow in the far north.

Michurin followers in the Soviet Union form a large army of eager experimenters. They are guided by the scientists of the former provincial town of Michurinsk which, in Soviet times, has become the center of scientific horticulture. Here are situated the Horticultural Research Institute, the Central Genetics Laboratory, a higher educational institution, a specialized high school, a children's agricultural station, and a fruit-growing state farm.

Before the Revolution Russia had no experimental institutions engaged in selection of fruit and berries. Now, 50 experimental research institutions are engaged on this work, 31 of which are controlled by the Michurin Central Institute.

Before the Revolution, an American scientist came to the city of Kozlov (Michurinsk) to see Michurin and proposed to the latter that he leave his native country and move to the United States. But Michurin refused decisively. He believed in a brighter future for his Homeland and he wanted to preserve his treasures for his own people.

Under Soviet power, the time came when his activities were given wide scope and his advanced ideas were widely propagated.

"The dream of my life is coming true," wrote Michurin to J. V. Stalin. "The valuable new varieties of fruit-bearing plants cultivated by me have moved from the experimental fields not to the gardens of individual rich peasants, but to the huge fields of the state and collective farm orchards, replacing the old, poor varieties with their low crop yields."

The Central Genetics Laboratory has become a large-scale nursery propagating selected plants for collective and state farms and amateur gardeners. During the past ten years, the station has distributed 400 thousand seedlings through the USSR doubling its plan, and also 150 thousand bushes of Michurin berry-bearing and decorative plants, many cuttings and slips of vines, and seeds.

The Michurin gardens are spreading through the Soviet Union, and everywhere the name of Michurin is a symbol of heroic service to the Soviet Homeland, to the people.

AGRONOMY. An agronomist instructing farmers of Moscow Region.

Science in the Village

By Helena Oslikovskaya

Head of the Agronomic Propaganda Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR

THE idea of establishing village laboratories originated with Peter Kurnosenko, a member of the Petrovsky Collective Farm in Kremenchug District in the Ukraine. He was the first to organize a village laboratory on his collective farm. That was in 1934, and his example was quickly followed by collective farms in all Soviet republics. The number of village laboratories increased by leaps and bounds, reaching almost 40 thousand before the war.

The rise of village laboratories and their rapid progress was a natural consequence of the extensive development of collective farm experimentation. With the growth and organizational and economic strengthening of co-operative farming, a mass movement arose among the collective farm peasantry for obtaining high crop yields and a decisive increase in the productivity of agricultural labor.

The initiative of advanced collective farm experimenters who applied their experience in obtaining high crop yields on large areas of collective farms was supported by the Soviet Government, Soviet science, and agricultural specialists.

As a result of the co-operation between agricultural science and co-operative farm practice, proper organizational forms were found for applying the methods of the foremost in the work of collective farmers. Such an organizational form was the collective farm village laboratory.

What is a village laboratory? What meaning was given it by collective farm experimenters and their scientific friends, workers of experimental stations and scientific-research institutes, specialists of the Ministry of Agriculture, collective farm agronomists?

The village laboratory is a scientific agrotechnical nucleus with the aid of which science comes into contact with production.

When they were first formed, most of the village laboratories engaged in determining the quality of seeds, analyzing soils, fertilizers, fodders and milk, and conducted meteorological observations on the collective farm. But the great assistance rendered to collective farm experimentation by the Soviet Government, the organization of numerous courses and seminars for managers of village laboratories, and a number of other measures, changed the direction of the work of these laboratories. They took up the work of drawing soil maps, supervising crop rotation, studying the methods of increasing crop yields and the productivity of animal husbandry as recommended by scientific-research institutions.

Workers of collective farm village laboratories became organizers of the education of collective farmers in agronomic and livestock raising techniques.

To give a concrete idea of the work of village laboratories we propose to describe the activities of such a laboratory in the Zavety Ilicha Collective Farm in Shadrin District in the Urals.

Despite the severe climatic conditions and frequent droughts in the Urals, Trentiev Maltsev, manager of this village laboratory, by his ten years of scientific experimental work contrived to obtain high and stable crop yields of spring wheat on the clayey soil of this collective farm.

The village laboratory conducted big experiments in the hybridization of spring wheats of various kinds. In 1940 seven thousand hybrids were sown and several good varieties of spring wheat cultivated which spread rapidly and widely in the region. As a result of the activities of this village laboratory, this collective farm became a district seed nursery. On its sowing areas are now cultivated selected varieties of wheat, from which seeds are supplied to the neighboring collective farms. In addition, much is being done in the laboratory for improving and reproducing early-ripening and drought resistant varieties of wheat.

The work of this village laboratory, which has become a real center of agrotechnical culture, has played an immense role in the development of collective agricultural production. This collective farm is an efficient and rich artel (co-operative). In 1940, it introduced ten-field fodder and meadow-pasture crop rotations. The collective farm also has large marketable livestock sections, auxiliary enterprises, an electric power station, and so on.

The village laboratory, having won authority and the recognition of scientific circles as an experimental institution of collective farm production, has become a base for experimental and scientific-research institutions of the Soviet Union.

It is interesting to note that top dressing of grain and industrial crops was introduced as a result of experiments of village laboratories and its consequent application in the practice of agriculture by advanced farmers.

Major Soviet Construction of 1948

By A. S. Vishnevsky

Deputy Minister of Construction of Heavy Industry Works

(As told in an interview)

One thousand, nine hundred industrial enterprises were rehabilitated and built in the Soviet Union during 1946 and 1947. Many blast and open hearth furnaces, rolling mills and coke batteries, machine building, tractor, chemical and other works were restored and put into operation.

The scope of construction will be greatly augmented in the current year. This year's plan provides for the putting into operation of more enterprises than in the preceding two years. This year's expenditure on many of the constructions runs into hundreds of millions of rubles.

In letters to J. V. Stalin, workers, engineers, technicians and others employed in the construction of heavy industry works have pledged themselves to restore, a year before the due date, the prewar capacity of the Zaporozhye and the Azovstal steel plants, the Stalingrad, Krivoi Rog, Makeyevka and other metallurgy works. Builders of the Transcaucasian metallurgy works—the first in Transcaucasia — have also pledged themselves to complete its construction ahead of schedule.

Strenuous efforts for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years are being made on building sites as well as in the shops of factories and mills. Laborers, bricklayers, concrete workers and fitters are trying to exceed the quotas of their shifts and to attain high quality in their work. They are anxious that the country should receive more metal and machines from the new factories under construction as quickly as possible. Socialist emulation begun for this purpose is producing tangible results. Punctually on the February date fixed, the coke battery of the Novo-Makeyevka coke and chemical works, and the open hearth furnace at the Karl Liebknecht works in Dniepropetrovsk were put into operation.

New shops for the production of rails, girders and other material for railways should start working in the current year. The rail and girder shop in the Azov steel plant will be the largest in the country. Second in size will be the rail and girder shop of the Novo-Tagil iron and steel works. A new blooming mill started operations there at the end of last year.

"More steel for the country!" Under that slogan the workers have already completed the rehabilitation of the first of the six open hearth furnaces in the Zaporozhye steel plant.

Much has also been done for the rehabilitation of the open hearth furnaces in the Makeyevka, Yenakievka and other iron and steel works in the southern part of the USSR.

Several new blast furnaces will be put into operation in the current year. A new method of restoring a blast furnace has been adopted for the first time in the USSR at the Zaporozhye steel plant. The jacket of the rehabilitated blast furnace will not be riveted but welded. This will make it possible to accelerate the assembly of the metallic body, reduce the cost of the work, and save metal. Welding of that jacket was started recently.

A signal event in the current year will be the putting into operation of the first departments of the Transcaucasian metallurgy works. Several plants for the production of tubes of various diameters will start operations in the Nikopol works.

One of the most important constructions of this year is the rehabilitation of the tube rolling shop in the Karl Liebknecht works in Dniepropetrovsk. Three months ago the place was still in ruins, and now a considerable part of the shop has already been mounted.

A new coke battery will shortly start operations in the Chelyabinsk metallurgy works built during the war.

Rehabilitation and building of the tractor plants in Stalingrad, Kharkov, Lipetsk and Vladimir will be completed during the current year.

In the course of this year, the building organizations of our Ministry are to erect nearly 1,400,000 square meters* of housing area for metallurgists, miners, machine builders, chemical workers and building workers.

ZAPOROZHSTAL. The restored blast furnace No. 3 at the big steel plant.

* One square meter=10.764 square feet.

Soviet News in Pictures

NAVIGATION OPENS. With spring, comes travel by water. In Baku harbor.

GAS FIXTURES. A display in Moscow.

YEVPATORIA. Child patients at the Crimean sanatorium.

NEW MODELS. Large-carriage typewriters made at the Moscow calculating machine and typewriter works.

HERO. Maria Tselera, a Ukrainian farm woman, has been named Hero of Socialist Labor.

MAY DAY. Crowds celebrating in Moscow.

VASES. From the Khokhloma Co-operative.

YOUTH AND SPRING. May Day crowds of young people in the capital.

PREPARATIONS. Schoolgirls make bouquets for their May Day festival.

PARADE. Military section of Moscow's May Day parade.

Political Foundations of the USSR

By T. Stepanyan, M.Sc.

THE political system of the USSR is the political system of a socialist country. Its main features are fully reflected in the Stalin Constitution adopted in 1936.

The Constitution declares the highest organ of state power in the USSR to be the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, which exclusively exercises the federal legislative power, and which is elected by the people of the USSR by universal, free, and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Article I of the Stalin Constitution reads: "The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is a socialist state of workers and peasants." It thus follows that this article characterizes the class composition of Soviet society, consisting of two friendly toiling classes—the workers and the peasants. In the Soviet Union there are no antagonistic classes. With the establishment of socialism the former class exclusiveness disappears; the difference between the workers and the peasants, and between the latter two and the intelligentsia, becomes less and less marked.

The socialist society created in the USSR is a friendly union of the toilers of town and village—the workers, peasants and intelligentsia, freed from all forms of exploitation and social oppression. The moral and political unity of Soviet society was created and strengthened on this basis.

Let us examine in greater detail the political foundation of the Soviet state system.

The political foundation of the USSR is the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, which grew and became strong as a result of the overthrow of the power of the landlords and capitalists and the conquest of the dictatorship of the proletariat.

All power in the USSR belongs to the working people of town and country as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

The Soviets [The word "Soviet" may be translated "Council"] came into being in the days of the first Russian Revolution (1905), as organs of the uprising of the workers, as rudiments of a new, revolutionary power. After the second revolution (February 1917), when tsarism was overthrown, the Soviets swiftly sprang up everywhere throughout the country. When, as a result of the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917, the power of the capitalists and landlords was smashed, the Soviets became organs of state power in the country.

The first two Soviet Constitutions (1918 and 1924) took into account the then existing difference between the workers and the peasants, originating from the difference between socialist industry and the small, individual peasant households. This is why the first two Constitutions provided for an unequal representation of workers and peasants in the Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies. The aim was to consolidate the leading role of the working class. Exploiting classes were deprived of political rights.

The victory of socialism, the elimination of the exploiting classes and the change in the class structure of Soviet society found its reflection in the renaming of the Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies as the Soviets of Working People's Deputies. This was in conformity with the new stage of the development of the Soviet State.

From the day of the establishment of Soviet power the Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies represented the majority of the people. The Soviets of Working People's Deputies express the interests of the whole people since in socialist society all the working people —the workers, peasants and intelligentsia of the USSR, morally and politically united—are striving to achieve a common aim: to build up communism.

Reflecting the interests of the whole country, of all the working people, the Soviets have drawn the masses into the administration of the State.

The elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are vivid demonstrations of the strength of Soviet democracy.

In the 1946 elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR 101,500,000 people, or 99.7 per cent of the electors, went to the polls. Of these, 100,600,000, or 99.17 per cent, voted for the candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people. No other country can boast of this practically one hundred per cent participation of the masses in political life.

Soviet democracy is a socialist democracy. The vital feature of socialist democracy is that it does not confine itself to the mere proclamation of rights and freedoms, but ensures the conditions for exercising those rights and freedoms.

The great rights to work, to rest and leisure, to education, to maintenance in old age, proclaimed by the Constitution, are ensured by the planned system of the organization of production and the abolition of unemployment, by the establishment of an eight-hour workday for factory and office workers, by the institution of annual vacations with full pay for factory and office workers, by social insurance at state expense, by universal and free education up to and including the seventh grade and by making secondary and higher education accessible to all, by establishment of free medical aid, etc.

In order to ensure the development of the socialist system, the Soviet Constitution guarantees freedom of speech, of the press, freedom of assembly and the holding of meetings, and the right to unite in public organizations. The Stalin Constitution guarantees the inviolability of the person, the inviolability of the homes of citizens and privacy of correspondence. The Constitution of the USSR does not merely proclaim those rights but provides the conditions for their utilization by placing at the disposal of the working people clubs, printing presses and stocks of paper, and by protecting their rights by law, equal and obligatory for all.

Children's Vacation Camps

THE thoughts of Soviet children these days run on two topics—approaching final school examinations, and summer camp vacations. Millions of children annually spend their holidays in pleasant summer camps administered by the Soviet trade unions.

The camp vacations are paid for partly by the children's parents and partly by the trade unions and the factories or other enterprises where the parents work. The parents' share of the expense is usually from 10 to 20 per cent of the cost. Children of parents who were killed in the war and of war invalids pay nothing.

The Central Council of Soviet Trade Unions is arranging for 2,650,000 children to spend part of the summer in holiday camps. For Moscow's children alone eight hundred such camps, to accommodate nearly a quarter of a million children this season, are being opened.

The word "camp" may perhaps give a wrong impression, for the children do not camp out. They live in country houses, some of which were the manor-houses on old estates which in the past belonged to capitalists and landlords, while others were built more recently. These are being put in apple-pie order and provided with extra equipment for all kinds of games and sports.

The teachers, sports instructors and guides who will staff the camps are going through special training courses.

Artek in the Crimea, world-famous children's townlet, functions all the year 'round. At present, it houses 540 young guests, mostly war orphans. Several weeks ago they were delighted to have a visit from the wartime air ace Alexander Pokryshkin, who is thrice a Hero of the Soviet Union, and who stayed with them for some days, took them out on exciting hikes, and held them entranced with tales of breathless adventure.

Artek is expanding. A group of new cottages has been built in the part of the camp on Mount Suuk-Su, still more are going up near the shore, and three big "annexes" are planned, one of which the children have decided to name after Pokryshkin. When these jobs are done, Artek will be able to take 1,500 children at a time.

VACATION TIME. Girls at the famous Artek camp in the Crimea.

The USSR Ministry of Public Health has decided to open nine more "Arteks" near Moscow, Leningrad, Vladivostok and Odessa, and in several of the national republics.

And what of the children who will not spend their holidays in camps? For them, too, plans for enjoyment are being made.

Some of the youngsters will remain in the city and wait to go with their parents to the country or seaside for the annual holiday. For them there will be plenty of leisure-time pleasures.

Moscow alone has 29 parks, 16 of which are reserved for children. The children's corner in the ancient Izmailovo Park is being extended—the new pavilion for nursery-school age visitors is particularly attractive.

A reading room—a branch of the district children's library—will be opened in every children's park. In these parks, children's theaters will give plays and entertainments, films will be shown, scientists and writers will give talks around camp fires.

New playgrounds are being laid out and old ones enlarged at schools and apartment buildings. Hiking tours into the wilds are becoming ever more popular with our older children. The touring and sports clubs, as well as the Houses of Pioneers, make arrangements for these, and draw up itineraries for journeys and rambles.

Automobile sports are the latest favorite hobby among young Muscovites, who have started a club—the Moscow Club of Young Automobile Fans. It has taught several thousand teen-agers the art of driving and plans a holiday run this summer between Moscow and Smolensk for 70 school children. They will take turns in driving eight cars and riding 15 motorcycles, stopping for rest at the most interesting places on the route.

With them they will take tents, fishing tackle and stocks of food. A field repair shop will be fitted up on a motor truck accompanying the motorcade.

CHAMPION. Mikhail Botvinnik, world chess champion.

Mikhail Botvinnik

By Grandmaster Salo Flohr

In the following article, Grandmaster Flohr gives his impressions of the new world chess champion, Mikhail Botvinnik of Leningrad, who won his title as the result of the recent matches for the championship, which were played at The Hague and in Moscow.

IN the winter of 1925, the famous Cuban, Jose Raoul Capablanca, was visiting Leningrad. In a simultaneous exhibition, Capablanca, then the world chess champion, lost a game to a 14-year-old schoolboy. The schoolboy was Mikhail Botvinnik.

It was Botvinnik's first major success. Leningrad has many strong chess players and Botvinnik had plenty of rivals. But soon he became one of the strongest players in the city and at the age of 16 received the title of Master. At the age of 20, he won the USSR championship. Today, when the high level of the Soviet chess Masters is known to every chess player in the world, it is clear enough how great must be Botvinnik's native talent if he could attain to the championship of the USSR at so early an age.

In 1930-1933, I traveled a great deal in Europe. I became acquainted with some of the games of the Soviet champion and they impressed me greatly. I was keen on playing with Botvinnik and late in 1933, I went to Moscow for a match with him.

The first half of the match ended in my favor. I thought that I would win the match without much difficulty as I was two points ahead at the time we left for Leningrad, where the second half of the match was to be played. There, however, I lost to Botvinnik two games in succession. The match ended in a draw and that was regarded as a great success for Botvinnik. But times change. Today, I consider that score as an honor for myself. Botvinnik and I became friends.

In 1935, I again came to Moscow, this time for the international tournament. Among the participants were Lasker, Capablanca, Spielman, Stahlberg. In that tournament, Botvinnik tied for first place and received the title of Grandmaster.

But even after that achievement, some chess experts in the west still refused to believe in his star. Then came the tournament at Nottingham in England. In this tournament, he met all the champions—Lasker, Capablanca, Alekhine, Euwe. The strongest players took part in it. Here Botvinnik met Alekhine for the first time. The encounter was brief but highly exciting and interesting from the point of view of chess theory. The encounter of these two chess artists ended in a draw. In the same tournament, Botvinnik defeated Bogolyubov in 25 moves.

Thus Botvinnik showed that he was one of the most important contenders for the world title. I remember Lasker said at the time: "Botvinnik has iron character, integral nature and strong will. This young man is aspiring to the world championship. And you will see that he will reach the goal."

I have mentioned several of Botvin-

TOURNAMENT RESULTS

	1	2	3	4	5	Total Score	Place
1. M. M. Botvinnik (USSR)	*	½½1½½	11110	1½011	1½1½½	14	I—World Champion
2. V. V. Smyslov (USSR)	½½0½½	*	00½1½	½½1½½	11011	11	II
3. P. P. Keres (USSR)	00001	11½0½	*	0½10½	1½111	10½	III-IV
4. S. Reshevsky (USA)	0½100	½½0½½	1½01½	*	1½½11	10½	III-IV
5. M. Euwe (Netherlands)	0½0½½	00100	0½000	0½½00	*	4	V

nik's international successes. But it must not be forgotten that in those and subsequent years, Botvinnik almost regularly won the USSR championship, and those were achievements no less significant than his triumphs abroad.

Botvinnik is a chessplayer of great talent. But that is not the only qualification that enabled him to become the world champion. He is also a man of single purpose, strong will, great endurance and determination. His physical training is not the least important factor in his success. Botvinnik knows how to save his strength. During the tournament, he followed a strict regimen. He exercises every day and goes skiing a great deal in winter.

Fond as he is of chess, Botvinnik has never made it his profession. He is an electrical engineer and a year ago was decorated for scientific work.

Botvinnik's wife, Gayane, is a ballet dancer at the Bolshoi Theater in Moscow. I think she is the only wife of a grandmaster who plays chess herself and knows the intricacies of the game well.

In conclusion, I want to recall how confidently Botvinnik advanced to victory in the match tournament for the world championship.

After the third round, he was already ahead of the other contestants and never fell behind. After the 19th round, he was three and one-half points ahead of his nearest rival. After the 22nd round, he became the world champion.

Botvinnik's victory is not only a personal triumph, it is a victory for the entire Soviet school of chess.

Botvinnik is now quite busy, as he hardly has time enough to read all the messages of congratulation which are pouring in from all over the Soviet Union. He is being pursued by reporters, photographers and autograph hunters. The entire chess world is applauding Botvinnik. A splendid representative of the Soviet school in chess has won the chess crown. I think that the chessplayers of the world ought to be gratified by the results of the match tournament. The championship has gone to the chessplayer who is really the strongest in the world—Soviet Grandmaster Mikhail Botvinnik.

CHAMPION IN ACTION. Botvinnik and Euwe in a close game.

TENSE MOMENT. Reshevsky and Smyslov play as crowds watch.

THEY PLACED. Smyslov (right) placed second; Keres tied with Reshevsky for third and fourth place.

Stalin Prizes in Music and Poetry

By Vladimir Spassky and Eugene Dolmatovsky

THE annual awards of Stalin Prizes, the highest award of the Soviet Union for creative work in science and the arts, this year evoked particular interest in the fields of music and poetry, where many young composers and poets, as well as some whose work is already well known, were honored.

The recent prizes were given for work done in 1947.

Among the composers whose work was recognized by prizes, those who have written music showing national or folk influence predominate. This provides a striking indication of the flourishing condition of national musical culture, which in the USSR has unlimited scope for development, and of the fruitful activity of its exponents.

The prizewinning musical works represent various genres, opera, cantata, symphonic and instrumental compositions, ballet and song music. All of the works have been widely played before large audiences and have become popular through their melodic quality, clarity and comprehensibility of musical language.

Expressing progressive humanistic ideas, and built as they are on the material of folk art, they are profoundly democratic in spirit. Their popularity indicates that their appeal is to the broad masses of the people and not to isolated individualists of aesthetic pretensions.

Reinhold Gliere, widely known in the Soviet Union as a composer, and also for his pedagogical and public work, is 73. He has composed more than five hundred works, which include operas, ballets, symphonies, about 180 pieces for the pianoforte and 130 ballades, compositions for string and vocal ensembles, wind instruments and choirs. Ukrainian, Azerbaijanian, Uzbek, Buriat-Mongolian culture and that of other nationalities owes much to this composer's work.

Gliere, who studied under the remarkable Russian composer Taneyev, continues and upholds the best traditions of the Russian classics. This is the trend of his Fourth Quartet, the work awarded the Stalin Prize. Optimistic and vital tones, tunefulness and clarity in the music and a realistic purposefulness distinguish this work, which is on the concert programs of the leading quartets of the country. The composer says he has striven to convey in his quartet the breadth of Russian tunefulness, its intimacy, sincerity, and simplicity.

REINHOLD GLIERE. His Fourth Quartet has been awarded a Stalin Prize.

A cantata for many voices, a monumental composition, has been written by the Lithuanian composer Josef Tallat-Kelpsa. In this work, which is dedicated to Joseph Stalin, the leader of the Soviet people, the composer has aimed at reflecting the historic path of the Lithuanian people. The piece is warmed by great emotional feeling, and pervaded by the intonations of folk-melos.

The work of Eugene Brusilovsky is closely associated with the development of Kazakh musical life. This composer has written several national operas, a number of symphonic productions and songs. His thorough study of the peculiarities of the folk music of Kazakhstan enabled him to write his new work, *Soviet Kazakhstan* for symphony orchestra, choir, and soloists. The theme chosen by the composer is the heroism of the Soviet people, the patriotic feeling of the builders of the new society. This new contribution to the treasury of national art received the appreciation it deserved when the Soviet Government awarded the composer a Stalin Prize.

Karayev Kara is an Azerbaijanian composer, who only recently was graduated from the Moscow Conservatory. His symphonic poem, *Leila and Mejnun,* which was awarded the prize, was written for the Nizami Jubilee; the composer was inspired by the lyrical imagery of the classic oriental legend and took the motif of his work from one of the great poems of the ancient Azerbaijanian poet, Nizami. The melodic qualities, the color and beauty of the musical imagery, have made this symphonic poem widely known.

The young composer is hard at work;

at present he is composing ballet music on the theme of Nizami's poems, and a cycle of songs on the oilfield workers of Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan.

Altyn Chach, an opera by a young composer, Nazib Zhiganov, is a great success in the Tatar Republic. The music which is on the heroic past of the Tatar people, their struggle against oppressors, is colorful and expressive, and folk melodies have been widely used throughout.

Among other composers whose work received the high award are Anatole Novikov, who wrote *The Hymn of the Democratic Youth of the World,* which was first heard at the Prague Youth Festival; Boris Mokroussov, composer of some very popular lyrical songs; Professor Grigori Verevka, Honored Art Worker of the Ukraine; and Professor Alexander Gedike, of the Moscow Conservatory, People's Artist of the Russian SFSR, who has devoted more than fifty years of his life to music.

Continuing the best traditions of the Russian musical classics, these composers have created works expressing high ideas, and capable of satisfying the artistic tastes of the wider masses, who have shown full appreciation of them.

THE list of awards includes six poets: Nikolai Gribachev, Alexei Nedogonov, Vladimir Sosiura, Jan Sudrabkaln, Maxim Tank and Mirzo Tursun-Zade.

It would require volumes to give a detailed description of the life and work of each of these poets, although some of them only recently made their debut in the literary field. There is, however, one feature characteristic of all the representatives of Soviet literature, of the veterans and budding writers alike: their close connection with the life, with the labor and ideals of their free people.

After the announcement of the awards, the Soviet press published photographs of the prize winners. It is not by sheer chance that Nikolai Gribachev is photographed in military uniform, with the insignia of a major and with decorations on his breast. Major Nikolai Gribachev wrote his poem, *The "Bolshevik" Collective Farm,* while he was serving in the ranks of the Soviet Army, in the occupation troops stationed far away from his native land. But every image, the whole mood of the poem is colored by the new life of the collective farm village.

The unbreakable ties between the Army and the people, the unity of the Soviet people no matter where they may be—that is the profound message conveyed by the poem about the "Bolshevik" Collective Farm.

Gribachev paints vivid pictures of collective labor on the farm, of the harvests, and shows the people of the Soviet village. He describes the workaday life of the collective farm and the victorious struggle of the people for high crops. The characters of the poem are Soviet women, young and old, collective farmers and demobilized soldiers whose combined efforts bring them success in achieving their common aim.

The man who returns to peaceful construction, the builder, is the principal hero not only in Gribachev's poem, but in most of the poems published in 1947. The transition from heroic fighting to enthusiastic labor, the intricate inner world of feelings, faith in the invigorating power of Soviet patriotism, determined the principal traits of the heroes of last year's finest literary works.

These features are also characteristic of the works of another budding poet and veteran of the Great Patriotic War, the late Alexei Nedogonov who won a Stalin prize for the poem *The Flag Over the Village Soviet.*

The hero of *The Flag Over the Village Soviet,* Yegor Shirokov, a demobilized soldier, returns to his collective farm and proceeds to work with the energy of a man who regards the affairs of the collective farm as of vital concern to himself. Optimism, faith in the happy future of the Soviet country color every line of the poem. A talented representative of the young generation of Soviet poets, Nedogonov has well merited the high award.

Unlike Gribachev and Nedogonov, Vladimir Sosiura is a middle-aged man. One of the most renowned Ukrainian poets, he celebrated his fiftieth birthday this year. *Let the Orchards Rustle* is the title of the volume of verse which gained Sosiura a Stalin Prize. These poems sing of the flourishing Ukraine. They express great love for his native region and for the entire Soviet Union, the Motherland of all the Soviet peoples.

The principal feature of Sosiura's style in writing, which is perhaps characteristic of all the poets awarded Stalin Prizes this year, is the combination of sharp political poetry with fine, emotional lyricism.

Jan Sudrabkaln has been writing for more than thirty years. His volume of verse *In a United Family,* awarded a Stalin Prize, has many features in common with Sosiura's book. This veteran poet of Latvia sings of his regenerated country, of youthful Soviet Latvia.

Of interest is the life story of another Stalin Prize Winner, the Byelorussian poet Maxim Tank.

In 1939, when the Soviet Army was advancing along the roads of western Byelorussia liberating the Byelorussian people from the yoke of the Polish landlords, the Soviet soldiers met in a small town a blond young man with a frank, handsome face.

This was Maxim Tank, the revolutionary poet and fighter of the underground movement. His poems of those days were filled with dreams of freedom and appeals for struggle.

The autumn of 1939 marked the beginning of the new, Soviet period in the poetry of Maxim Tank. During the Great Patriotic War the poet fought in the ranks of the Byelorussian guerrillas. The poems of Maxim Tank awarded a Stalin Prize sing of the present life in Soviet Byelorussia, of the Byelorussian people. His profoundly optimistic, cheerful conception of reality, which is characteristic of youth, lends his poems a strong appeal.

Among the Stalin Prize Winners is the youthful Tajik poet, Mirzo Tursun-Zade.

In 1946 the poet visited India; he saw that country through the eyes of a son of the free Soviet East. A Stalin Prize was adjudged to Tursun-Zade's poems about present-day India.

Many poets of the world have written about India, but Tursun-Zade's poetry conveys with particular force his love for the Indian people and concern for their fate. There is a proud ring in the poet's voice when he speaks of his own free people, of his native land.

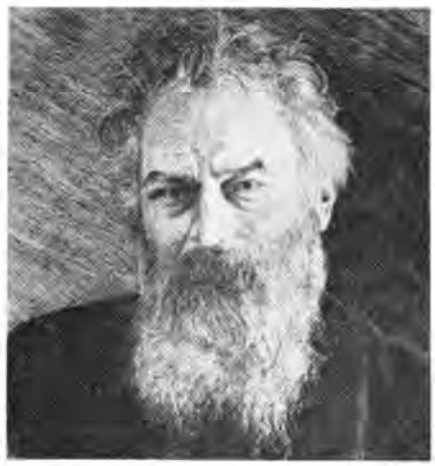
"RYE." One of Shishkin's most famous paintings, dated 1878. In the Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow.

"MORNING IN THE PINE WOODS." Painted by Shishkin in 1889, it is in the Tretyakov gallery.

Ivan Shishkin, Russian Painter

IVAN SHISHKIN, a Russian landscape painter who died 50 years ago, is one of the artists best loved by the people of the USSR. Reproductions and copies of his pictures *Morning in the Pine Woods, Rye,* and others, may be seen in many homes and clubs. His work holds a place of honor in the history of Russian realistic art; it was, as his contemporary, Kramskoy, expressed it, a landmark in the progress of Russian landscape painting.

Ivan Shishkin was born in 1831 in Yelabug, in what is now the Tatar Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic. He was educated at Kazan High School, and after leaving it, went to Moscow and entered the School of Painting, Modelling and Architecture. In 1856 he was accepted as a student at the Academy of Arts, St. Petersburg. He was a brilliant student and on finishing the Academy course with distinction, was sent abroad in 1861. When he returned, he joined the group of progressive artists who had left the Academy in 1863 as a demonstration



IVAN SHISHKIN

of protest against the pseudo-classicism practiced and insisted upon there, a style totally aloof from real life.

In co-operation with Kramskoy and others, he was one of the organizers of the Association of Travelling Exhibitions. This became a progressive center of national art and had a widespread influence on the development of this art. The principles of "realism expressing ideas" became the guiding principles in Shishkin's work. Instead of the conventionality of the cold traditional academic landscape, his work has the directness, the appealing truth and simplicity of northern Russian nature. He demonstrated convincingly that real works of art need not be impressive, dramatic scenes composed according to academic rules, and can be quiet familiar landscapes of poetic charm.

Born and bred in the woods that clothe the banks of the Volga and the Kama, Shishkin kept this love of wooded landscapes to the end of his life. He was a keen and attentive observer, untiring in his study of nature, and he strove to convey with the utmost truth the variety and wealth of form and color in trees and plants, their peculiarities, the enchantment of glade and grove. He was, Kramskoy said, the best draftsman and expert on forests, especially coniferous ones. In his pictures *Felling Timber, Pathless Woods, In the Countess Mordvinova's Woods, Storm-felled Trees,* and *A Grove of Ship Timber,* one is struck by the exceptional thoroughness and truth in the drawing, the virtuosity in conveying the intricate interlacing of trunks, boughs, twigs, foliage, shrubs; above all, the sense of mood. These paintings make one feel the mighty power of nature that created all this wealth. The mood of place and time is present, too, in his *Rye, Noonday in the Country Around Moscow* and other compositions, where the feeling of immense space is suggested.

His talent and profound knowledge is also evident in his numerous drawings and etchings. He was a master of the art of etching, of various methods of engraving. These smaller works of his had depth and poetry, expressed with superb and expressive drawing; his line was sure, bold and irreproachably precise. His etchings were frequently published during his lifetime.

Ivan Shishkin died on March 20, 1898. The works that he left are to be seen in the leading galleries and museums in the USSR.

"THE MORDVINOVA OAKS." Shishkin painted this in 1891.

The Soviet Film Industry

By George Morozov

FILM production in the Soviet Union has not been seriously handicapped by the long years of war, and now this industry is well on the way with its further postwar program.

Before the October Revolution of 1917, there were in Russia several privately-owned film studios, which, though primitively equipped, competed successfully with the studios of other nations. But the motion picture as an art only developed successfully after the Revolution.

The first films were made in unheated studios, by people whose enthusiasm made up for the shortage of equipment.

These early productions were agitational films for the men at the battlefront, or were newsreels and documentaries. They are treasured now as invaluable documents showing the exploits of a people fighting for freedom and happiness.

Later, the Soviet motion picture industry produced a number of remarkable films like *The Battleship Potemkim,* and *Chapayev* which are well-known in the United States and elsewhere.

The Soviet Government always was seriously interested in the Russian motion picture industry.

The Five-Year Plans created a substantial technical base for the film industry, and the Soviet Union now produces its own films of excellent quality, and in quantity.

Fine studios have been built in Moscow, Kiev, Minsk, Tbilisi, Leningrad, Odessa, Yalta and Riga, while the Soviet newsreel service has branches in all the main cities for recording important events.

In Soviet times, the non-Russian republics too have developed film industries. Picture-goers of the Ukraine, Georgia, Byelorussia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Turkmenia, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan see films with dialogue in their own languages, made by their own people.

Producers, operators, scenario writers and studio actors are trained at the State Institute of Cinematography in Moscow. This institute has specially equipped laboratories, demonstration halls, studios, and libraries of practically all the films which have appeared on the screen anywhere.

The doors of this Institute of Cinematography are wide open to all talented youth. Training is free of charge, and students receive a regular living allowance from the State. After graduation, they go to production studios where, after a trial period, they are given work to do on their own responsibility.

Similarly, motion picture technicians are trained at an institute in Leningrad, while a third institute, also in Moscow, devotes itself to research into the problems of colored and stereoscopic films, and the improvement of cameras, projectors and film.

The average age of film stars, technicians and executives in the Soviet Union is well below the average age in other countries. This is because young scenario writers, actors and producers are quickly given opportunities to display and develop their talents. Their rise to fame is limited only by their ability to create first-class works of art.

The field covered by Soviet cinematographers is wide. Productions include epic dramatic stories, straight comedy, musical comedy, modern drama, fables, adventure films, educational and training films (produced with a great sense of art), puppet films, and animated cartoon films which combine cartoons with living actors.

In Moscow, a special studio is producing only children's films for display in children's theaters. These theaters are supervised by educational experts and have considerable educational value. Children waiting in the foyers for programs to begin have all kinds of toys to play with, and attendants to entertain them with talks and games. Young film actors and actresses do not become "wonder-children." They must continue their studies and are not permitted to take part in any film production unless they have excellent school marks.

Keen interest is being centered on stereoscopic colored films. Two of the world's first stereoscopic feature films, *Robinson Crusoe,* and *Car No. 22-12* are now being shown in the Moscow Stereoscopic Theater. Spectators see the films without special eyeglasses. The film *Robinson Crusoe,* based on the story by Daniel Defoe, was produced by A. Andrievsky in studios on the shores of the Black Sea.

CINEMA. A modern theater in the automobile-manufacturing town of Gorky.

Generally speaking, Soviet historical films engage large numbers of non-professionals for the mass scenes. American audiences have already seen some of these films. Sometimes the producers have had regular Soviet Army troops placed at their disposal, but often local residents and collective farmers form the crowds for mass scenes.

Newsreel cameramen of the Soviet Union today have proudly maintained the standards set by their predecessors during the First World War and the Revolution. Documentaries compiled from newsreel items shot while battles raged around the cameras have been judged some of the most outstanding film productions of recent times. Films such as *Moscow Strikes Back, Leningrad at War, Stalingrad, From the Barents to the Black Sea, Budapest, Vienna, Liberation of Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, The Storming of Berlin* and others formed a well-earned tribute to the courage and ability of Soviet newsreel cameramen. During the war they obtained at the front more than 11 million feet of film of great historic value.

During the years of peace, the newsreel organizations are just as enterprising as in wartime. They penetrate every sphere of life, record sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR (the Soviet parliament) and film all of the giant new industrial enterprises such as the Dnieper hydroelectric power station, the Moscow-Volga Canal and others. They accompany geological expeditions into the field, join crews during flights into the substratosphere, and so on.

Great care has been taken to preserve these film records. A special archives department, called "Film Annals" was organized by the Central Soviet Newsreel Studios in 1932.

During the war years, the cinema industry continued to turn out feature films, as well as documentaries, educational and training material.

Remarkable progress has been made in the reconstruction and re-establishment of studios destroyed or damaged during the German invasion. The new Soviet five-year plan for films aims at doubling the number of cinema theaters in the Soviet Union. (The cinema theater network by the beginning of 1941 was comprised of 28 thousand cinema installations, many of them in the villages.) Five hundred large modern theaters are being built in the big cities. Of these Moscow alone will have 20.

"BALTIC DEPUTY." Nikolai Cherkassov in one of his most famous roles.

DOCUMENTARY. The Battle of Stalingrad was filmed throughout the fighting.

Thirty thousand cinemas, including traveling units, which by far exceeds the prewar network, will be operating in the Soviet Union during the latter part of the current year. Emphasis will be placed on serving rural districts. Projection installations will be set up in schools and higher educational institutions for the showing of feature and educational films.

The late Sergei Eisenstein, the Soviet film director probably best-known in the United States, remarked in his booklet *The Soviet Screen* that the cinema is, of all arts, the most popular in the Soviet Union, not only because it attracts millions of persons to the theaters and entertains them, but because of the great public interest displayed in the actual production of films.

The superiority of Soviet cinematography was apparent at the first postwar international film festival in Cannes. The Soviet films took first place for the number of prizes received.

LIBRARY. The Udegei people, once illiterate nomads, have books and public libraries.

A Leap Across Centuries

By Mikhail Shaprov

THE Siberian film studio intended to call the film which it made of the Udegei people *A Tribe Lost in the Centuries*. As the making of the film progressed, however, it became apparent to everyone that the Udegei had in Soviet times found the true wide path leading from the darkness of oppression and ignorance in which they once dwelt. The film was retitled simply, *The Udegei*.

The Ussuri taiga is a wild but beautiful country. Along the banks of the swift rivers that flow through the gorges of the Sikhotei-Alyn Range, the "forest folk," as the Russian explorer Vladimir Arseniev called the Udegei, lived in small scattered settlements.

The film opens with pictures of the flora and fauna of this territory; besides the trees we know, the oak, willow and bird-cherry, we see ancient cedars, the Ayan fir, Manchurian walnut and others. The elk emerges from the virgin woods to drink at quiet springs, the bear, tiger, Manchurian deer, and leopard are shown in their haunts. A human dwelling is not so far away from them, it appears.

The spectator takes a better look at it and wonders if, after all, it is a human dwelling. The camera has taken us back to the past. This is a pre-Soviet settlement of the Udegei tribe; the tents are made of tree-bark, the fire is never allowed to die down in them. In winter it is for warmth; in summer, to keep away mosquitoes. Two or three families lived in one yurt or tent, sleeping on beds of bark, covered with the skins of animals. The little shack, still more wretched-looking than the tent and not very far away, was for Udegei women, who went there to bear their children. They had to stay for a few days, alone, and were permitted no contact with the outer world except when old women would bring them food, water and firewood.

Harsh and relentless as the country was, the whole life of the forest dweller was no less harsh. The river was his only means of communication; his vessel was a species of canoe, hollowed out of a tree-trunk. The Udegei had to travel hundreds of miles in his canoe to sell for a trifle the pelts obtained after days of hunting and trapping in the woods. The Udegei was a cunning hunter and trapper; sometimes he had to track down his prey for days on end. But difficulties did not daunt him. The family and in some cases the whole settlement depended on him. At last, when he had tracked down and killed his prey, he did not take it home. The customs of the forest-dwellers relegated this duty to women. By the alphabet of the taiga, notches made in trees, trampled grass, broken twigs, she followed the trail and dragged the carcass to the settlement. For awhile the family would have a good supply of meat. But the forest people were not always in luck. Most of the year they lived on fish, the staple of the Udegei's diet and of his dogs' food. But this was not obtained without risk. The fisherman was sometimes attacked by wild beasts. At every step unexpected encounters and dangers lurked.

When a man died, his body was placed in a coffin fastened to a tree close to his home. The idea was that the dead man was only resting, that he hovered near his native place, and in time his soul would find another dwelling in the body of a new-born member of the family.

The shaman was the most influential person in the taiga. His howl was heard all over the settlement and was accompanied by sounds produced by an instrument which resembled a drum. He conducted his ritual in the presence

POSTMAN. The mail comes regularly, and many subscribe to newspapers.

of a ring of people. He was given the head of a slain animal, which was regarded as the best part.

The laws of the remote taiga were unalterable; centuries passed without the slightest change in the life of the Udegei. It was a life of ignorance, trouble, dire need and fear. The Udegei had no civil rights. Once there were many settlements in the taiga; they appeared and disappeared, and no one knew whether their inhabitants had gone to some other place or had been wiped out by smallpox.

That was how things were two centuries, or even thirty years ago. Life, customs and morals remained unchanged.

Then came the leap across the centuries. In Soviet years the Udegei covered the distance that had taken most of mankind ages. The cameraman who visited the territory took pictures of the settlements of 1947.

. . . The howl of the shaman, the sounds of his instrument are heard. He whirls in a mad dance before the people. In a few minutes the dance is over, the shaman is silent. The spectators' laughter and applause follow. This is a Udegei holiday; the amateur dramatic circle is giving a performance and one of the members has demonstrated the "shaman dance." But the shaman himself has long since disappeared from these parts.

WRITER. Jansi Kimonko, the first Udegei writer.

In three decades the Udegei have spanned the distance between primitive people and those of the most advanced Soviet culture, between the patriarchal system and socialism.

The old times and customs have gone forever, but we may read of them in a book by Jansi Kimonko, the first Udegei writer.

Where once the smoking tents stood, a modern village stands today. Jansi Kimonko's mother lives in one of these clean, fresh-looking houses. She had never dreamed of a better dwelling than the old bark-covered tent. Her four sons all fought in the Patriotic War.

The new life of the "forest folk" has come to stay. The former nomads are united in a collective farm. People who knew almost nothing about agriculture have learned to cultivate the soil. In their gardens they grow tomatoes, maize, cucumbers, Caucasian beans, Ukrainian sunflowers.

It is not so long since the Udegei had no conception of what a cow looked like. When a cow was brought to the taiga, the first milkmaid seemed to the old people the bravest woman they had ever seen—she went fearlessly up to this great horned beast.

The children are going to school. We drop in there and listen to a little girl, standing by the big map, talking with perfect confidence of the wealth of the Urals. The knowledge that they acquire at school reveals to the children of this rising generation of the builders of a new life the treasures of their country, the secrets of the world, the science of life and its history.

After lessons, there are games, dances, amateur art circles and hunting. They are fine marksmen and practice shooting from the time they are children.

The Udegei settlement is in close touch with the life of the whole country; letters, telegrams and newspapers arrive regularly. Distance is no longer a problem to the local people, for now they travel by motor boat.

One summer day in 1947 the people of a remote collective farm village gathered for a general meeting. There was general excitement and it was a joyous occasion. They had come to write a letter to Comrade Stalin on behalf of all the "forest folk," the people who in the old life, before the Revolution brought changes, were regarded as primitive savages. "We are grateful to you, our father and friend, for leading us out of darkness forever," they wrote to the Kremlin, to the leader of the peoples, and sent him their warmest wishes.

"We wish that you may live as many years as the trees grow in our taiga. And we wish you as much strength and health as the sun sends warmth."

. . . Long did the Udegei tribe wander in ignorance in the wild forests of the Ussuri, but now they have found the plain and true path. So the producer of the film, Litvinov, decided to call his picture not *A Tribe Lost in the Centuries,* but simply *The Udegei.*

LIFE IS PLEASANT. Young Udegei people on a summer evening.

The Russian Discoverer of Alaska

By I. Osipov

Member of the USSR Geographical Society

THE existence of a mainland beyond Cape Dezhnev (or East Cape) was known to the Russians long before Captain Cook set out on his voyages. Information about this northwestern extremity of America was first received in St. Petersburg in 1726.

Peter I attributed great importance to these tidings of the strait dividing the continent of Asia from America and drew up, in his handwriting, directions for the Bering expedition, which was to cross Siberia, build ships in Kamchatka, and set out on a voyage to determine the exact place where "Asia merged with America."

Thus was the Great Northern Expedition initiated, which marked an epoch in the history of discoveries in the Pacific. As a result of the voyage undertaken by the Russian navigators, the Bering Strait, the northwestern shores of America, the Aleutians, Bering Island, Kamchatka, the Kurile Islands and part of Japan were discovered.

The first European to find Alaska was Alexei Chirikov, a member of this expedition. Educated in the Russian Naval Academy, Captain Chirikov, we learn from the memoirs of contemporaries, was distinguished for his courage, determination and the wide outlook of a man of culture.

Two sailing vessels, the St. Peter, commanded by Bering, who was head of the expedition, and the St. Paul, commanded by Captain Chirikov, sailed from Petropavlovsk-on-Kamchatka on June 4, 1741.

For two weeks they followed their course without losing sight of one another. But on June 19 a storm arose, they were driven far apart, and from that day on they never met.

The St. Paul reached the coast of America in 55° 31′ north latitude, on July 15.

At first the weather was favorable and Chirikov's ship kept close to the shore. Then the west wind strengthened, the vessel was driven further and further toward the rocks, and for safety the captain was obliged to put out to sea.

Sadly, Chirikov turned westward, leaving the land he had discovered—Alaska.

Many privations had to be endured. Provisions were giving out; cases of scurvy broke out on board. Then the cold came. There was no wood for fires for the crew to warm themselves and heat their food. The sails were tattered, the rigging was rotten. But not a man of the crew murmured, the expedition numbered none who were faint-hearted.

Slowly, like a pilgrim exhausted by long wanderings, the St. Paul sailed westward. At last, land was sighted. It was Kamchatka. The voyage was over. The commander of the vessel was lying in his bunk in a half-conscious condition. On reaching Kamchatka, Chirikov learned that none of Bering's companions had returned from the voyage to the coast of America. As soon as his health permitted, he went in search of his comrades, but could learn nothing of the fate of the St. Peter's crew.

Almost a year and a half had passed when, in the autumn of 1742, the survivors of the expedition returned on the St. Peter to Kamchatka. They brought the news of the death of their commander, Bering, who was buried on the island to which his name was given. It appeared that he reached the shores of Alaska the day after Chirikov, July 16, 1741.

The voyage of Bering and Chirikov has gone down in the history of geographical discovery as a noble feat accomplished in the name of science. The significance of the discoveries made by this Russian expedition was of unusual importance for the development of geography; for the first time, the northwestern expanses of the Pacific were recorded on the map. The guesses and conjectures of geographers about a strait separating Asia from America were fully confirmed and based on exact data supplied by the members of the Great Northern Expedition.

Captain Chirikov's discovery of Alaska and Bering's voyage permitted Russian navigators to establish trade relations with the local population. Merchants and fishermen founded the first Russian settlements on Alaska's shores. Ships flying the Russian flag furrowed the waters of the Pacific, charting the sea-routes from the continent of Asia to America's shores.

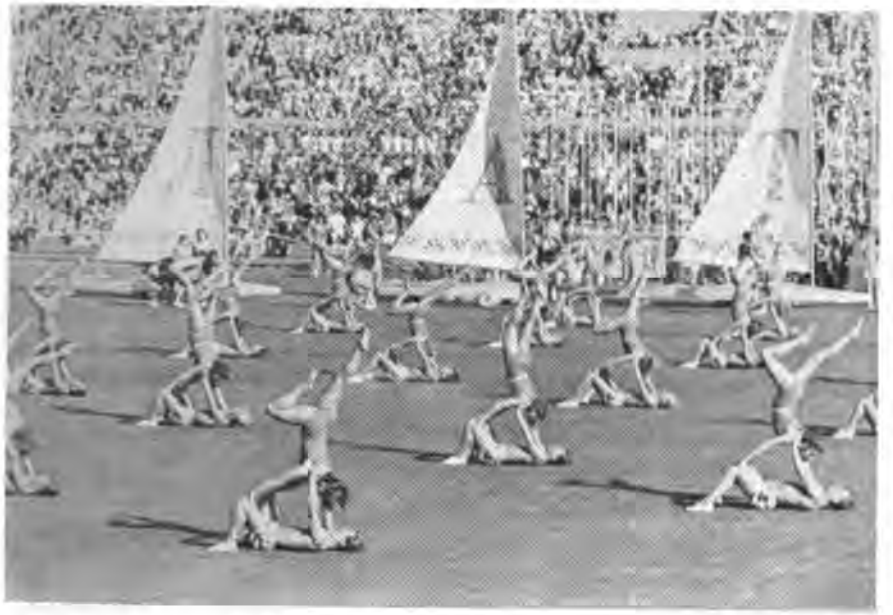
On the maps of the northwest coast of America and in the vicinity of the Aleutians and Komandorskie Islands, there are many straits, bays and islands named in honor of the members of the famous expedition undertaken by Bering and Captain Chirikov.

Israel

(Continued from page 306)

ernment of Israel, I request the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics officially to recognize the State of Israel and its Provisional Government. I dare hope that such recognition of the State of Israel will take place at the earliest date possible, and I am certain that it will strengthen the friendly relations between the Soviet Union and its peoples on the one hand, and the State of Israel and the Jewish population of Palestine on the other, and that such recognition will also serve the cause of peace and justice in international relations generally.

I avail myself of this occasion to express to you the sentiments of profound appreciation and gratitude of the Jewish population of Palestine, shared by Jews the world over, for the firm stand taken by the USSR delegation in the United Nations in favor of the establishment of a sovereign and independent Jewish State in Palestine, and for the persistent defense of this principle despite all difficulties; for the expression of sincere sympathy with the sufferings of the Jewish people in Europe under the heel of the Fascist executioners, and for upholding the principles that the Jews of Palestine are a nation which has the right to sovereignty and independence.



LATVIAN ATHLETES. Part of the Republic's contingent in a sport parade.

Sports in the Soviet National Republics

By Alexei Arzhanov

SPORTS are accessible to all the peoples inhabiting the USSR. Even in the remotest areas of the Soviet Union one will find stadiums and athletic fields. Functioning in the various parts of the country are physical culture schools. Devotees of sports, young and old, have every opportunity to indulge in their favorite game and to improve their athletic skill.

Sports are well developed in all of the republics of the Soviet Union. I shall speak about sports in three of these republics—Georgia, Latvia and Uzbekistan.

For the Georgians, a courageous and strong people, games and sports have long been favorite pastimes, but it was only after the October Revolution that light athletics, weightlifting, fencing and other modern sports were promoted here in addition to the national games. The years of Soviet administration have seen an extensive network of stadiums, athletic fields and gymnasiums spring up, the establishment of sports societies, and the growth of a large corps of physical culture experts with a higher education in Georgia.

Today some 80 thousand youths and girls engage regularly in sports in the Republic. Football players, wrestlers, boxers, weightlifters and track and field athletes, born and brought up in the Caucasian Mountains, have won fame far beyond the boundaries of Georgia and even beyond those of the USSR. Together with representatives of other peoples of the Soviet Union, they have ably upheld the athletic honor of their country in international competitions.

Georgian athletes now hold 17 USSR records, many of which exceed official world records.

Nina Dumbadze, discus throwing star of Georgia, has performed with great success in European light athletics meets. A few days after she won the European discus title, she established a new world record in the Norwegian town of Saarsburg with a toss of 50.50 meters.

Konstantin Koberidze, a native of Kakhetia, who took up wrestling in his boyhood, has been practicing regularly and competing in grappling bouts ever since. He won the USSR light-heavyweight wrestling title a number of times and won the right to join the Soviet team which participated in the 1947 European championships. Koberidze captured the European crown in his weight division.

The Georgian wrestling team proved the strongest at the 1947 USSR championships.

Andro Navasardov, Georgian heavyweight boxer, who has emerged on top several times in national championship tournaments, now occupies second place in the list of the Soviet Union's leading heavyweight fighters. Two other Georgian mitt-wielders, Aristagov and Khanukashvili, put up fine performances in international meets held in Finland and Poland.

The Dynamo football team of Tbilisi, the capital of Soviet Georgia, constantly participates in the major competitions of the country—the USSR championships and the Cup Tournament. The Georgian footballers usually finish high up in the final league standings; they have reached the finals of the USSR Football Cup competitions a number of times. It is of interest to note that five of the players have college educations. The goalkeeper, Iosseliani, is a teacher, while one of the fullbacks, Kiknadze, is a building engineer.

The Tbilisi footballers have distinguished themselves in international matches. In 1944 they met representative teams of Iran and Teheran and won both matches by the scores of 5:1 and 4:0 respectively. The following

DUMBADZE. Nina Dumbadze of Georgia is a leading field star.

year they defeated Juventus, 10:5, and a representative team of Timisoara, Romania, 5:0. In 1946, the Tbilisi team scored a victory over the Partisan Football Club of Yugoslavia.

The Tbilisi Institute of Physical Culture, one of the largest in the country, is attended by thousands of students. Graduates of this institute are now helping to promote sports in all parts of the Georgian Republic, are drawing more and more people into athletics.

SWINGING northward from Georgia to the Baltic Coast, we find the sports movement growing stronger every year in the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic. Whereas there were only 18 thousand athletes here before the establishment of Soviet power, Latvia now has 117 thousand sportsmen. More than 90 thousand athletes took part in competitions in the Republic last summer.

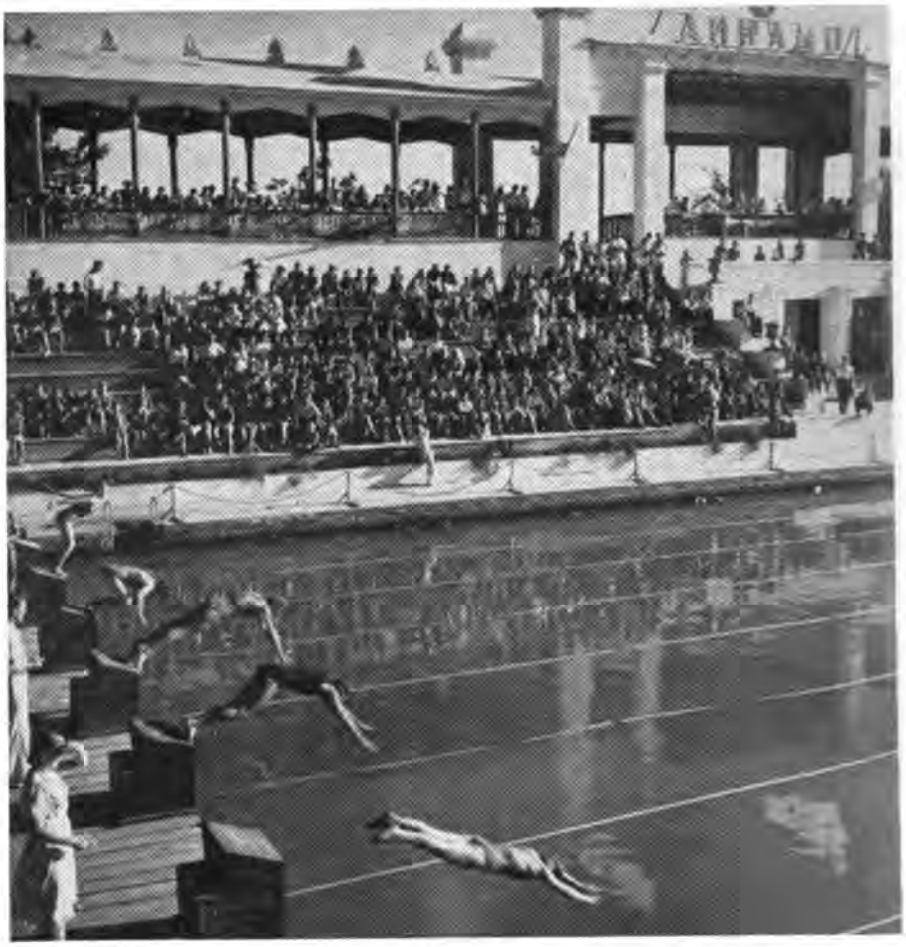
Twenty-three Latvian athletes hold the title of Master of Sports, while four are Champions of the Soviet Union.

In Latvia, which suffered heavily at the hands of the German invaders in the late war, many athletic fields, stadiums, swimming pools and gymnasiums, destroyed by the enemy, are now being swiftly rehabilitated.

Latvian sportsmen are holding their own in competitions with athletes of other fraternal republics of the USSR. They take part in all major competitions in cycling, light athletics, basketball, boxing, etc. Lydia Gaile of Riga has shown the best result in the USSR and second best in Europe in the running broad jump. Arnold Kruklins and Adolf Liepaskalns are the Soviet champions in walking contests. Bruno Selga's best hammer throw equals 53.06 meters.

The younger generation of athletes are challenging the veterans for top honors. Sports fans throughout the Soviet Union are keenly following the progress made by such promising young Latvian athletes as Ilga Zeltins, Janis Lustins and Taisia Vasilyeva. The latter two are juvenile champions of the USSR in light athletics. Athletic training schools for young people have been opened in Riga, Daugavpils, Liepaja and other large towns of Latvia since the end of the war.

The Latvian athletes are particularly proud of their Institute of Physical Culture in Riga.



IN THE EAST. Swimming meet in Tashkent, Soviet Uzbekistan.

PRIOR to the Revolution Uzbekistan was a colony of tsarist Russia. As regards sports, there were only eight or ten football teams and one gymnastics society on the whole of the territory now occupied by the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic.

Sports circles came into existence in Uzbekistan shortly after the advent of Soviet power. The first major Uzbek sports meet took place in 1920 and the program included light athletics, boxing, wrestling, weightlifting and a number of national games. Functioning in this Central Asian republic today are 22 sports societies with a total membership of 200 thousand, as well as four youth sports schools, 28 children's sports schools and a specialized high school of physical culture. An institute of physical culture will soon be opened here.

Nearly three thousand sports competitions were promoted in the Uzbek Republic in 1947. One of the most interesting events was a mass hike, in which 240 thousand youths and girls took part.

Uzbek athletes have put up good performances in national championships. Weightlifter Kashayev occupied first place in the USSR and third place in Europe in the light-heavyweight class. Shulga triumphed in the 100-kilometer cross-country contest in the USSR motorcycling championships. Ilya Davydov took third place among the Soviet Union's welterweight boxers, while Faida Khasanova finished fourth in the women's 400-meter run during the USSR Track and Field Championships.

Such, in brief, are the achievements of three Soviet republics in the development of sports and physical culture.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE state loans issued by the Soviet Government before the war brought in 5,900,000,000 rubles during the First Five-Year Plan period, 19,000,000,000 rubles during the Second Five-Year Plan period and 24,900,000,000 rubles during the three and one-half years of the Third Five-Year Plan period directly preceding the Second World War. The total contributions of the loans issued under the pre-war Stalin Five-Year Plans to the State Budget of the USSR amounted to 49,800,000,000 rubles.

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All theaters and clubs demolished by the Hitlerites in Byelorussia have been restored. Twelve theaters now function in the Republic. Certain performances at the Yanka Kupala Theater in Minsk and the drama theater in Vitebsk have won Stalin Prizes. About 3,500 drama, music and singing circles including 12 thousand members now function at factory and office clubs.

★

In conformity with a Ukrainian Government decision, six million acres of forests are to be planted in the steppe regions. This will require a tremendous number of seedlings of drought-resisting trees, which can be obtained only from the forests growing in the steppe belt.

There are three such large forest tracts in the steppe regions: the famous oak "Black Forest" in the Kirovograd Region, covering an area of 25 thousand acres; the Sevransky Forest in the Odessa Region, where some very rare trees and shrubs have been preserved; and the Samara Woods, 30 miles from Dniepropetrovsk, which cover an area of 45 thousand acres. These forest tracts have been made Government reservations.

Scientific expeditions have already left for these places. Specialists in forestry, geologists and soil experts will set up research stations and start selecting trees for planting field protection belts in the Black Sea steppes.

Construction of new buildings has begun for several higher schools in Moscow, including the Bauman Higher Technical School, the Oil Institute and the Moscow Reclamation Institute. Altogether 125 higher schools will be rebuilt or reconstructed. Two hundred and twenty million rubles has been allocated for the purpose.

★

Sixteen big textile enterprises in Ivanovo Region have opened their spring-summer rest homes, maintained at the expense of the state social insurance fund. Nearly ten thousand men and women workers, engineers and other employees will spend their paid annual vacations at these rest homes. Many of the Ivanovo textile workers will go to health resorts in the Crimea and the Caucasus. More than 5,500,000 rubles has been allotted for medical treatment and holiday facilities for the workers of the said 16 enterprises. Apart from this, the administrations of the mills appropriated more than 500,000 rubles for dietetic feeding of workers. All who need special diet will get it at prices from 25 to 50 per cent below established government prices.

Recently many women in the Mordovian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic have been promoted to leading positions in the administrative and economic organizations of the country. More than three thousand have been elected deputies to the local Soviets. More than a thousand women are employed in the capacity of chairmen of executive committees of district and village Soviets, secretaries of district committees of the Communist Party, heads of various institutions and organizations, chairmen of collective farms, etc. One hundred and fifty-seven women have been awarded Orders and medals for reaping rich harvests. Collective farmer Olga Stenyakhina was awarded the coveted title of Hero of Socialist Labor. More than five thousand women are working as physicians, doctors' assistants and medical nurses. Many more women work at schools, kindergartens and nurseries, or head clubs and libraries. Nearly 100 thousand Mordovian girls attend school. Thirty-eight Mordovian women are deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the USSR, the Russian Federation and the Mordovian Autonomous Republic.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

May 31—June 13

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from May 31 to June 13 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Tuesday, May 31, June 1, June 7—Economic Affairs.

Wednesdays and Fridays, June 2, 4, 9, 11—Scientific and cultural programs.

Thursday, June 3—Program for farmers.

Tuesday, June 8—Trade unions.

Wednesday, June 9—Program for youth.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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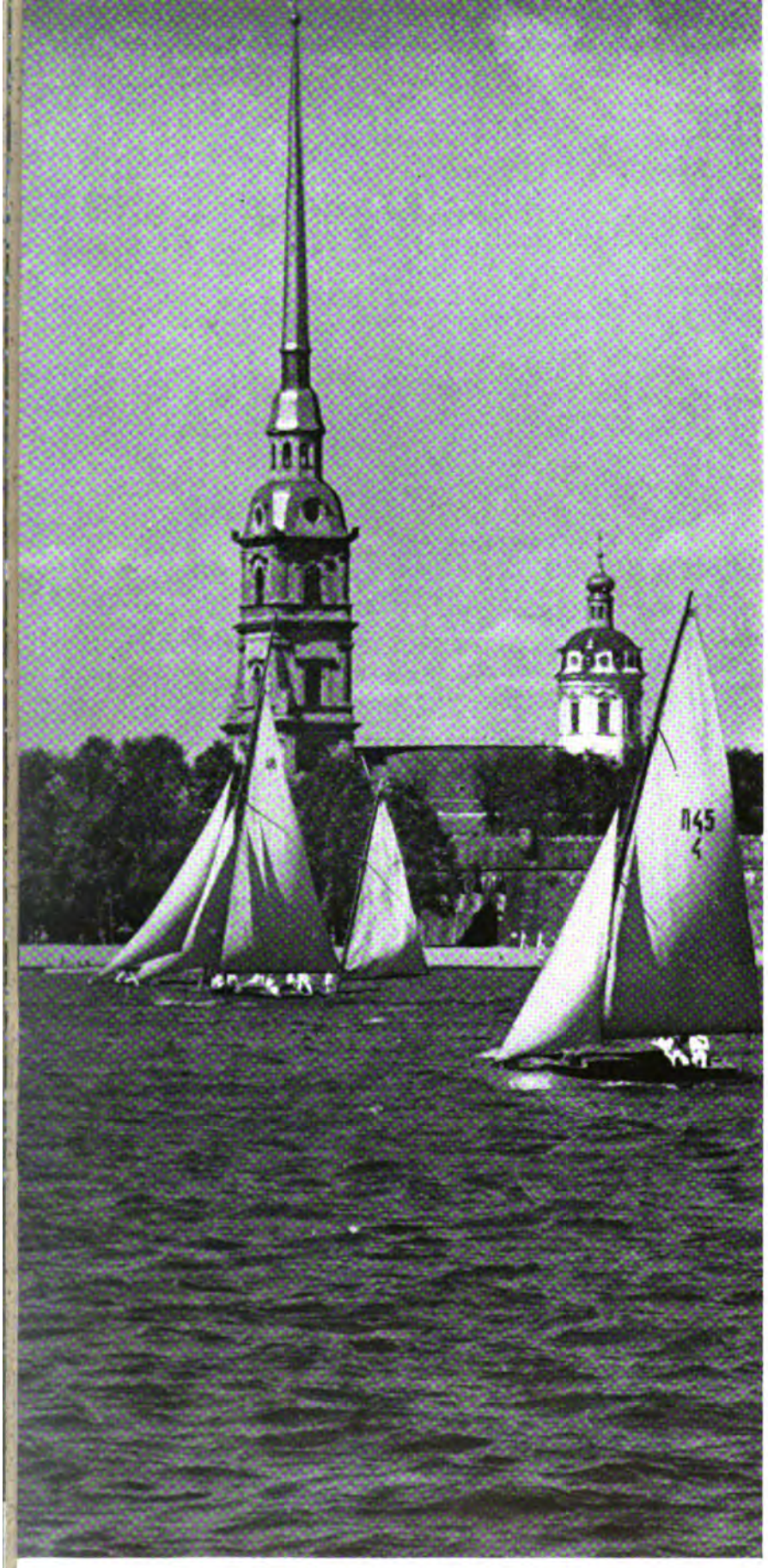

SAILING SEASON OPENS. Pleasure craft on the Neva, at Leningrad. FRONT COVER. Vyacheslav Ponomarenko, a Soviet war orphan who lives in an orphanage in Soviet Estonia, with his teacher, Hilda Punder. (Picture story on war orphans, p. 355.) BACK COVER. The Grand Kremlin Palace and one of the Kremlin towers. May Day, 1948.

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Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

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On Soviet-American Relations

In connection with the recent statement of the USA State Department on the subject of Soviet-American differences, TASS *(Telegraph Agency of the Soviet Union) has been authorized to make the following statement in regard to the attitude of leading Soviet circles. This statement was published in "Pravda", May 23, 1948.*

THE Soviet public already knows the Open Letter of Mr. Henry Wallace, the United States Third Party Presidential candidate, to J. V. Stalin, which was published in the Soviet press on May 13 and listed the problems on which, in Mr. Wallace's opinion, an agreement between the Soviet Union and the United States of America is necessary. In reply to this Open Letter of Mr. Wallace, the Soviet press published a letter by J. V. Stalin, dated May 17, in which he stated that the proposals contained in Mr. Wallace's letter could serve as a good and fruitful basis for an agreement between the two countries.*

In this connection, on May 18, the United States State Department published a statement saying that the concrete problems enumerated in J. V. Stalin's reply could not form subjects for bilateral discussion by the USA and the USSR, and that the discussion of these problems in the United Nations organization and in the Council of Foreign Ministers failed to yield positive results, allegedly because of the stand taken by the USSR.

In connection with this statement of the United States State Department, on May 19 TASS published a statement which pointed out that this stand of the State Department was completely at variance with the statement of May 4 of the Government of the USA, which, far from denying the possibility of bilateral negotiations, on the contrary assumed such a possibility as self-evident. The TASS statement indicated, furthermore, that at one time, under the Roosevelt Government, the most difficult international problems were settled by the representatives of the United States, the USSR and Great Britain in complete accord and unanimously, and if now the State Department considers agreed decisions of the Powers to be impossible, that should not be explained by the Soviet Government's stand but by the fact that the present United States Government has departed from Roosevelt's policy and is now pursuing a different policy, maintaining an aggressive attitude.

On May 19 the State Department released to the press a new, supplementary statement consisting of 11 points and dealing with questions which give rise to differences between the United States and the USSR; this statement has been published in Moscow newspapers.

In connection with this new statement by the United States State Department TASS is able to state the following:

1. Reduction of Armaments. With regard to the general reduction and regulation of armaments, the USA State Department confines itself to the remark that this problem is under discussion in the Security Council's Commission for Conventional Armaments. In reality, the decision on the necessity of the earliest possible general reduction of armaments, unanimously passed by the United Nations General Assembly in December 1946, is not being carried into effect primarily because the United States Government has taken a stand against this decision of the General Assembly. Contrary to this decision, which calls for the general reduction of armaments, the United States Government is openly pursuing a policy of progressive expansion of armaments and armed forces and is allocating billions upon billions of dollars for these measures.

And yet, it is clear to everyone that an agreement between the USSR and the USA with regard to the implementation of the decision on the general reduction of armaments could contribute to the accomplishment of this extremely important task, which is necessary for the sake of consolidating general peace and reducing the material privations of the population, which shoulders the burden of inflated military budgets.

2. Prohibition of Atomic Weapons. The Soviet Union stands for an unconditional prohibition of atomic weapons and for the utilization of atomic energy for peaceful aims only. The prohibition of atomic weapons is necessary for the reason alone that these weapons are known to be intended primarily for the purpose of destroying peaceful cities and civilian population, and the conscience of the peoples cannot reconcile itself to this.

Nevertheless, for the past two years the United States Government has been declining all the proposals of the Soviet Union on the prohibition of atomic weapons and substituting for this the idea of the so-called "international control." And yet it should be clear to everyone that only when the decision on the prohibition of atomic weapons is adopted, will the establishment of international control acquire significance as a means to ensure the actual implementation of this decision. It is for this specific reason

* See Information Bulletin, #10, May 26, 1948, p. 301.

To Our Subscribers

A large number of subscriptions to the USSR Information Bulletin expire in August and September. Readers will facilitate the handling of renewal subscriptions, and will avoid missing issues, by re-subscribing in advance of expiration dates.

Subscribers who are changing their addresses should, in notifying us, give both the old and new addresses to assure prompt and correct changes in our files.

The office of the USSR Information Bulletin will soon have available a printed booklet, Soviet-American Relations, containing the recent statements on this subject by the United States and Soviet Governments; Mr. Henry Wallace's "Open Letter to Premier Stalin" and J. V. Stalin's reply, and two TASS statements. It will be priced at 10 cents. Advance orders can be taken now.

that the Soviet Union stands for the prohibition of atomic weapons and, along with it, for the establishment of an effective international control over the production of atomic energy in all countries for the purpose of precluding the possibility of atomic weapons being manufactured.

Thus the State Department's allegation that the Soviet Union hinders an agreement on the establishment of international control over atomic energy is totally unfounded. Facts prove that in reality it is the United States Government which bears full responsibility for the situation in which no decision has as yet been taken on the prohibition of atomic weapons, while the absence of such a prohibition renders the proposal on the establishment of control over the production of atomic energy meaningless!

3. Conclusion of Peace with Germany. In its statement of May 19, the State Department evades the question of the desirability of the conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and of the withdrawal of the occupation forces, and explains the absence of an agreement on the German question by the stand of the Soviet Union; in other words, an attempt is being made to shift the blame where it does not belong.

It is a matter of common knowledge, however, that on the subject of Germany there exist decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences of the heads of the Governments of the USA, the USSR and Great Britain. If the Government of the USA adhered to the attitude taken at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, on which the Soviet Government insists, the Council of Foreign Ministers would, beyond any doubt, have successfully coped with its tasks when it was examining the German question at the Moscow and London Conferences last year. This was not the case mainly because the Government of the USA rejected the proposal of the Soviet Union concerning the preparation of the peace treaty with Germany, rejected also the proposal of the Soviet Union concerning the establishment of the central German economic departments, in spite of the fact that this had been directly provided for by the Potsdam Agreement, and similarly rejected the proposal of the Soviet Union concerning the organization of the Government for the whole of Germany which is necessary for re-establishing Germany's political and economic unity.

Far from carrying out the Yalta and Potsdam decisions on the demilitarization and democratization of Germany, which constitutes the most important prerequisite for ensuring stable peace and security of the peoples of Europe, the Government of the USA is pursuing a diametrically opposite policy in regard to Germany, relying for support upon German aggressive circles and German monopolies which served as a bulwark of Hitlerism in the past, and helping to restore Germany's economic potential for war. This policy is fraught with the danger of conversion of the western part of Germany into a strategic base for a future aggression in Europe. This policy of the USA is also being followed at present at the London Conference of six states on the German question.

All this goes to show to what lengths the Government of the USA has gone in violating the Yalta and Potsdam decisions on Germany, and what responsibility it bears for frustrating these paramount decisions.

4. Conclusion of Peace with Japan. The Soviet Union stands for the earliest conclusion of the peace treaty with Japan and for the withdrawal of the occupation forces. Naturally, in this case as well, the preparation of the peace treaty is to be effected in the manner envisaged by the Potsdam Agreement, according to which the peace treaties with all the enemy states, and consequently with Japan as well, are to be prepared by the Council of Foreign Ministers acting in appropriate composition, which in the given case means with the participation of China. After that, the convocation of a conference of all countries concerned, for the purpose of examining the peace treaty with Japan, will doubtless be absolutely necessary.

Completely at variance with the Potsdam Agreement, the Government of the USA is opposed to the preparation of the peace treaty by the Council of Foreign Ministers. As a result, no progress is being made in the matter of the peace treaty with Japan. Meanwhile, the Government of the USA is helping the aggressive circles in Japan to re-establish Japan's economic potential for war, thereby prejudicing the cause of peace.

5. Withdrawal of Troops from China. As far back as December, 1945, the Moscow Conference of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the USA, USSR and Great Britain reached an agreement on the earliest withdrawal of Soviet and American troops from China.

The Soviet Union has fulfilled its undertaking long ago and in accordance with the above-mentioned agreement has withdrawn its military forces from China. As regards the United States of America, the statement of the State Department of May 19 confirms that American military forces remain on the territory of China to this day and that the Government of the USA thus has not yet fulfilled its undertaking. Beyond any doubt, this merely contributed to the extension and aggravation of the civil war in China.

6. Withdrawal of Troops from Korea. In December, 1945, the Moscow Conference of the three Ministers of Foreign Affairs reached an agreement on the re-establishment of Korea as an independent state, on assistance in the formation of a provisional Korean democratic government, and on a number of other measures to be taken in this connection jointly by the command of the American forces in Southern Korea and by the command of the Soviet forces in Northern Korea. In view of the fact, however, that the command of the American forces in Southern Korea took the road of anti-democratic actions and of support for reactionary pro-Japanese Korean groups, an agreement between the Soviet Command in Northern Korea and the American Command in Southern Korea proved impossible, and the plan for Korea outlined at the Moscow Conference was frustrated.

For the purpose of expediting the unification of Northern and Southern Korea, of re-establishing Korea as a united and independent democratic state and of enabling the Korean people to settle its own domestic affairs, in October, 1947, the Soviet Government proposed that the American and the Soviet forces be withdrawn from Korea simultaneously early in 1948.

This Soviet proposal met with sympathetic response among the broadest sections of the Korean people, and the democratic parties and groups in Northern and Southern Korea undertook to prevent a civil war in Korea following the withdrawal of the American and Soviet forces. This Soviet proposal was however declined by the Government of the USA, and this results in the preservation of the present division of Korea into two zones—the northern and the southern—contrary to the decision of the Moscow Conference, which calls for assistance in the formation of a united, independent, democratic Korean state.

As to the Commission to which the State Department refers and which was set up by the General Assembly under the pressure of the Government of the USA, this Commission is serving aims which have nothing in common with the decisions of the Moscow Conference. An eloquent evidence of this is supplied by the experience of this Commission, which early in May this year, jointly with the American command in Southern Korea, organized sham elections to Government bodies in the Southern Zone, disregarding the protest of broad circles of the Korean people and the fact that these elections were boycotted by the democratic political parties and organizations of Southern Korea.

All this goes to prove that the Soviet proposal on the withdrawal of all foreign troops from Korea should be acted upon as soon as possible in order to carry into effect the well known agreement on the re-establishment of Korea as an independent democratic state.

7. Respect for National Sovereignty and Non-intervention into Internal Affairs of Other Countries.

When dealing with the question of respect for national sovereignty and with that of intervention into internal affairs of states, the State Department confines itself to a remark that there are many facts relating to this question, that the policies and actions of both Governments in this respect are universally known and that all this speaks for itself.

And yet the recent policy and actions of the United States Government provide quite a few instances of the intervention on the part of the United States into internal affairs of other states, instances of the violation of the state sovereignty of other countries and of economic and political pressure on other states. It is well known, for example, that the United States has actually converted Greece into its military base and that the Greek fascists, supported by the American intervention, are pursuing a policy of merciless annihilation of Greek democrats.

It is also well known that the United States intervenes in the internal affairs of Italy, as was the case, in particular, in connection with the elections held in Italy on April 18 of this year. This intervention found expression in economic pressure on Italy, in the sending of American warships to Italian territorial waters, in the demonstration flights of American war planes over Italian territory on the eve of the elections, in the political pressure on the whole internal situation in Italy, and in the exploitation of her economic want resulting from the war.

8. Military Bases. In the statement of the State Department on the subject of military bases in the territories of other member-states of the United Nations an attempt has been made to cite the decision of the General Assembly of December 14, 1946, as a justification for the existence of numerous American military, naval and air bases in the territories of many countries of the world, often removed by many thousand kilometers from the frontiers of the United States.

The United States Government tries to justify the existence of American military bases in the territories of other member-states of the United Nations by claiming that the governments of those states consented to this. In doing so it certainly evades such questions as economic and political dependence on the United States of a number of countries in whose territories the military bases are situated, and the aims and purposes which certain United States circles connect with the establishment of such military bases.

The representatives of the USSR have repeatedly, and in particular at the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1946, pointed out that maintenance of military bases by some states in the territories of other member-states of the United Nations is impermissible. The existence of such bases, as well as the presence of foreign troops in the territories of member-states of the United Nations after the end of the war, the defeat of the enemy and the establishment of the United Nations organization, cannot be justified. It will not be superfluous to point out once again in this connection that military bases of the USA also exist in the territories of states bordering on the Soviet Union.

The present situation, in which certain countries, and especially the United States, have numerous military bases in the territories of other member-states of the United Nations, is incompatible with the fundamental principles of that organization and tends to aggravate anxiety and instability in the international situation.

9. International Trade. The trade relations between the Soviet Union and other countries are steadily developing on normal, mutually beneficial business terms. The same, however, cannot be said of Soviet-American trade relations, because the Government of the USA violates the Soviet-American Trade Agreement by practicing discrimination against the USSR. This shows with whom rests the responsibility for the intolerable situation that has arisen in this sphere.

As to the Geneva and Havana international conferences on commerce, to which the State Department refers, it is well known that those conferences did not result in anything useful, while, at the same time, they provoked numerous complaints against the impermissible pressure brought to bear on the participants of those conferences by the USA.

10. Economic Aid to the Countries which Suffered from the War. The State Department deals in its statement with the question of aid to the countries that suffered from the war. It alleges that the USA renders aid to other countries through the medium of the United Nations as well, and that on a large scale. This allegation, however, does not correspond to fact.

The so-called aid which the United States is rendering certain countries is

not being directed through the United Nations, but in a unilateral manner, and the United Nations organization is being ignored in this matter. More than that, the late UNRRA, the activity of which was based on international principles and which rendered substantial aid to the countries that had suffered from the war, was abolished on the initiative of the United States, since the United States Government bluntly refused to take part in this organization.

It may also be well to recall that the United States Government declined a proposal made by the USSR delegation in the Security Council during the discussion of the Greek question, to the effect that aid being rendered to Greece should be distributed only in the interests of the Greek people and under the supervision of a special commission of the Security Council.

This proposal, as well as a number of other Soviet proposals to the effect that aid to countries should be organized through the United Nations, aroused opposition on the part of the leading circles of the United States, who are exploiting the aid they render other countries in order to secure political and other advantages, in spite of the fact that the United Nations organization has pronounced this to be impermissible.

11. Democracy and Civil Liberties. The exceedingly important issue of defending democracy and ensuring civil liberties in all countries has been reduced by the United States State Department to a secondary question of the Commission on the Rights of Man of the United Nations Economic and Social Council, even though this Commission has failed to achieve any success in its work.

And yet, at the present time United States Government circles are not concerned about the defense of democracy and civil liberties, but about the maintenance and implantation of reactionary, anti-democratic and fascist regimes in other countries (Greece, Spain, Iran). These circles are so busy carrying out this ungrateful mission that they naturally cannot bother about the defense of democracy and civil liberties.

The Soviet Union has insisted and continues to insist that democracy and civil liberties should be defended in all countries.

* * *

From all that has been said above, it is clear who bears the responsibility for the present state of Soviet-American relations.

The State Department asserts that it is impossible to adopt agreed decisions because of the non-compliant attitude of the Soviet Government. Facts, however, refute this assertion of the State Department. Everyone knows that under the Roosevelt Government, the most difficult international problems were settled in accord and unanimity by the USA, the USSR and Great Britain. And at that time this was possible because the fundamental decisions of the Teheran and Yalta Conferences were observed in good faith, while practical decisions on specific questions were taken on the basis of these fundamental decisions, in pursuance of those fundamental decisions. What has changed since then? It is the attitude of the Government of the USA that has changed. What has happened is that the Government of the USA disregards the decisions of these Conferences and systematically violates them. It is not only the decisions of the Teheran and Yalta Conferences that it violates, but even the decisions of the Potsdam Conference, which were taken with the participation of President Truman and which he signed. We do not mention the occasions on which the Government of the USA violated or ignored the Charter and the principles of the United Nations organization, on which it ignored the United Nations organization itself.

Clearly this attitude of the Government of the USA is not conducive to progress in international affairs.

Finland Thanks USSR

THE President and Prime Minister of Finland and the Chairman of the Finnish Diet have expressed their country's thanks to the Soviet Union for the 50 per cent reduction in reparations payments. According to the Helsinki press, the reduction in Finland's reparations payment to the USSR amounts to approximately 70 milion dollars.

The following message was sent by President Paasikivi to Generalissimo Stalin:

"To the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR—Generalissimo J. V. Stalin.

"I beg you, Mr. Generalissimo and the Soviet Government, to accept the deep and sincere gratitude of the Finnish people, as well as my personal gratitude for the magnanimous and generous decision to reduce substantially the reparations debt of Finland.

(Signed) PAASIKIVI,
President of the Finnish Republic."

Mr. Mauno Pekkala, Prime Minister of Finland, and Mr. Karl Enckell, Foreign Minister, visited Savonenkov, Soviet Minister in Finland, and handed him the following letter addressed to Generalissimo Stalin:

"Helsinki. June 4, 1948.

"To Generalissimo J. V. Stalin, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

"Generalissimo—the message conveyed by the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the USSR to Finland on the magnanimous and generous decision of the Soviet Government to reduce the remaining sum of reparations payments by 50 per cent as from July 1 has evoked joy in the hearts of the Finnish people and sincere appreciation.

"On behalf of the Finnish Government, I beg you, Generalissimo, and through you the Soviet Government, to accept this expression of profound gratitude for this fresh proof of goodwill, trust and friendship toward Finland, whose economic situation, which of late has been a matter of serious concern, is now substantially eased by the reduction in her reparations obligations.

"I beg you, Generalissimo, to accept assurances of my profound respect.

(Signed) MAUNO PEKKALA,
Chairman of the Council of Ministers of Finland."

FRIENDSHIP TREATY. Scene as V. M. Molotov signs the Treaty of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance between the Soviet Union and Finland, as J. V. Stalin looks on. M. Pekkala, Prime Minister of Finland, stands next to Stalin, at left and Finnish Foreign Minister Karl Enckell stands at the right of Stalin.

Joseph Stalin and Finland

By J. Ilyinsky

MANY a time, in his speeches and writings on the national question, Joseph Stalin, the originator of the policy on nationalities of the Bolshevik Party, upheld the right of the Finnish people to national self-determination.

In the early days of his political activity, Joseph Stalin had already taken up the cudgels on behalf of the oppressed peoples of tsarist Russia, and in particular of the Finnish people, whose country was part of the tsarist Russian Empire.

The fall of the autocracy in February, 1917, and the advent to power of the Provisional Government brought no independence to Finland. The Provisional Government and the Government of Kerensky continued in Finland the imperialist policy of tsardom. It was the Bolshevik Party that waged a relentless fight against this policy of national oppression and demanded the restitution to Finland of the rights she was deprived of by the tsarist Government. Referring to the conflict between the Finnish people and the Provisional Government, Joseph Stalin, in his report on the national question made at the Seventh (April) All-Russian Conference of the Russian Social-Democratic Labor Party (Bolsheviks), resolutely declared that it was necessary to side with the Finnish people, for it was unthinkable to recognize the forcible retention of any nation within the framework of a single state.

"If we, Social-Democrats," declared Joseph Stalin, "were to deny the Finnish people the right to express their will to separation and the right to give effect to this will, we should find ourselves in the position of those who continue the tsarist policy."

In July, 1917, the Finnish Diet, despite the fierce opposition of the reactionary deputies, adopted a law on the supreme power of the country and proclaimed the Diet as the body in which the sovereign rights of Finland were invested. The draft resolution introduced by the Bolshevik group at the First All-Russian Congress of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies was used by the Finns as a basis for their decision.

In answer to this decision, the Provisional Government dissolved the Finnish Diet and ordered new elections. The meeting place of the Diet was surrounded by Hussars dispatched from the front by Kerensky, and its entrance was sealed. The Bolshevik Party branded this an act of violence perpetrated by the Russian imperialist bourgeoisie in Finland. In an article entitled *Counter-revolution and the Peoples of Russia,* published in the newspaper *Proletarii* in August, 1917, Stalin wrote: "The 'grand words' about self-determination and the solemn promises 'not to hinder' are consigned to oblivion. Most incredible hindrances are created and there is even direct interference in the internal life of the peoples. The Finnish Diet has been dissolved with the threat of proclaiming a state of siege in Finland, should it be found necessary."

Reverting to the question of the Provisional Government's attitude to Finland in 1917, Stalin, in an article entitled *The October Revolution and the National Question,* published in *Pravda* in November, 1918, wrote: "The elimination of tsardom and the advent to power of the bourgeoisie did not, however, lead to the elimination of national oppression. The old crude form of national oppression was replaced by a new, more subtle, and therefore more dangerous, form. The Lvov - Milyukov - Kerensky Government, far from breaking with the old policy of national oppression, has organized a fresh campaign against Finland (dissolution of the Diet in the summer of 1917)."

The Finnish reactionaries were putting out feelers in an endeavor to come to terms with Kerensky and tried to frustrate the efforts of the masses of the people to gain independence for their country. The Great October Socialist Revolution, however, put an

end to the Finnish reactionaries' intrigues.

At the congress of the Finnish Social-Democratic Labor Party, held in November, 1917, Stalin was present as a representative of the Bolshevik Party. In his address to the congress he stressed the need to overcome the hostility between the Finnish and Russian peoples, which had been fanned by the tsarist Government. "We should betray socialism," declared Stalin, "if we fail to take all measures to restore brotherly confidence between the workers of Finland and Russia. But everybody knows that unless we decidedly recognize the right of the Finnish people freely to determine their own destiny, the restoration of such confidence is unthinkable." Stalin concluded with the slogans: "Full freedom to the Finnish as well as to the other peoples of Russia to settle their own life! A free and honest union of the Finnish people with the Russian people! No trusteeship and no inspectorate over the Finnish people!"

On December 6, 1917, the Finnish Diet proclaimed the independence of its country. The democratic forces of Finland gained this point against the obstinate resistance of the Rightist political elements, headed by the Suometarian party, the predecessor of the present National Coalition Party.

In reply to the Finnish Government's message, the Council of People's Commissars, at the end of December, 1917, adopted a decree signed by Lenin and Stalin, recognizing the independence of Finland. When the decree was submitted on January 4, 1918, to the All-Russian Central Executive Committee for approval, Joseph Stalin, who at that time held the post of People's Commissar for the Affairs of the Nationalities, made his report on the subject. Emphasizing the undeviating line of policy pursued by the Bolshevik Party on the national question and the endeavor to create the long-awaited atmosphere of mutual confidence among the peoples, Stalin said: "There is no power in the world that could force the Council of People's Commissars to go back on its promises. We have proved it by the fact that we have quite dispassionately met the demands of the Finnish bourgeoisie to grant Finland independence and immediately set to work to issue the decree on Finland's independence." In conclusion Stalin expressed the wish that Finland's independence should create a firm basis for friendship between the two peoples.

Following Stalin's report, the All-Russian Central Executive Committee approved the decree of the Council of People's Commissars and adopted a "Declaration on the Independence of Finland."

The decision of the Soviet Government to recognize the independence of Finland was handed by Lenin at Smolny to Svinhufvud, the head of the Finnish Government at that time.

Thus, Finland received her national freedom and independence from the leaders of the Soviet State—Lenin and Stalin.

This event has not been forgotten by the Finnish people, as is evident from the congratulatory message sent by Paasikivi, President of Finland, to Generalissimo Stalin on the occasion of the Thirtieth Anniversary of the October Revolution. In this message the President said: "Finland's right to full independence, long since recognized by you and your colleagues who guided the Great October Revolution, has been attained and many a time was confirmed by the Soviet Government."

In his speech at the dinner given in honor of the Finnish Government delegation on April 7, 1948, Stalin said:

"From the Soviet side, an attempt was made in the past to dissipate the distrust between the Russians and Finns. That was when Lenin proclaimed Finland's independence in 1917. It was an eminent act from the viewpoint of history. But unfortunately it did not dissipate distrust—distrust remained distrust. As a result, there were two wars between us."

Both these wars ended in the defeat of the Finnish military. At the conclusion of peace both in 1940 and 1944, the Soviet Union, as was recognized not only in Finland but throughout the world, made no use of its right of victor and far from dictating harsh terms to Finland, on the contrary treated her with exceptional magnanimity. The whole world could see that the Soviet Union presents no one, not even the smallest countries, with demands that would infringe upon their sovereign rights. The magnanimous and benevolent attitude of the Soviet State found the widest understanding and recognition in Finland.

The invariable respect for the sovereign rights of Finland shown by the Soviet Union has been noted with special satisfaction in Finland. In his reply to the questions of Hugh Baillie, president of the American United Press Agency, in October, 1946, Generalissimo Stalin wrote that Finland was and remains an entirely self-sufficient nation. Commenting on this, *Maakansa,* organ of the Agrarian Union of Finland, wrote: "Although people in Finland knew even before that the Soviet Union respects Finland's independence, it is nonetheless extremely pleasing to hear the personal statement of the leader of the Soviet people on this question. Generalissimo Stalin's utterance on Finland is vivid proof that large and small states may live in harmony and respect each other."

The Soviet-Finnish Treaty of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance, concluded on April 6, 1948,* is most convincing evidence of the Soviet Union's consistency in the pursuit of its foreign policy, based on respect for the sovereignty of small countries. The negotiations between Finland and the Soviet Union have once more demonstrated the Soviet Government's utmost consideration for the independence and sovereignty of the Finnish people. The whole tenor of the Treaty, as well as the fact that the draft submitted by the Finnish Government served as its basis, proves this deep consideration for the rights and interests of Finland.

In his letter to Paasikivi, President of Finland, dated February 2, in which it was proposed to begin negotiations with the object of concluding a treaty, Stalin expressed the hope that the treaty would "create conditions for a radical improvement in the relations between our countries for the purpose of strengthening peace and security."

Mauno Pekkala, Prime Minister of Finland, gave his impressions of the negotiations in a broadcast over the radio on April 14, 1948. The negotiations were marked by the full equality of the parties, he said, and by the

* Ratified by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on May 11, 1948.

utmost consideration and attention paid by the Soviet delegation to the Finnish delegation. Referring to Stalin's statement that the concluded treaty is based on equality, Pekkala said that he considered this statement to be supplementary to the Act of the Soviet Government, headed by Lenin in 1917, by which independence was granted to Finland.

In its issue of April 15, 1948, the Finnish *Helsingin Sanomat,* commenting in its leading article on Stalin's speech at the dinner given in honor of the Finnish delegation, wrote: "The Finnish people will remember and highly esteem this statement. They sincerely hope that the Treaty will indeed become the turning point in the relations between the two neighboring countries."

Finland's Reparations To USSR Reduced

Moscow Radio (quoting a TASS Helsinki message) broadcast the following:

On May 19 the three Finnish Communist Ministers, Yrjo Leino, Yrjo Murto and Matti Janhunen, addressed a letter to the Finnish Government in which they declared that taking into consideration the stabilization of the political situation in Finland and the sympathetic attitude repeatedly manifested by the Soviet Union towards her, the Finnish Government should address a request to the USSR Government to reduce Finland's reparations. This statement of the three Communist Ministers found a striking response in democratic circles in Finland.

On June 3 the Soviet Minister in Finland Savonenkov called on Prime Minister Pekkala and made the following statement to him on behalf of the Soviet Government:

"A few days ago the USSR Minister to Finland informed the Soviet Government that members of the Government of Finland, Messrs. Leino, Murto and Janhunen, had proposed to the Finnish Government that it should request the Government of the USSR to alleviate Finland's reparations burden.

"According to the statement of the Soviet Minister, the Government of Finland approved the proposal advanced by Messrs. Leino, Murto and Janhunen.

"In connection with this, the Government of the USSR has decided to meet the request of Finland and to reduce the remaining sum of the reparations payments by 50 per cent, beginning from July 1 of this year."

Prime Minister Pekkala asked the Minister to inform Moscow that this decision of the Soviet Government will be received by the people of Finland with profound gratitude.

Reparations Cut for Finland, Romania and Hungary

The following editorial appeared in "Pravda" under the title: "An Important Decision of the Soviet Government."

The decision of the Soviet Government on the reduction of reparations payments due from Finland, Romania and Hungary is justly estimated by Soviet public opinion as an important move which will strengthen still further the friendship and co-operation between the Soviet Union and these states.

In preparation of the peace treaties for Germany's former allies, the Soviet Union was never guided by a spirit of revenge. The Soviet Union was prompted first and foremost by its desire to achieve such a settlement of postwar problems as would prevent the possible revival of war danger, ensure peace and security and help the peoples of the countries which fought on the side of Hitler Germany to take a peaceful democratic course of development. The decisions on reparations, apart from their main object—at least partial compensation for the tremendous losses caused by the attack of Germany and her allies on the USSR—reminded the countries which took part in this attack of their responsibility for aggression and served as a warning to those who would attempt to repeat such aggression. In accordance with this principle, the terms of the peace treaties imposed upon Finland, Romania and Hungary included the obligation to compensate for part of the damage caused to the USSR by their troops which invaded Soviet territory during the war.

Naturally, a certain measure of distrust still remained in the relations between the USSR and the former allies of Germany. The forces of international reaction, interested in using the former enemy countries bordering on the USSR as a base in the event of new adventures against the Soviet Union, tried their utmost to provoke tension in the relations between the USSR and its neighbors. But the consistent peace-loving foreign policy of the USSR, based on the Lenin-Stalin principle of equality of great and small nations, on the one hand, and the growth of the democratic forces in Romania and Hungary as well as in Finland on the other hand, directed the relations of the USSR with Romania, Hungary and Finland and with the other countries of eastern Europe along the course of peace and friendship.

A vivid illustration of this new development in the relations between the USSR and the countries formerly aligned with the camp of its enemies was furnished by the treaties of friendship, co-operation and mutual assistance concluded by the Soviet Union with these countries. As emphasized by the head of the Soviet Government, Joseph Stalin, in his address in connection with the signature of the treaty between the USSR and Finland, this treaty has broken the distrust, created a new base for relations between the peoples of the two countries, and marked a major turn in the relations between the two countries toward confidence and friendship.

The same course was taken by the relations of the USSR with Romania, Hungary and other East European countries.

As a result of their work in the three postwar years on the realization of the Stalin Five-Year Plan, the peoples of the Soviet Union achieved tremendous successes in the restoration and development of the national economy. They are boldly furthering the

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"Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve Of the Second World War"

A NUMBER of documents which appeared in the first volume of *Documents and Materials relating to the Second World War,* made public by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, are given in a supplement to the weekly magazine, *New Times,* Number 16 (April 14). Most of these secret documents which have a direct bearing on the events of 1937-1938 were captured by the Soviet Army in Berlin.

"The circumstances which have necessitated the publication of the documents from the archives of the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs are generally known," writes *New Times.* "The United States State Department, in collaboration with the British and French Foreign Offices, published at the beginning of this year a collection of documents extracted from Germany's diplomatic archives under the title, *Nazi-Soviet Relations, 1939-1941.* They were published not from devotion to historical truth but in order to blacken the Soviet Union. That is why, in agreeing among themselves to publish materials selected from the German archives, the Governments of the United States, Britain and France rejected the Soviet suggestion that these archives should be examined jointly in order carefully to verify them."

The historical survey published by the Soviet Information Bureau cited the facts and documents which both exposed this falsification and disclosed its motives. The collection now published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR contains genuine historical documents relating to crucial phases in international developments at the time the Second World War was being prepared. They show, writes *New Times,* that the Soviet Government was doing everything in its power to achieve the organization of collective security and to obtain the adoption in collaboration with the Western Powers of effective measures for the prevention of aggression. The published documents make it clearly evident why the efforts of the Soviet Union yielded no results: the ruling circles of Britain and France were not, as they professed to be, concerned for the maintenance of peace. What they actually wanted was to get Hitler to go to war against the Soviet Union. They therefore strove to come to terms with Hitler, and it was for this that the Munich agreement was concluded and Czechoslovakia was sacrificed.

The published documents, particularly the official records of secret negotiations with Hitler, which the authors never expected to see the light of day, reveal the astonishing cynicism with which the rulers of Britain and France helped Hitler to strangle Czechoslovakia and unleash the World War. Their authenticity is confirmed not only by signatures and seals but by the whole subsequent course of events. These documents provide eloquent testimony of the correctness of the Soviet Union's policy from the standpoint of international security at that period.

"The words 'strictly confidential' stamped on the documents," concludes *New Times,* "have proved no insurance: the criminal designs of their authors are being haled before the court of public opinion. They have now become public knowledge and they not only furnish insight into events of the recent past, but shed light on the present. Therein lies their importance."

The first two volumes of the *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, are now off the press. They contain texts of documents of Hitler's Government, captured by Soviet troops in Berlin.

Beginning with the article on the following page, we will publish three articles by the noted Soviet journalist, Boris Izakov, commenting on the material contained in these documents.

The following review of the second volume of new documents on the prelude to the Second World War appeared in *New Times:*

THE second volume of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, has just come off the press. This volume contains the papers of Dr. von Dirksen, which fell into the hands of the Soviet Army. Von Dirksen, a German diplomat of the old school, was Ambassador in Moscow from 1928 to 1933, then for nearly five years he was Ambassador in Japan. In March, 1938, he was appointed German Ambassador in London and remained in this post until the outbreak of the war in Europe.

This second volume of documents contains 29 of von Dirksen's official telegrams, letters and reports and other materials relating to the period of his mission in London—1938 to 1939. Four documents of political interest from his private correspondence and two reports from the German Ambassador in Paris are given in the appendix.

The materials in the volume may be divided into two parts—documents relating to the period of diplomatic preparation for the seizure of Czechoslovakia and the Munich deal of 1938, and documents throwing light on the efforts made by Great Britain in 1939—and continued right down to the outbreak of hostilities—to come to terms with Hitler at the expense of the Soviet Union.

These two parts are linked, as it were, by von Dirksen's "survey," written by him after the war had already broken out. This long document occupies 57 pages of the volume, and represents a detailed account of political relations between the British and German Governments from May, 1938, to the beginning of the war. The letter written by the German Ambassador in Paris at the end of 1936 may be regarded as an introduction to the material.

Pro-Nazis Again on the Stage

By Boris Izakov

LORD Halifax is well known in the United States. He held the post of British Ambassador in Washington from 1943 to the middle of 1946. The American press gave him broad publicity at that time.

It will perhaps be of interest to the American public to learn that Volume I of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War*, published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, devotes considerable space to the diplomatic activities of Lord Halifax before the war. The volume opens with a record of his conversation with Hitler which took place at Obersalzburg on November 19, 1937.

At that time Halifax was the Lord Privy Seal of the British Government. Prime Minister Chamberlain sent him on a secret mission to Hitler. As is evident from the record of the conversation, Halifax proposed to the Fuehrer to begin negotiations on a very wide range of questions with a view to establishing Anglo-German co-operation. In passing it was remarked that France and Italy could be invited to join the agreement after it was reached.

It is necessary to recall the international situation obtaining at the time of these negotiations. At the end of 1937, clouds of world war were threateningly gathering on the horizon. Abyssinia was handed over for destruction and plunder to Mussolini's gangs. German and Italian planes were barbarously bombing the cities of Republican Spain. The Japanese generals were conducting extensive operations for the conquest of China. It was clear that the fascist aggressors, and, primarily Hitler Germany, had decided to start a world conflagration.

But the Third Reich was not yet fully prepared for such a war. It was energetically arming, but it needed a couple of years to complete its military preparations. This was well known both in Germany and abroad. At that moment the foreign policy of the Nazi Government was practically one of blackmail and extortion. The fascist gamblers were playing a hazardous game. The Western Powers, and Great Britain and France, in particular, could cut this game short at any moment by agreeing to the unification of the forces of the peace-loving states against aggression and the aggressors. But this did not fit in with the plans of the British and French diplomats, for it would imply a renunciation of their persistent attempts to isolate the USSR. Furthermore, a rebuff to fascist aggression would inevitably lead to the fall of the Nazi regime and the formation of a left government in Germany, and this least of all accorded with the desires of London or Paris.

Such was the international situation at the time Lord Halifax made his proposal at Obersalzburg for the opening of far-reaching negotiations. Hitler's interest was aroused. It was impossible not to feel whence the wind was blowing. The proposal of the British Government held out the prospect of a big bargain in the future. The Fuehrer resorted to his accustomed rhetoric. He complained of injustices allegedly done to Germany, and in foggy phrases hinted that he could take up arms. Then, in order to make his interlocutor open his cards, the ringleader of the fascist gang brought up the question of colonies—he was well aware how unsavory such topics were to the representatives of British imperialism. There is in essence only one difference between Britain and Germany: the colonial question, said Hitler.

The result of this frank sounding surpassed all his expectations. The colonies are "a difficult problem," replied Halifax. Instead, he proposed to include in the agenda of the negotiations the question of Eastern Europe, indicating that this would involve "changes in the European order" that would probably take place "sooner or later." The British Minister added significantly: the question includes Danzig, Austria and Czechoslovakia. He emphasized that the "changes in the European order" relating to Danzig, Austria and Czechoslovakia could be accomplished, with Britain's support, through "peaceful evolution."

The Fuehrer seized this proposal. "It would be wise to achieve a settlement also with Czechoslovakia and Austria," he agreed. The entire course of the conversation shows that Halifax's proposal came as a surprise to the Fuehrer.

The significance of the advances made by Halifax was well realized in Berlin, where it was understood that green traffic lights had been switched on along the roads to Eastern Europe. And the German aggressor rushed along this route with the speed of an express train.

The man who, on instructions of the ruling circles of Britain and the British Government, switched the green lights on for the German aggressor, was Lord Halifax. In reward for these labors he was soon promoted by Chamberlain to the post of Foreign Minister.

The disastrous consequences of the Chamberlain-Halifax policy are well known. It helped the Nazis to unleash the Second World War. But the British politicians who entered into a criminal conspiracy with fascism did not succeed in safeguarding their own home from the conflagration. They went bankrupt in the full sense of this word.

As British Ambassador in Washington during the last years of the war and immediately after its end, Halifax was in the forefront of international politics. At present he is one of the heads of the BBC, continuing his active role in British political life. Lord Halifax has neither learned nor forgotten anything: he is today trying to carry on the very policy of supporting extreme reaction and splitting Europe pursued by him ten years ago.

Halifax is not alone.

Many other sinister figures who dragged mankind into world war have

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The Administration of State Industry

By A. Arakelyan

Staff Member, Institute of Economics, Academy of Sciences of the USSR

THERE are three forms of state industry in the USSR: Union (federal), republican and local.

The first group embraces the most important, the key branches and enterprises, whose output is designed to meet the needs of diverse consumers throughout the Soviet Union.

Republican industry includes those industrial enterprises which are smaller in scale than All-Union enterprises and have a considerably smaller volume of production and narrower range of distribution (predominantly within the confines of one republic).

Local industry embraces enterprises which in the main are working on raw materials and fuel obtainable on the spot, and which produce goods to meet the needs of consumers within the confines of a definite region or district.

"BOARD OF DIRECTORS." Manager and administrative leaders of a steel plant.

Prior to 1932, administration of Soviet industry was concentrated in one agency—the Supreme Council of National Economy. At first it directly administered all state industrial enterprises. Subsequently some of them were turned over to the jurisdiction of republics and regions, for which purpose republican and regional economic councils were set up; these received general guidance from the Supreme Council of National Economy.

The First Five-Year Plan was completed nine months ahead of schedule, in 1932, when industrial output was three times greater than in 1913. The swift development of industry necessitated a sub-division of the Supreme Council of National Economy and instead of the Supreme Council three People's Commissariats—of the heavy, light and timber industries—were formed.

During the following eight years which preceded the Second World War, Soviet industry made tremendous strides. In 1940 industrial output was more than eight times greater than that of 1913. Large-scale industry ex-

TO OUR READERS

The American press carries a great many articles dealing with life in the USSR. This undoubtedly is a sign of the great interest displayed by the public at large in the structure of the Soviet State, the life of the Soviet people, their culture, mode of life and essential problems.

It is regrettable, however, that in most cases the American press gives an incorrect picture of Soviet reality, which often seems like a tendentious distortion of the true state of affairs, done, in any case, not in the interests of promoting mutual understanding and friendship between the American and the Soviet peoples. The insufficiently competent portrayal of life in the Soviet Union emanates at times from authoritative American sources, which merely tends to intensify the harm done to the relations between the two peoples by incompetent commentators. A most typical case in point is the booklet "Communism in Action" published recently by so authoritative an institution as the United States Library of Congress. This booklet covers a number of aspects of the Soviet Union's internal life, in particular the administration of industry and organization of labor, all the problems being treated inaccurately and tendentiously.

Beginning with this article on industrial administration, our Bulletin will carry a series of articles dedicated to problems of life in the USSR, written by prominent Soviet authors with the aim of enabling American readers who are following developments in the USSR to obtain a true picture of certain major aspects of the internal life of the Soviet Union.

The articles in this series will take up, in addition to problems of industrial management, the structure of planning bodies and their functions, organization of labor and the question of wages, the role of the trade unions, socialist competition and the Stakhanov movement and labor legislation.

panded twelve times over; and the machine-building industry, more than fifty times over during this period. This unparalleled advance was accompanied by the establishment of new people's Commissariats (subsequently renamed Ministries). At present the USSR has 35 industrial Ministries, including those in construction.

The Soviet Constitution divides such Ministries into two categories—All-Union and Union-Republican.

An All-Union Ministry administers the branch of state industry under its jurisdiction on the entire territory of the USSR, either directly or through its agencies (central administrations, trusts, etc.) No Union or autonomous republic has such Ministries.* These Ministries form part of the Government of the USSR.

The Union-Republican Ministries, on the other hand, exist both in the Government of the USSR and in the governments of the Union republics.

The Union-Republican Ministries administer directly only a limited number of enterprises according to a list approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. The Union-Republican Ministries also effect general guidance of other enterprises that come under the jurisdiction of the Union republics through the respective republican Ministries.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR unites and directs the activities of all industrial as well as other Ministries. Through the State Planning Committee which is subordinated to it, the Council of Ministers effects the planned direction of the country's entire economy, including industry, establishes definite economic relations and proportions and assures the coordinated development of all branches of the national economy.

After plans are considered and approved by the Government, they become state assignments which have the force of law and are binding on all Ministries, institutions and enterprises. The State Planning Committee checks the fulfillment of these plans and submits to the Council of Ministers the proposals that may originate as a result of this verification.

*See Constitution of the USSR for the list of Ministries.

Direct administration of the separate branches of industry (coordination of the work of enterprises and trusts, the organization and planning of the entire work of a given branch of industry, etc.) is effected by the respective Ministry. Each Ministry is headed by a Minister who bears responsibility to the Government for the activity of the branch of industry under his charge, for the fulfillment of state plans by this industry. The Minister is vested with broad administrative powers; he issues orders and instructions and verifies their fulfillment. He appoints heads of central administrations and departments in the Ministry, heads of enterprises and trusts.

Each Ministry has a collegium which acts in an advisory capacity, with the Minister as its chairman. The collegium consists of the Minister, deputy Ministers and leading executives of the given Ministry, and its composition is approved by the Council of Ministers. The collegium takes up major problems such as production plans, measures for their fulfillment, reports on the work of enterprises, etc.

In order best to utilize the experience of leading enterprises and workers and to promote criticism of shortcomings in the activity of Ministries, the Ministries periodically convene conferences of leading workers and executives. Such conferences are attended by heads of enterprises, outstanding workers, engineers, industrial executives, trade union officials, etc. As distinct from collegiums, the composition of such conferences varies each time, depending on the problems raised.

There is a technical council in each Ministry, which works on problems of technical improvements, on the introduction of new methods, etc.

Lastly, the Minister has a special control and inspection group which checks the fulfillment of the orders and instructions issued by the Ministry.

The administering of local industry differs from that of industry under the jurisdiction of Union or republican Ministries. Strictly speaking, local industry is not confined to a particular branch of industry. It embraces the most diverse enterprises which cater to local needs (providing they do not come under the jurisdiction of some specialized Ministry). That is why a Ministry of local industry may have under its jurisdiction small enterprises engaged in the extraction of fuel, the production of metal wares, the manufacture of knit goods and foodstuffs, furniture, toys, etc. To manage all such enterprises Union and autonomous republics have set up local industry Ministries.

Some Union republics, depending on their specific economic requirements, have established their own local fuel Ministries; the Ukraine has also its own furnishing industry Ministry. The setting up of such Ministries promotes the utmost utilization of local resources and stimulates the initiative of local agencies in developing industry on their territories, particularly the mining of local fuel, the production of consumer goods, household articles, etc.

The Ministry of local industry has under its direct jurisdiction many industrial establishments which it administers directly. This Ministry also offers general guidance to local industry enterprises which come under the direct jurisdiction of regional, district and rural Soviets. To administer these establishments the executive committees of regional Soviets have departments of local industry, while district Soviets set up combined industrial organizations.

Local industry serves as an important supplement to large-scale Union and republican industries which are the main producers of commodities in the USSR.

As can be seen from the above brief review, the organization of socialist industry is not cast in inflexible rigid forms. These forms are developed and perfected in step with the progress of industry. The necessary changes in the administrative system are determined by the Soviet State, which is industry's sole owner.

The experience gained in administering industry helps to develop the best forms for its administrative machinery and facilitates the constant improvement of the latter. The tremendous development of industry in the USSR is the best proof of how successfully the Soviet State has solved this task.

The system of administering Soviet

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People Who Dare

By J. Usherenko

SPRING farm work is in full swing throughout the vast territory of the Soviet Union. The millions of farmers of the socialist countryside have turned out on the collective farm fields, led by the Heroes of Socialist Labor.

The gold star that decorates the breasts of these peasant heroes is a symbol of the nationwide recognition of their achievements in labor.

Only under the socialist system, where labor has become a matter of valor, glory and heroism, can the efforts of simple peasants, men and women, be appreciated so highly. In what capitalist country is the labor of the farm hand, the poor and middle peasant, or the tenant farmer honored?

Only in the Soviet land, where the people are masters of their destiny, is the labor of peasant men and women, like the socially useful work of all Soviet people, honored and respected.

The Soviet peasantry, by carrying out the directions of their Government and the Communist Party, secured a bumper harvest last year. The grain yield attained the prewar level, and as compared with 1946 the total harvest of grain increased by 58 per cent. With an energy and steadfastness peculiar to the Soviet people, the peasants and agricultural experts worked to obtain a high harvest. As a result of socialist emulation, the more outstanding masters of agriculture have come to the fore. Encouraged and supported in every way by state and other public bodies, these people developed to the full their individual abilities and talents. The foremost masters of socialist agriculture achieved brilliant results. This can be seen by a few examples.

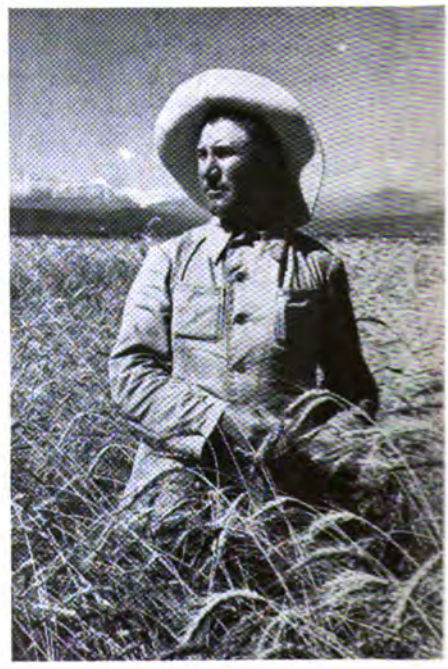
The group of collective farmers led by Hero of Socialist Labor Yefrosenia Makarova of the Stalin collective farm in Krasnoyarsk Territory, last year harvested nearly 3.4 tons of wheat per hectare (2.47 acres) from a field of 25 hectares. In Kirov Region, a group of collective farmers, led by Hero of Socialist Labor Maria Lysenko, obtained a yield of 75.8 tons of sugar-beet per hectare. Hero of Socialist Labor Valentina Dianova, a young collective farmer of Kolomna District, and her group, obtained a crop yield of nearly 54 tons of potatoes per hectare on the podsol soils of Moscow Region.

In the Tajik SSR, a group of collective farmers headed by Abdulayev harvested 9.5 tons of cotton per hectare on his section of three hectares, and the Lenin collective farm in the same republic obtained on the whole of its sowing area an average crop yield of more than 9.3 tons of cotton per hectare. Such cotton harvests, which greatly surpass those in the fertile valley of the Nile in Egypt, have been obtained by hundreds of collective farms and thousands of foremost collective farmers in the Central Asian Republics.

But the Soviet people, workers of a socialist society, constantly strive to achieve still better results. They have a clear picture of the prospects of development of their country and the tasks set the entire people by the Communist Party. They seek ways and means that will enable them rapidly to accomplish new feats.

COTTON. Khanum Gasanova, noted woman farmer of Azerbaijan.

SUGAR BEET. Anna Koshevaya (left) a Hero of Socialist Labor.



WHEAT. Gid Shibzukhov, Is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet.

New Farming Goals

THE Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR recently published an edict setting the harvest indices for 1948 and 1949 for the attainment of which high honors, including the Hero of Socialist Labor award, will be bestowed on Soviet farmers.

A little more than a year ago, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR published a similar edict setting forth the harvest indices for 1947. It is common knowledge that last year Soviet farmers, while successfully healing the wounds of war and eliminating the aftermath of the severe drought in 1946, boosted grain output by 58 per cent and supplied the State with approximately as much grain as in the best prewar years. In the competition to attain last year's harvest indices, a great many leading agriculturists came to the fore, a large number of whom were awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor.

Soviet agriculturists have now been confronted with great new tasks, the first and foremost of which is to achieve a further boost in yields by building on the achievements of 1947. The goal is to make last year's achievements of the country's leading agriculturists the property of the entire Soviet countryside.

Taking into account that the raising of yields of the principal crops is a key measure making for a further upswing in agriculture, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has set new, higher harvest indices for 1948 and 1949 for the Hero of Socialist Labor and other government awards. These indices cover wheat, rye, corn, rice, cotton, sugar beet and sunflower, as well as clover, alfalfa and timothy seed.

An important feature of the edict is the zonal principle which it introduces in establishing crop yield indices. As distinct from last year, when identical crop yield indices were set for all farming zones of the country, the present indices are differentiated in accordance with the specific features of the various zones and their climatic and soil conditions. Thus, in the wooded and steppe lands of the Ukraine and the districts of the North Caucasus with adequate rainfall, for example, the title of Hero of Socialist Labor will be conferred upon collective farmers and personnel of machine and tractor stations and state farms for wheat and rye harvests of 3.2 tons per hectare, whereas in the districts in the southeast of the USSR it will be conferred for wheat and rye harvests of 2.5 tons per hectare.

The object of the edict is to insure a further over-all rise in yields of Soviet farm fields and a sharp upswing of socialist agriculture as a whole. The indices set in the edict are another indication that in the Soviet Union a record is not the goal in itself but only a means for achieving a general advance.

Initial comment on the new edict indicates that a new wave of patriotic enthusiasm has begun to sweep the Soviet countryside. Men and women collective farmers and the personnel of machine and tractor stations and state farms are assuring the Government that their response to the edict will be still more selfless effort on the fields.

The keynote of all declarations and speeches made by collective farm Heroes of Socialist Labor is to supply the country with still more grain, cotton, flax, vegetables and other food and industrial crops this year.

Eleven members of the Red October collective farm are among the 22 foremost agricultural workers in Voronezh Region who have been awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor. Last year this collective farm obtained an average crop yield of one hundred poods of grain per hectare on an area of 1,313 hectares, 110 poods on 605 hectares, and almost two hundred poods on 70 hectares (62 poods equal one ton). That was indeed a remarkable harvest. But the members of this collective farm are bent on doing still better.

"I consider last year's success the beginning of our struggle for greater abundance," said Hero of Socialist Labor Peter Solomatin, chairman of the collective farm. All the leading farmers wholeheartedly support their chairman. Hero of Socialist Labor Ivan Mokshin, a war veteran, and his brigade obtained a crop yield of 190 poods of grain per hectare. He has now pledged to harvest at least two hundred poods per hectare this year on the 137-hectare field worked by his brigade. Hero of Socialist Labor Katherine Panova has set herself the task of obtaining this year a crop yield of 240 poods per hectare on the entire area worked by her group instead of the 180 poods of rye gathered in 1947.

Soviet newspapers publish letters to Joseph Stalin, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, from the farmers of many republics, territories and regions. All these letters were discussed by millions of men and women collective farmers and contain concrete pledges and promises. Their essence may be conveyed in a single sentence: The farmers undertake to obtain a greater harvest this year than they did in 1947. A remarkable feature of the socialist emulation movement which has developed in the Soviet countryside during the current year is that thousands of collective farms and entire districts have set as their goal the record harvests obtained last year by the foremost brigades and groups in collective farms.

Every region, district, collective farm brigade and group and every collective farmer and agricultural specialist is aware of the tasks to be accomplished.

Factory and office workers and the intelligentsia are also actively helping to obtain a bumper harvest by augmenting the technical equipment of the farms. Figures published on April 15 by the State Planning Committee of the USSR showed that during the first quarter of this year Soviet industry increased the output of tractors by 137 per cent and the output of agricultural machines by 138 per cent as compared with the same period in 1947. Output of mineral fertilizers has also increased. Eminent representatives of Soviet agricultural sciences, such as the late Academician Pryanishnikov, Academicians Lysenko and Tsitsin, are helping by their work and advice the Soviet countryside to secure a big harvest.

The Legacy of Timiryazev

By Professor Pavel Genkel
Doctor of Biology

A LITTLE more than 28 years ago, on April 28, 1920, Kliment Timiryazev, great Russian scientist and thinker, passed away. In Timiryazev, Russian and world science lost one of the greatest natural scientists, an ardent fighter for the triumph of the materialistic world-outlook, a brilliant experimenter and a daring revolutionary democrat.

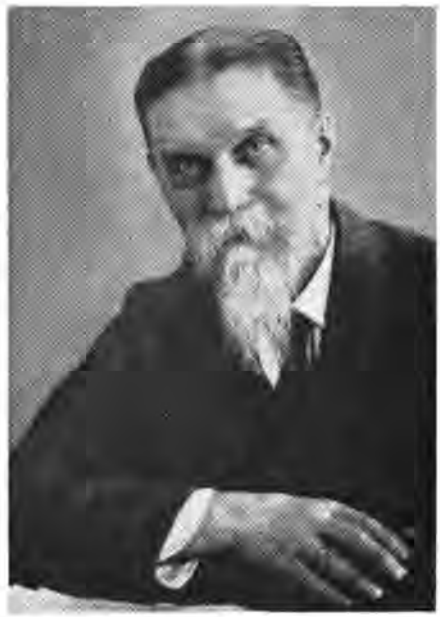
In one of his articles, Timiryazev said that at the beginning of his career he set himself two aims—to work for science and to write for the people. He fulfilled both these tasks honorably, showing in practice how seriously he took his role of an advanced scientist-democrat.

In his student years, Timiryazev published several scientific articles on Darwin's theory in the Russian periodical, *Otechestvennye Zapiski,* and in his last year in the university they were printed in book form under the title *A Short Outline of Darwin's Theory.* These student works formed the basis for Timiryazev's great book, published in later years, *Charles Darwin and His Teachings,* which still is an excellent manual for all who study the principles of Darwinism.

While popularizing Darwinism in Russia, Timiryazev at the same time waged an implacable fight against Russian and foreign anti-Darwinists. He exposed the unscientific nature of their views and convictions, boldly overthrew the rickety structure built by the reactionaries of science.

Timiryazev's services to Russian and world science are not restricted merely to the propagation and defense of Darwinism—he also did much for its development. In a number of his works Timiryazev repeatedly underlined the decisive importance of the historical method in solving problems of the formation of varieties and the heredity of plants, questions which, in the opinion of the scientist, should be studied by physiological botanists.

In his wonderful speech on *Factors of Organic Evolution* Timiryazev foretold that the new trend in science



Kliment Timiryazev

(which he called "experimental morphology"), having begun in small rivulets, would merge into one broad stream in the twentieth century. These prophetic words were fully justified. The beginning of the twentieth century was marked by the talented works of the Russian selectionist, Ivan Michurin, by the theory of stadial development elaborated by the Soviet scientist, Trofim Lysenko, and by the discovery of the phenomenon of photoperiodism; this was followed by the elaboration of the teachings on the development of plants.

Timiryazev devoted the whole of his life to the study of one of the most important questions of biology—the role of the sun's rays in the creation of organic matter by a green plant. Having studied the absorption spectra of chlorophyll, Timiryazev was the first to establish that chlorophyll, under the action of light, takes part in the assimilation of carbonic acid, as a chemical sensibilizer, i.e., a substance taking part not only in the absorption of light but also chemically participating in the process of photosynthesis. (Photosynthesis—the process by which a green plant assimilates carbonic acid at the expense of the energy supplied by the sunrays.)

However, Timiryazev's chief merit as a scientist is that he was the first to prove the applicability of the great law of physics—the law of the preservation of energy—to the process of photosynthesis. The majority of the research workers of the time, in particular the German botanists Saxe and Pfeffer, denied this relationship and it appeared, therefore, that the law of the preservation of energy could not be applied to the most important process taking place in living organisms—the process of creating organic matter. Timiryazev proved that the experiments of his opponents were based on a number of experimental mistakes. Having elaborated a new method of gas analysis, of exceptional accuracy, he established that only the absorbed rays took part in the process of photosynthesis, that a definite ratio existed between the number of absorbed light rays and the amount of chemical work performed, and, finally, that a certain percentage of the energy of light absorbed by the ray was spent on this work. Only after Timiryazev's classic researches did it become possible to speak of photosynthesis as of a photochemical process fully subordinated to the law of the preservation of energy, common to all animate and inanimate nature.

Timiryazev also applied Darwin's principles, which he propagated so warmly, in explaining the green color of plants. Timiryazev affirmed that the green color of plants was not accidental but was the result of the plant's accommodation to its environment in the process of natural selection. Despite the data presented by physicists of the time, Timiryazev drew the bold conclusion that the red rays of the solar spectrum contain the greatest energy and are absorbed particularly intensively by the green plant. According to Timiryazev, in the process of natural selection those varieties of plants were formed which made most

expedient use of the red rays, i.e., green plants.

Present-day physics has explained this phenomenon in greater detail, from the point of view of the quantum theory of light, thus in principle confirming Timiryazev's conception.

Many years have passed since Timiryazev published his researches on photosynthesis. Our knowledge of the chemical nature of chlorophyll, of the course of the process, has progressed greatly. We now know the exact chemical composition of chlorophyll and even the arrangement of nearly all the atoms in its complicated molecule. We assume that the process of photosynthesis has a light and a dark phase, that a great role in this process is played by the photolysis of water, i.e., its chemical decomposition by the action of radiant energy; but nevertheless all the results of Timiryazev's works remain as a firm foundation on which rest the modern teachings on the remarkable process of the creation of organic matter from carbonic acid gas and water under the beneficial action of the sun's rays.

This seemingly abstract question on which Timiryazev worked so long and fruitfully has acquired great theoretical and practical importance in our days. Having absorbed a sunray, a green plant preserves it in its leaves in the form of a number of chemical compounds possessing a reserve of potential energy. This means that if we wish to cultivate a rich harvest we must make the best possible use of the sunrays. Each ray lost to a plant is also lost to mankind. The most efficient utilization of the sun's rays is achieved by early sowing, the propagation of varieties with a rich crop yield, the correct distribution of plants in the field. Thus, Timiryazev's theoretical work formed one of the bases of modern agricultural science. Having brilliantly solved one of the radical questions of the physiology of plants, Timiryazev made a great contribution toward increasing the productivity of agricultural labor, which he considered one of the most important problems confronting a scientist studying the physiology of plants. Kliment Timiryazev's great services to science are not restricted to this alone. For more than twenty years he carefully trained cadres of agronomists in the Petrovsky Agricultural Academy, which now has been renamed the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy. At the All-Russian Exhibition held in Nizhny Novgorod (now Gorky) in 1896 he organized the first "vegetation house" in Russia and demonstrated experiments on the nutrition of plants, thus visually propagating the principles of agro-chemistry and the physiology of plants.

Timiryazev's work on *Agriculture and the Physiology of Plants,* published in book form, exercised an enormous influence on the development of Russian economic thought. This popular book, written in Timiryazev's brilliant style, is a true scientific treatise which has not lost its significance in the present day. Of particular interest is the public lecture on *The Plant's Fight Against Drought,* in which Timiryazev recommends a number of practical measures. Many of these (forest shelter belts, deep plowing, methods of combatting weeds, the cultivation of drought-resisting varieties) only began to be applied in Soviet times.

Timiryazev, a representative of the progressive democratic intelligentsia of Russia, enthusiastically hailed the Socialist Revolution in 1917. He was one of the first Russian scientists to give his knowledge to building up the young Soviet Republic and its science.

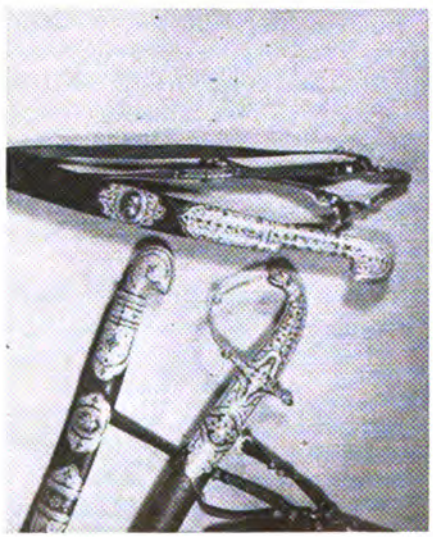
After the establishment of Soviet power Timiryazev wrote a number of popular and scientific articles which he published under the collective titles of *Science and Democracy* and *The Sun, Life and Chlorophyll.* The venerable Academician engaged in extensive public work as a deputy to the Moscow Soviet.

The Soviet people profoundly honor the memory of the great scientist. One of the districts in the Soviet capital bears the name of Timiryazev. A monument to him has been raised on the Tverskoy Boulevard in Moscow. The Academy of Sciences of the USSR annually arranges special Timiryazev sessions at which Soviet scientists report on their work in developing the legacy of the great Russian scientist.

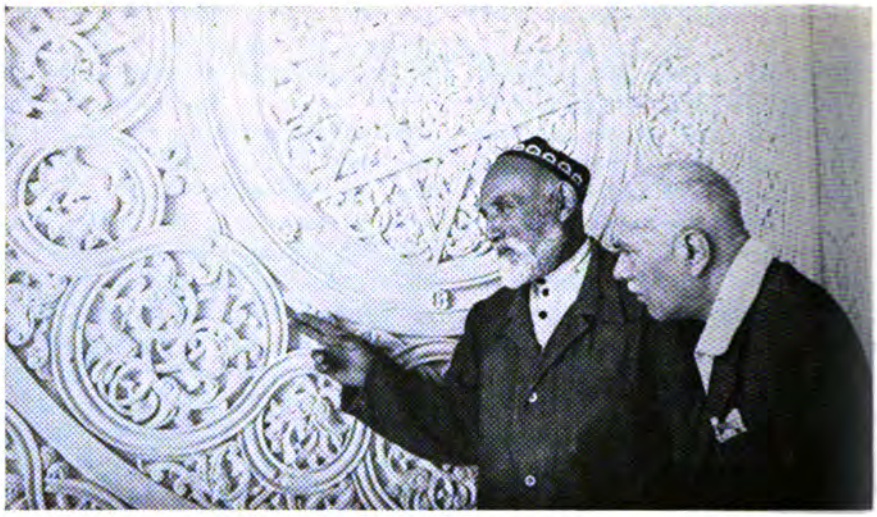
AT TIMIRYAZEV ACADEMY. Scientific agriculture is the goal of Soviet farmers. Arkhip and Alexander Oskin, notable farmers, are students now.

Soviet News in Pictures

FINE CATCH. At a fish canning plant.



CRAFTSMANSHIP. Fine sword hilts made in Daghestan.



PRIZEWINNER. Alexei Shchusev (right) architect, and Tashpulat Aslankulov, carver of alabaster, look at a wall of the Stalin Prize-winning Tashkent opera theater.

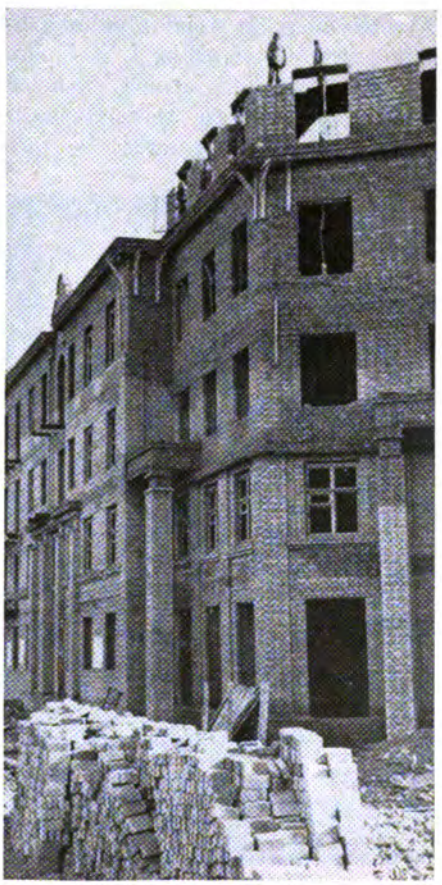
DESERT. Study group of the Repetek Sand and Desert Station.

WORKERS' HOLIDAY. A rest home of the aircraft workers' union.

CHAMPION. Mikhail Botvinnik (second from left), new world chess champion, is presented with an ivory chess set.

REPATRIATES. Professor K. Ter-Karapetyan and his family are Soviet Armenian repatriates.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINES. Inspecting a self-propelled harvester combine manufactured at Syzran, USSR.



BUILDING. Thousands of apartment houses are going up.

Economic Foundations of the USSR

By T. Stepanyan, M. Sc.

THE economic foundation of the USSR is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production, firmly established as a result of the liquidation of the capitalist system of economy, the abolition of private ownership of the instruments and means of production, and the elimination of the exploitation of man by man.

The Soviet Government began work on the socialist reconstruction of the national economy immediately after the establishment of Soviet power. The October Revolution at once made the means of production that are of vital importance (the factories and mills, the land, railways, banks) public property, that is, property belonging to the people. This public property grew and developed in the course of industrialization, which played a decisive role in the building of a socialist society. The teachings on socialist industrialization were elaborated by J. V. Stalin.

Socialist industrialization, founded first and foremost on the development of heavy industry, ensured the conversion of the country, predominantly agrarian and backward in the past, into an advanced, industrial socialist power. This was achieved during the course of the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

The industrialization of the USSR created the foundation for the collectivization of agriculture. Solid collectivization gave Soviet power a socialist base in the most extensive and most vital, formerly the most backward sphere of the national economy—agriculture. With the triumph of collectivization a single economic foundation was created in the USSR—the socialist system of economy.

Socialist property in the USSR exists either in the form of state property (belonging to the whole people) or in the form of co-operative and collective farm property (property of collective farms, of co-operative societies). The common feature of these two forms of public ownership is that both are socialist forms of ownership, excluding any possibility of exploitation of man by man, and both realize the socialist principle of work and distribution inscribed in the Constitution: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

State property naturally plays the leading and directing role in the development of the national economy. The two differing forms of ownership exist in the framework of the socialist system of economy, which forms the economic foundation of the USSR. The Stalin Constitution consolidates this foundation and ensures the realization of all the proclaimed democratic rights and political freedoms.

Planned national economy, its development without any crises or unemployment, is the law of Soviet economy. Without public ownership as the economic basis of society, planned economy is impossible.

The Soviet Constitution proclaims the right of citizens to personal property. Under socialism personal consumption grows with the growth of public wealth. Thus under socialism the personal interests of the citizen coincide with those of society. That is why every citizen in the USSR is interested in the growth and development of public property, in the growth of labor productivity, in the output of more and better quality goods, in the fulfillment of the state national economic plans and in enhancing the might of the Soviet Union.

Personal and public interests are firmly linked by the socialist principle of distribution—"From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

Consolidating and developing the political and economic foundations of socialism, Soviet society is gradually effecting a transition to communism where the guiding principle of public life is: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs."

The Soviet people are the first to pave the way to a communist society—the dream of the best minds of humanity in ages past; therein lies the greatness of the people of the USSR.

STATE INDUSTRY. Petrovsky iron and steel mill.

COLLECTIVE. Women on a Ukrainian farm.

Food in Plenty

By Vassili Zotov
Minister of the Food Industry of the USSR

DURING the first quarter of this year the Soviet Union achieved outstanding success in the fulfillment of its national economic plan. Like all the Soviet people in other spheres, the workers of the food industry did good work in the first quarter of this year.

1948 proved more favorable for the food industry than last year, when serious difficulties resulting from the severe drought of 1946, had to be surmounted. Last year's harvest was very good. This enables the food industry to maintain the volume of production on a high level until the autumn, when the new crop is gathered.

The enterprises of the food industry of the USSR fulfilled the program of the first quarter by 108 per cent. Compared with the same period last year production increased by 43 per cent.

In the more important products, such as vegetable oil, sugar, confectionery and soap, the program was overfulfilled considerably; output of this produce increased by well over 50 per cent in comparison with the first quarter of last year. Besides quantitative fulfillment of the program, the food industry improved the quality and assortment of its produce.

In the autumn the food industry expects to get huge quantities of raw materials approaching the prewar scale. Therefore, work has already started on the repair of plants, on the construction of new and the rehabilitation of old, and on the expansion of existing plants.

The sugar industry will get 14 more restored refineries, and will increase the capacity of the existing refineries before autumn. New vegetable oil refineries will shortly be opened at Kirovograd, Atak and Chimbai. The capacity of the canneries will be increased. New margarine plants are under construction in Gorky, Mo'otov, Kiev, Stalino, Lvov and Minsk.

The demands of the consumer have risen very considerably following the abolition of rationing and the reduction in prices. Buyers want a larger assortment and better packed goods. Great efforts are being made to meet the demand.

The achievements of the first quarter of 1948 have laid the foundation for the successful fulfillment of the food industry's big program for the whole of this year, and thus promote the further development of trade and improve the living standard of the population.

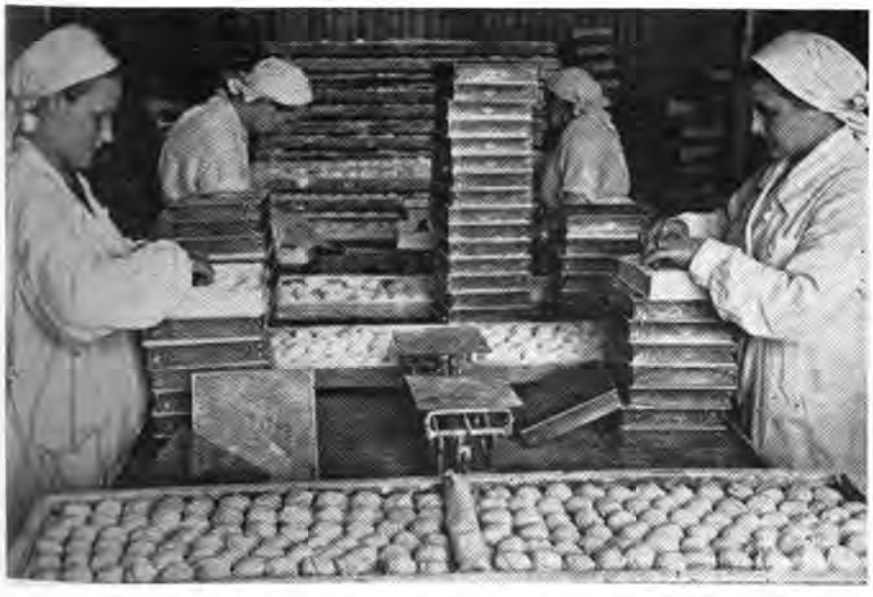
MEAT. Government inspection, Moscow.

The postwar Five-Year Plan has set the task of further developing agriculture and the industries producing consumer goods in order to raise the material well-being of the people of the Soviet Union and to secure an abundance of the principal items of consumer goods in the country.

Soviet food production is now so varied and extensive, it was deemed necessary to concentrate its management in five Ministries; those of the food industry, the meat and dairy industry, the grocery supplies industry and two Ministries of the fish industry (West and East). The Ministry of the Food Industry is in charge of sugar refineries, creameries, bakeries, confectioneries, canneries, margarine, salt, vitamins, etc.

More than 5,000,000,000 rubles was invested in these branches of the industry in the course of the prewar Five-Year Plans. Up-to-date enterprises were built and the old mills and factories were radically reconstructed. A modern food industry was built up in the country.

Every branch of the Soviet food industry is equipped with modern machinery, laboratories, scientific-research institutes; it is staffed with skilled engineers, technicians and inspectors to control the quality of the products;



SWEETS. Udarnitsa candy factory in Moscow. Its products are popular.

the technological process is up-to-date; all laborious processes have been mechanized.

The postwar Five-Year Plan provides for the following output of the main products in 1950:

Sugar	2,400,000 tons
Vegetable oil	880,000 tons
Confectionery	850,000 tons
Salt	5,000,000 tons
Soap	870,000 tons

In 1950 the gross production of the enterprises of the Ministry of the Food Industry will considerably exceed the prewar level.

The fulfillment of this immense program is ensured by the swift development of socialist agriculture, and hence, the growing raw materials base, and also by the big capital investment in the food industry, which makes possible effective technical re-equipment.

Now, the course of the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan shows how realistic was the projected tempo of rehabilitation and development of the national economy and how inexhaustible are the creative forces of the Soviet people, who have decided to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in four years.

During the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan the food industry fulfilled its production program by 103.4 per cent. Compared with 1945 the increase in output is as follows:

Granulated sugar	by 111 per cent
Lump sugar	by 212 per cent
Confectionery	by 86 per cent
Vegetable oil	by 50 per cent
Margarine	by 220 per cent
Canned goods	by 46 per cent
Salt	by 44 per cent
Soap	by 27 per cent

The successful fulfillment of last year's program in food production was an important condition enabling the abolition of rationing and the organization of unrestricted Soviet trade.

Much has been done in the way of the rehabilitation of devastated food enterprises and the construction of new food enterprises, and in the implementation of modern technique in those two years. During the course of this period capital investment in the food industry amounted to nearly 1,500,000,000 rubles. Production capacity increased very considerably as hundreds of restored and newly built enterprises were put into operation.

The technical re-equipment of the food industry is being continued.

The 1948 program provides for an even higher tempo of production. Output of major products will rise on a scale unknown in previous years.

The workers and engineers of the enterprises of the food industry decided to fulfill the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule, knowing that this will further the prosperity of the country and improve the life of the people. Taking stock of their raw material resources and the production capacity of their enterprises, the workers of the sugar refineries in Kirghizia, Uzbekistan and the Kazakh Republic pledged to produce as much sugar in 1948 as is planned for 1950. The sugar refineries in the Kiev, Poltava, Kamenets-Podolsk, and Zhitomir Regions, and in the Latvian SSR have pledged to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in four years. The collectives of the big confectioneries in Moscow, Leningrad, the Ukraine and Byelorussia have taken the same obligation.

Having overfulfilled the program for the first quarter of the present year, the workers of the food industry are striving to achieve even better results in the future. Serious attention is being devoted to capital construction. Three hundred and sixteen big food enterprises are under construction, of which 234 will be put into operation before the end of the year.

The engineers, mechanics and workers are doing their level best to utilize to the full the new technical equipment. Socialist competition for the fulfillment of the five-year program ahead of schedule is developing on an ever wider scale. Thousands of the best workers are doubling and trebling their quotas, working several machines, rationalizing production and ensuring greater labor productivity.

The workers, engineers, technicians and other employees of the enterprises of the food industry are working tirelessly so that they may sooner put into operation the newly built enterprises, fulfill the programs of the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule, and create an abundance of fine quality foodstuffs in the country.

BAKERY. Mixing the dough in a mechanized bakery.

CANNERY. Muinak food-processing factory.

Oil—A Leading Soviet Industry

By E. Galperson

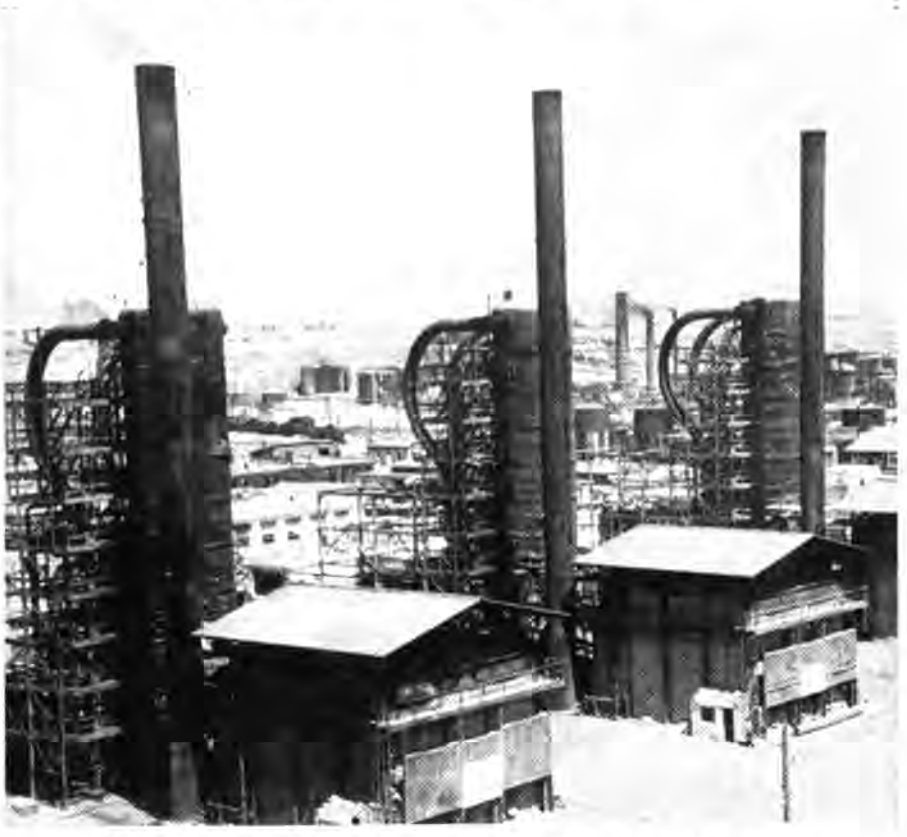
Member of the Collegium of the Ministry of the Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas

THE oil industry, in the fulfillment of its plans, is one of the foremost branches of the national economy. Thus, it fulfilled its first Five-Year Plan in two and one-half years and the second in four years. The oil industry also worked excellently in the Third Five-Year Plan period. Output of oil in the USSR increased by 2.7 times between 1928 and 1940. This major branch of the national economy also served the needs of the country without a hitch during the hard years of the Second World War.

Having surmounted the grave consequences of the war, the oil industry is once more advancing at a rapid pace. The program of last year was also exceeded. As compared with 1946 the output of oil increased by 19 per cent. In the first quarter of the current year output was 24 per cent more than in the corresponding period of 1947. The State Plan in the first three months of this year was overfulfilled in the eastern, as well as southern and western areas of the USSR.

In the USSR we have no rapacious exploitation of oil deposits. Being the sole owner of social wealth, the Soviet State takes care to utilize fully and comprehensively the known oil deposits. By concentrating in its hands the huge material and financial resources of the country it creates all the necessary conditions for the rapid and systematic development of every branch of economy, including the oil industry. Lastly, the absence of exploitation of workers in the USSR creates a deep interest among the whole people in the progress of socialist economy, and this is an inexhaustible source of the initiative and activity of the masses.

It is on this basis that the nationwide movement for fulfilling the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years has arisen in the Soviet Union. Emulation has been launched in which workers in the oil industry take a most active part. Having pledged to complete their five-year plan a year before the end of the period, they have thereby undertaken to raise production so they can obtain in 1949 35,400,000 tons of oil, the production planned for 1950.



BAKU. Stalin refinery in the oil-rich Baku area of Azerbaijan.

Fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule will in the first place require an acceleration in the surveying and putting into operation of new oil deposits. Deep survey drilling will be almost equal in volume to the drilling of wells for the extraction of oil. In view of this, the turbine method of drilling is being more widely introduced on Soviet oil fields. Eminent oil engineers are working on the further improvement of well drilling.

An important means for the speedy fulfillment of the plan is the growth of mechanization of various processes and the equipment of the industry with improved machines. For instance, drilling machines for shallow boring and geophysical apparatus are now more and more placed on motor vehicles, and geophysical parties provided with multichannel seismic stations so as to speed geological and geophysical work. Traveling drilling machines are now used in all deposits where the oil strata are near the surface. A number of machine building works are producing these drilling machines. Minor mechanization is also increasing, for which purpose Soviet machine building works in 1946 started the mass production of special devices. Last year they started the manufacture of special cranes for lifting weights in the course of drilling. Soviet factories have considerably perfected drilling bits and the oil industry is now receiving them in ever greater quantities. All this greatly speeds the tunnelling of wells.

The preparatory work in connection with the huge projects of surveying and putting into operation newly discovered oil deposits, has improved considerably. As a result of this, oil prospecting can be carried on all the year round. This is of special importance under the conditions of the severe Russian climate and the long distances over which oil fields are scattered. Construction in already prospected oil

fields (building of dwelling houses, cultural and other institutions, workshops, garages, etc.) is being considerably accelerated, which makes it possible more rapidly to start the work of oil extraction.

A great role in the overfulfillment of plans will be played by the mechanization and acceleration of laborious and heavy work in underground repairing of wells.

Lastly, the growth in the qualification of oil workers and the rise in the productivity of their labor greatly aid in overfulfillment of plans.

It should be added that the Soviet State does everything possible to increase the earnings of oil workers. Their wages are rising year by year and have outstripped other branches of industry. In terms of wage level, the oil industry is now in advance of all other branches of industry. In the first quarter of this year it rose still higher. During that period, average real wages of all Soviet workers, manual and mental, have increased by 51 per cent as compared with the same period of 1947.

Pro-Nazis on Stage

(Continued from page 339)

reappeared on the postwar international scene. The foreign affairs of a number of Powers bear definite earmarks of the fatal policy of the prewar years.

Eduard Daladier, the criminal, whose signature is affixed to the shameful Munich agrement, is again laying claim to a leading role in France, not so long ago betrayed by him to the Hitlerites. Side by side with him we see another former French Premier, Pierre Flandin, who is likewise trying to rise again to the surface of public life. Daladier and Flandin are repeatedly mentioned as active pro-Nazis in the diplomatic documents now published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR.

The fact that the pro-Nazis have reappeared on the world scene is not fortuitous. It is clear that they are supported and pushed into the limelight by influential forces. It is the duty of all people of good will to force these individuals who are branded with shame to get off the stage.

Trip Around the World

By I. Osipov

Member of the Geographic Society of the USSR

THE voyages of Lisyansky and Krusenstern in the ships *Nadezhda* and *Neva* in 1803-1806 were the beginning of a long series of brilliant sailings by Russian seamen. In the first half of the nineteenth century Russia occupied a leading place in ocean exploration and in the organization of round-the-world voyages. During this period Russian scientists and explorers (among them Golovin, Kotzebue, Billingshauzen and Litke) made 36 voyages around the world.

Many islands, gulfs and bays on the map of the world bear Russian names. In the neighborhood of Nova Scotia there are the islands of Borodin, Smolensk and Maloyaroslavets. In the Pacific lie the islands named after the heroes of the Patriotic War of 1812—Kutuzov, Volkonsky, Rayevsky, Chichagov, Yermolayev and Miloradovich. There you will also find the islands of Suvorov and Admiral Lazarev. They were named in memory of the Russian ships which visited these waters.

Lisyansky gives in his notes a day-by-day account of the round-the-world voyage in the *Neva*. The author of the notes was born at Nezhin, in the Ukraine, in 1773. He received a naval education, and at the age of 15 took part in the actions of the Russian fleet near Helsingfors.

In 1803 Lisyansky and Ivan Krusenstern sailed in the *Nadezhda* and the *Neva* to the shores of North America.

West of the Hawaiian Islands, Lisyansky discovered an island, which on the suggestion of the crew, was named after the head of the expedition. Throughout the voyage Lisyansky made careful observations of the life and customs of the inhabitants of the islands. He made a detailed description of the coast line, sounded the depth of the bays, made a valuable collection of the utensils, clothes and weapons of the primitive tribes of North America, Brazil and the Canary Islands, and made corrections in the maps.

Lisyansky's expedition enriched geographical science with new data about the poorly explored countries. Lisyansky and Krusenstern visited islands which had only just been discovered by European explorers. They provided the first description of the nature and the inhabitants of the Marquesas Islands, the Washington and the Easter Islands. This exceptionally interesting description played an important part in the development of ethnographic science.

Y. Lisyansky, the captain of the *Neva,* was an outstanding man of his time. He was well educated, had a perfect command of several European languages and unusual literary abilities. The reader will find excellent descriptions of nature, precise data on sea-currents, temperature of the water, most convenient entrances and exits from the bays, occupations of the inhabitants and the geological structure of the islands.

Lisyansky's travel notes (a new edition of which was recently issued by the Geographical Publishers of the USSR), like the books of other Russian seamen, show the humane and just attitude of Russian travelers to the backward tribes and peoples, and a lack of the haughtiness common to the majority of European travelers.

The book on Lisyansky's round-the-world voyage has been published with great care. Numerous drawings and maps illustrate the texts. In the foreword the publishers give a detailed description of the life and career of the author of the travel notes.

This book is one of a number of recent geographical publications dealing with early Russian explorations. Among these, one attracting particular interest is that written by Vladimir Vize, himself an explorer of the North, and a Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Professor Vize recounts the voyages and discoveries made by one hundred Russian seafarers in the Arctic. He points out that Russian explorers made tremendous contributions to the study of the Arctic between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries.

Where Rivers Are Highways

By N. Semyonov

Head of the Central Administration for Development of Small Rivers

THE Volga, the longest river in the European part of the USSR, has seven thousand tributaries. Other rivers on the Russian plains have likewise great ramifications. According to the figures of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR the number of small rivers in the Soviet Union exceeds 100 thousand.

On the banks of small rivers stand hundreds of thousands of villages and thousands of towns with big factories and mills, with numerous new constructions and small enterprises. Thousands of railway trains are required daily to supply the population with foodstuffs and industrial commodities, the new construction sites with building materials, the factories and mills with raw material and equipment.

The Soviet people have long cherished the dream of transforming the small, often shallow, non-navigable rivers into navigable ones and thus connecting thousands of inhabited places by cheap transport. The small rivers could relieve railway trunk lines of local haulage. With the aid of these small rivers it would be possible to organize freight traffic within regions and districts and create still stronger economic ties between town and countryside.

The Five-Year Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR in the postwar period provides for considerable work in the development of navigation on small rivers. What is in question is not only the building of a fleet of river steamers, but also the important work of improving small rivers, deepening and straightening channels, raising the water level by means of locks and dams, and building hydroelectric power stations.

The length of the navigable sectors of small rivers in the Russian Federation increased by 1,864 miles last year. The number of small rivers made navigable increased considerably. Steamers began to sail on rivers where hitherto even simple fishermen's boats were unable to ply easily owing to the shoals and sandbanks.

The river Izhma in Kirov Region has become navigable; so has the river Kerest in Novgorod Region; so have the rivers Obva, Pchevzha, Sykmara, Baksa, Vop, Tsna and scores of other rivers in various parts of the Russian Federation.

Small water arteries, a dense network of which intersects the territory of the Republic, should in the nearest future assist in organizing more rapid and cheaper water transport.

As much freight is now transported daily on the improved river Tsna as could have been carried in a day by two hundred motor trucks or 1,300 horses.

The river Medveditsa in Kalinin Region will shortly become navigable. The new waterway will intersect the

VOLGA. The great Russian river at Yaroslavl. It is the longest river in the European USSR.

lands of eleven administrative districts. Nearly seven hundred villages with a total population of 85 thousand are directly interested in making this river navigable.

Hitherto, small rivers were made navigable by primitive methods. Scores of thousands of people turned out to dredge and straighten the channels of rivers. When, for instance, it was necessary to remove a sandbank or shoal, the river channel at that spot would be artificially narrowed, which would cause the water to flow more rapidly and thus wash away the sandbank.

Today the small rivers are being thoroughly improved by the most modern methods. Two hydroelectric power stations have already been built and put into operation on the river Tsna. These power stations are supplying electricity to scores of collective farms on the banks of the river. And for the entire reconstruction of this river, the building of 12 hydraulic structures, including power stations, has begun. Each of them will have a lock and raise the water level. This will make it possible to irrigate considerable areas of fields in collective farms.

Our administration has recently discussed with the chairmen of the regional Soviets of Stalingrad, Saratov and Voronezh Regions the question of effecting a capital reconstruction of the River Khoper. After this reconstruction the river will provide cheap water transport for the territory of the three regions, which are among the largest in the Soviet Union. We contemplate building 16 hydraulic plants and power stations and considerably raising the water level of this river. Here too, it will become possible to irrigate the land.

The economic aspect of various districts is changing largely as a result of the reconstruction of small rivers. Electric power stations, new factories and workshops and large flour mills, which it is planned to build in the districts of the reconstructed rivers, will tend toward a more intensive development of industry and agriculture.

Complex reconstruction of small rivers is carried on under a unified state plan and has become possible as a result of the public ownership of the means of production and the initiative of the people, which meets with every support of the Government.

Reparations

(Continued from Page 337)

development of their productive forces, free from the fear of crises of overproduction which haunts the capitalist world. They are inspired by the idea of the great Stalin Plan for the completion of the construction of a classless socialist society and the gradual transition from socialism to communism. The Soviet people know that at the higher stage of development reached after the restoration of the national economy of the USSR and the attainment of the prewar level of production they will proceed to the realization of the general economic task of the USSR, that of overtaking and surpassing the principal capitalist countries, including the USA, economically, i.e., in per capita production.

Inasmuch as during the past three years, the Soviet Union has already made tremendous headway in advancing its national economy, it now has real possibilities for extending greater aid to the countries with which it maintains friendly relations.

Adopting the decision on the reduction of reparations payments, the Soviet Union took into account the fact that Romania and Hungary, as well as Finland, have proved by their postwar policy that they have broken with the past when they were satellites of Germany, and their desire to follow a democratic course of development. Lastly, in adopting this decision, the Soviet Union could not but take into account the fact that throughout the postwar period Finland, Hungary and Romania have been scrupulously abiding by the peace treaty provisions with regard to reparations deliveries.

That is why the initiative of the three Communist Ministers Yrjo Leino, Yrjo Murto and Matti Janhunen, who on May 19 proposed to the State Council of Finland to ask the Government of the USSR to lighten Finland's reparations burden, received favorable consideration from the Soviet Union. The Soviet Government decided to meet Finland halfway and reduced by 50 per cent the balance of reparations due, beginning with July 1, 1948. Soon thereafter the Soviet Government granted similar requests of the Governments of Romania and Hungary.

This act of the Soviet Government, which represents a new expression of the consistently principled Stalin foreign policy intended to strengthen world peace and co-operation between nations, will unquestionably be widely commented upon abroad. And world democratic opinion cannot but contrast the consistently friendly attitude of the Soviet Union toward the recipients of its aid with the tough course of the ruling circles of the USA, which are trying to take advantage of the postwar economic difficulties of the European countries and to force upon them under the guise of "aid" a political course desirable to American reactionary circles and the capitalist monopolies.

Although the above-mentioned decision of the Soviet Government relates to three states, its significance far transcends the relations between the Soviet Union and these states. It helps strengthen friendly relations between the Soviet Union and other countries, and serves the cause of world peace and security. It strikes a fresh blow at the intrigues of the warmongers who are striving to cause tension in the relations between peoples and to use the tense situation thus created for their narrow selfish group aims. These intrigues of the reactionary forces are opposed by the Soviet Union, which is consistently carrying into practice the great principles of the Stalin foreign policy—the policy of international co-operation, of strengthening the friendly ties between the USSR and other countries.

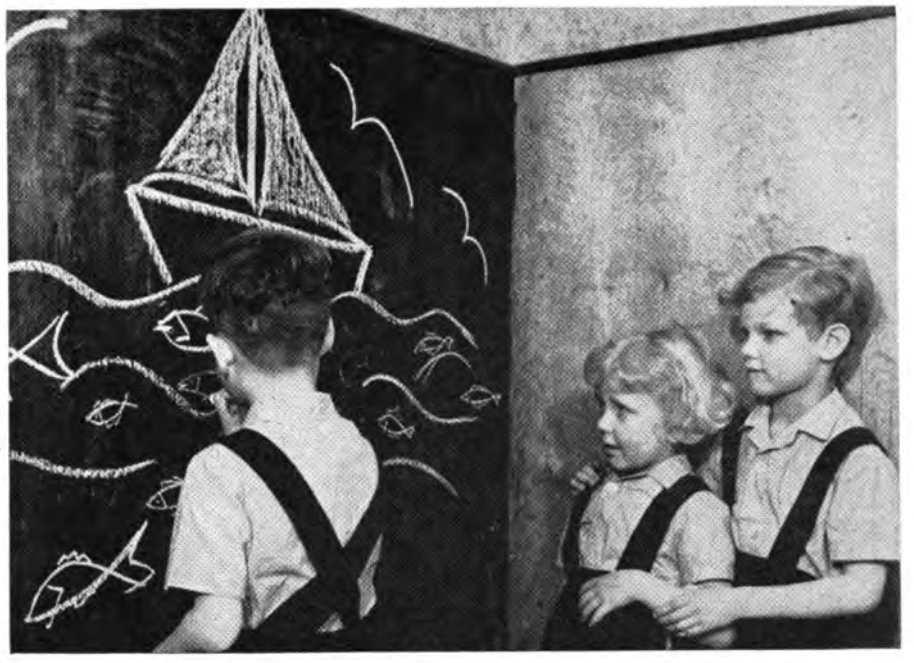
The Soviet people have met with satisfaction this noble act of the Soviet Government, dictated by its desire to strengthen friendship and co-operation between the USSR and its neighbors and thereby further to reinforce the peace and security of the peoples.

State Industry

(Continued from page 341)

industry is based on the planned nature of its development, which springs directly from the fact that public ownership is dominant in the country. This system combines well-planned subordination of industrial enterprises with broad initiative in their current practical activities, combines the principle of single management with the participation of the broadest masses of workers in discussing major problems and criticizing shortcomings in the work of industry.

Their Parents Were Killed By Nazis



TALLINN ORPHANAGE. The children's drawings are joyous and imaginative.

ANNE. Her parents' fate is unknown.

HARRY. His parents were killed when he was a year old.

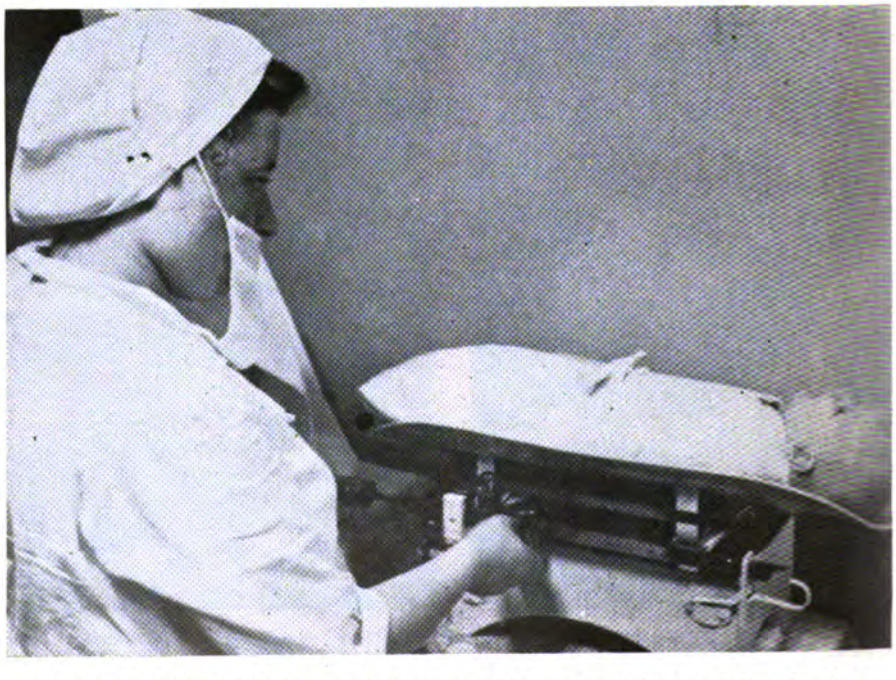
YOUNGER GROUP. In this bright playroom, the small orphans feel at home. Kindly nurses and teachers care for them.

MOTHER AND CHILD. Lydia Ivanovskaya is a 22-year-old seamstress. She and her baby, Tanya, are at the sanatorium.

Mother and Child Sanatorium

SMALL PATIENT. The babies are examined daily by physicians.

INFANTS. The nursery of the sanatorium.



MAKING PROGRESS. The weight gain of the infants is carefully checked.

CORRIDOR. Babies being wheeled to their mothers.

Maternity Hospital

The great emphasis which the Soviet people place on the health and well-being of mothers and children is well demonstrated by the splendid care provided before, during and after childbirth. On this page are scenes of a Leningrad maternity hospital. Similar institutions exist in all parts of the USSR. No patient pays anything; the service is free, as is all Soviet medical care and hospitalization.

On the opposite page are pictures taken at a mother-and-child sanitorium near Leningrad, where mothers and their infants go for rest and treatment after leaving the maternity hospital.

PATIENTS' ROOM. Pleasant and sunny, the rooms are well furnished and comfortable.

BABIES. The nursery of the hospital, where special nurses tend the new-born.

BEHIND THE SCENES. Modern laboratories are a part of the fine hospital equipment.

The Great Critic Belinsky

By Alexander Zeitlin

Professor and Research Worker of the Gorky Institute of World Literature

VISSARION BELINSKY, literary critic, philosopher, sociologist and historian, was one of the most prominent social figures of the first half of the nineteenth century. His evaluations of literature had an interest that extended beyond the narrowly aesthetic: they reflected fully the sense of duty of that progressive section of Russian society which defended the people's interests most whole-heartedly and consistently.

"Russian society has awakened," he wrote, "it thirsts for consciousness, and criticism is in duty bound to help it."

The gifted predecessor and teacher of the Russian revolutionary democrats of the sixties, Belinsky required that criticism should express high truths in simple language. Russian literary criticism, to his mind, was to become "not only the true echo of public opinion," but also the "inspector-general and controller of the whole of Russian life."

Belinsky struggled with untiring energy for this new and fundamentally realistic criticism. He was fighting for a literature which would be the propaganda of the most progressive ideas of his time. His writings define the organic tie between criticism and literature, his own self-sacrificing struggle for art, truthfully reflecting the life of the Russian people and contributing to the fight for their approaching liberation.

In the first place progressive writers should be public-minded; Belinsky required of them that they should have "a powerful sympathy for questions of contemporary realities." The greatest of the Russian critics, he was the unwavering advocate of realism, a realism animated by the progressive social ideal.

One is amazed at Belinsky's learning, the breadth of his culture, the variety of his interests. He studied philosophy all his life, entered the lists single-handed against Schelling, Fichte and Hegel, overcame the limitations of their idealistic teachings. But Belinsky was not only an inspired philosopher, he was also a remarkable historian, a sociologist of fine understanding. His article on Eugene Sue's *Mystères de Paris* contains ideas in tune with Karl Marx's article on the novel. Belinsky was at the same time a first-class publicist of his day; his criticism was in itself publicist criticism, turned on the discussion of social questions and the propaganda of their revolutionary solution.

He was the first of the Russian critics to fight for the historical study of literature: "Nothing is born all of a sudden. Poetry passes through all stages of development like every growing thing." He unfolded the idea of development and went into it deeply in the annual surveys of Russian literature which he wrote during the last seven years of his life, and also in his eleven articles on Pushkin, which may be regarded as a short course in history and literature.

Belinsky possessed, to a degree that no other critic did, the precious "sense of the new." He confronted Russian social consciousness with new questions. A fiery tribune, he wrote not only of literature but also of the meaning of life, morality, love, the purposes of upbringing, the structure of society and so on. These "digressions" were characteristic of his publicist criticism, pervaded by a powerful urge to hasten the growth of the consciousness, the sense of duty, in Russian society.

A master of various methods of deducing proof, he was at the same time the foremost polemicist of his day. "I was born for printed battles, my calling is polemics," he wrote to one of his friends. "I am in the world as a fighter . . ." And he was indeed a true fighter, struggling manfully against all the reactionary and opportunistic manifestations in life. He found an indescribable satisfaction, he says, in tearing the mask from reactionary antagonists.

All that he wrote contained something of the impulse of that eager heart. His articles are full of inspired lyrical digressions, ardent and moving emotion. He was strong, too, in the field of humor, for he had an inimitable touch with a good-natured joke, a crushing irony and sarcasm.

Throughout the fifteen years (1833-1848) of his creative work, Belinsky went deepest of all in his interpretations of the treasures of the world's literature. All progressive youth loved him, for the new, fresh and daring spirit of his work, for his outlook and mind, his noble, ardent heart.

Belinsky's beneficial influence on Russian readers of progressive views was described most fully by Stassov, a prominent figure in Russian art. "Belinsky," he said, "was our real teacher. He clarified our vision, he trained the character . . . he prepared from afar that sound and mighty intellectual movement that was strengthened, and rose a quarter of a century later. . . ."

Belinsky's literary activity prepared a brilliant group of revolutionary-democratic critics of the 1860s,—Chernyshevsky, Dobrolubov, and Saltykov-Shchedrin.

Belinsky's criticism is a phenomenon of world, and not only of Russian, scale. In nineteenth century Russia there was no ground for narrowly aesthetic or psychological criticism, such as that of the prominent French writer Sainte-Beuve. The country looked to the critics for the defense of the people's cause—the self-abnegating struggle against autocracy and serfdom, fiery propaganda of the principles of a natural art, a realistic art. Belinsky established the principles of the traditions of revolutionary and democratic criticism in which, as in progressive literature, the sorrows of the people, and their growing will to struggle, are reflected. He found a brilliant solution for problems before which the critics of the bourgeois West retreated. In the scope of his activity, in the depth of study it reveals, and the importance of his conclusions, Vissarion Belinsky was a critic of world importance, one of the great names in this difficult and honorable art.

A Tailoring Shop

By S. Garin

THERE are a number of tailoring and dressmaking shops in Stachek Street, a busy Leningrad thoroughfare leading from the Narva Gates to the Kirov factory. One of them makes only ladies' clothing, another men's, the third children's, and the fourth, situated next to the plant, makes coats, suits and dresses, and every type of underwear.

This tailoring shop is situated in the two lower floors of a large dwelling house occupied by workers of the Kirov factory. The fitting rooms, desks for the placement and receipt of orders, and the cutting shops, are on the ground floor. The tailors, stock rooms and ready made clothing are on the second floor.

Yekaterina Zhuravskaya, the director of the shop, readily acquainted me with the establishment.

"We are very busy at present," she said. "We have several hundred orders for coats, dresses and suits, and practically every order is of a different style; two items of the same style are rare. The majority of our clients are workers of the Kirov plant who know our tailors. Each tailor has his group of clients."

Having seen the stock rooms of ready-made dresses, suits and coats, I was told that, since the war, orders for ready-made clothing of inexpensive material, such as part wool and cotton cloth, are rare. High-grade worsted stuffs, natural silks and fine woolens are now bought almost exclusively by the clients. This tailoring shop reflects the successes attained by the Leningrad textile industry, which has already surpassed the prewar level of production and also has considerably improved the quality and assortment of goods.

The reception rooms of the tailoring shop were furnished with pretty little tables, soft armchairs and divans. On the tables lay Soviet fashion magazines published in Moscow and Leningrad and also American, French, Austrian and Czech magazines.

"Our clients," said Yekaterina Zhuravskaya in talking about styles, "prefer the Soviet magazines. They consider Soviet styles more practical, and I am inclined to agree with them. The styles created at the Moscow, Leningrad and other fashion houses of the country are not copies of foreign styles; they are made with a view to convenience and beauty. When super-short skirts were the fad abroad, the Leningrad women did not go in for them particularly, nor are they now taking to the other extreme—long skirts. Nothing is more beautiful than a simple frock made of expensive cloth."

I asked about the conditions of work, the organization of labor and the training of tailors. I was told that each tailor has his brigade of qualified garment workers and apprentices. The tailor's style, or his "handwriting," is acquired by each worker in his brigade.

Andrei Filimonov, a men's tailor, began as Nikolai Zhuravlev's apprentice. Within two years he was doing part of the work independently, and within another two years he was made head of a brigade. Elena Kuznetsova was a garment worker for about three years, and now she is known as one of the best tailors in the district.

The cutting and sewing shops have excellent equipment. They are lit by artificial daylight lamps and all the jobs are done by machines. Each machine has an individual electric motor, and the huge irons are heated by electricity. Vacuum sweepers keep the rooms clean of dust, and the ventilation system supplies a constant current of fresh air.

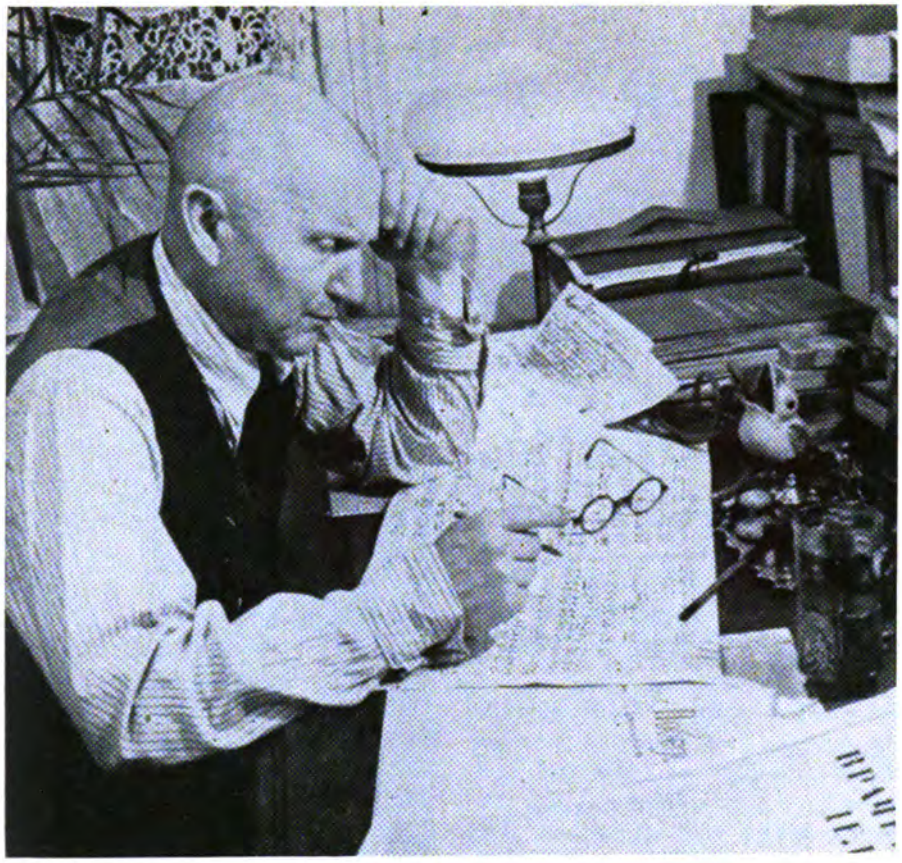
The pay rates are graded according to complexity of style, the quality of work and the type of material. There are special rates for every type of job, and these have been approved by the administration and the garment workers' trade union. If a conflict arises between a worker and the administration it is settled by a special conflict commission formed of representatives of the administration and the trade union on a parity basis.

NEW DRESS. The final fitting.

The monthly earnings of a tailor (working an eight-hour day) range from 2,500 to 4,000 rubles.

Recreation for the garment workers of Kirov District in Leningrad is provided at their special club. Here there are plays, concerts or movies every evening. The club has a large library and a technical room where new styles are on display. Lectures are arranged on subjects connected with production. Besides, there are schools in the various districts of Leningrad where tailors may improve their skill under the guidance of experts.

More than thirty new tailoring shops have been opened in Leningrad since last December, when rationing of food and industrial commodities ended and retail prices were reduced. On the billboards, in streetcars and trolleybuses, countless want ads may be seen calling for skilled tailors and garment workers and announcing enrollment of apprentices at special tailoring schools where they are provided dormitory accommodations and stipends. This is proof of the growing demand for the services of tailoring shops in Leningrad.



THE DOCTOR. Dr. Tsynkalovsky, the day's work done, studies a music score at his desk.

A Soviet

Dr. Boris Tsynkalovsky has lived and worked for 30 years in the city of Krasnodar in the North Caucasus. The favorite doctor of many of the city's citizens, he has treated almost every resident of the city at some time. He also lectures on internal diseases at the Krasnodar Medical Institute.

With his wife, Eugenia, and their three sons, he occupies a pleasant house on a shady street of the city. The fruit trees which grow on the grounds, and the garden in the yard, provide the

★ ★ ★

SON. Dr. Igor Tsynkalovsky, at the city hospital.

WIFE. Eugenia Tsynkalovskaya in the garden before the family home. She enjoys gardening, grows vegetables and fruit.

Physician

family with a splendid outdoor hobby.

But their great interest is music. They are a medical family, for one of the sons is also a physician, and the other two are medical students, but they are a musical family too. Dr. Tsynkalovsky composes and plays the flute. The family has formed the "Tsynkalovsky Quintette", and perform at amateur musical gatherings.

"We lack a violinist and singers," Dr. Tsynkalovsky says. "Our orchestra will grow when my sons marry."

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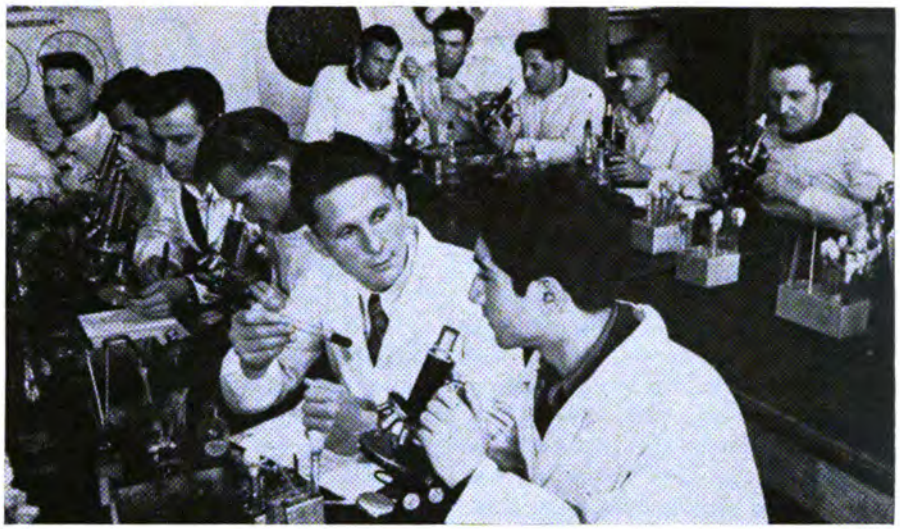

OLEG. The second son of the Tsynkalovskys (second from right) is also studying medicine.

CONFERENCE. Dr. Tsynkalovsky reporting at a conference of physicians.

YOUNGEST. Rostislav Tsynkalovsky, a medical student.

"QUINTETTE." The family rehearses a new composition of the doctor's to play before friends.

In Soviet Cinemas

By S. Zabolotsky

THE film has just ended and the lights have been switched on, yet not a single person in the audience has stirred from his seat. In this momentary interval the actors who performed in the film seemed to have managed to remove their makeup, don street clothes and literally step out of the silver screen. For there they are, standing and smiling before the audience. Beside them are the scenarist and the group of cameramen who worked on the film.

Briefly and graphically the scenarist and producer describe their work on the making of the film, and the actors relate how they studied the historical material connected with the subject, how earnestly and wholeheartedly they threw themselves into the characters they had to portray.

People in the audience then take the floor. They express their liking of the fine film and, at the same time, point out certain shortcomings.

These get-togethers of performers, script-writers and audiences are one of the forms of mass cultural-educational work conducted by Soviet cinema theaters. To illustrate the various aspects of this type of work I shall cite the three cinema halls in the Metropole Hotel building on Sverdlov Square in the center of Moscow.

Once I went to one of these cinema halls to see the colored documentary on the physical culture parade held on the Red Square in Moscow. As I ascended the marble staircase I heard music and singing coming from the concert stage in the foyer. The whole program treated of Soviet sports and served as a prelude to the film, thereby stressing the great attention that is paid to physical culture in the USSR.

During the concluding number of the concert the audience broke into stormy applause at the appearance of men famous in heavy athletics, headed by the world weight-lifting champion, Grigori Novak. After telling the audience something about the successes of Soviet sports and about his participation in international contests Grigori Novak and Yakov Kutsenko demonstrated their phenomenal strength.

Numerous other exhibitions in the cinema halls familiarized the public with the tasks of the postwar Five-Year Plan, described how selflessly the Soviet people are working, showed in photos and documents the accelerated construction of new enterprises, institutions of learning, libraries, theaters, clubs, polyclinics, sanatoriums, kindergartens and creches.

Each new film entails specific work in bringing it closer to the audiences. When the film *Admiral Nakhimov* was shown at the Metropole Theater, the audiences had the pleasure of meeting the screen players as well as Soviet sailors who are Heroes of the Soviet Union. The latter spoke about the fighting glory of the Russian fleet from the time of its inception to the present, and about the prowess displayed by Soviet sailors in the Second World War. With the assistance of the Museum of History and the Red Navy Administration the foyer was provided with exhibits on the life and work of Nakhimov, the great Russian Admiral, and the history of the defense of Sevastopol in 1854-1855.

During the 800th anniversary of the city of Moscow, the Metropole showed a new film, *Moscow, the Capital of the USSR*. The four exhibitions showed the changes in the architecture of the city from the time of Tsar Ivan the Terrible down to our day, also the wearing apparel of Muscovites in different centuries; some of the displays spoke of the role that Moscow played in the revolutionary movement of Russia, as well as of the achievements of socialist construction in the Soviet capital. During the period of the anniversary, 123 get-togethers were arranged for the audiences with deputies to the Moscow Soviet, with Moscow heroes who distinguished themselves in battles against the German-fascist occupationists, with old Bolsheviks who took part in the 1905 Revolution in Moscow, with exemplary Moscow workers, engineers, scientists, workers in the arts, writers and others.

It is customary to preface popular science films with lectures and talks by noted scientists. For instance, when the picture *The Trail of Wild Beasts* was shown, Prof. Manteifel, Stalin Laureate, talked on wild life.

Soviet cinema theaters are always filled to capacity. A common sight at the box offices is the sign "All tickets sold out." The management of the Metropole holds in reserve the best seats in the three cinema halls for war invalids.

AUDIENCE. The actors are coming on-stage for the audience's comments.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions made a checkup on the participation of the trade unions in furthering the mass movement among rationalizers and inventors in the machine building, automobile, textile and other industries. The checkup showed that during the past six months the number of proposals received from workers in the general and heavy machine building industries, in shipbuilding and in the apparatus building industry has doubled. A special two-months' campaign in the textile mills brought in 1,400 proposals which are expected to yield an annual saving running into millions of rubles. A still greater amount of money will be saved when the numerous rationalization proposals submitted in a similar campaign in the factories of the chemical industry are put into practice. More than seven thousand persons took part in the contest for the best invention held by the Ministry of the Machine and Instrument-Making Industry. The Ministry has effected a substantial saving as a result of the use of these proposals and inventions. The rationalizers and inventors have been awarded prizes.

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Nearly 54 thousand peasant houses, 20 thousand farm buildings and 5,300 cultural and other institutions have been rehabilitated in the vil'ages of Kharkov Region in the Ukraine which were devastated by the German invaders during the war. An additional four thousand houses and 950 farm and other premises and 240 factories for the production of building materials are being built.

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Construction work has started on the first section of the largest irrigation project in the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic—the canal in the southern part of the Hungry Steppe—which by next spring will be irrigating 50 thousand acres of arid land. Builders were able to start this work only after completion of the construction of the water pressure reservoir of the Farkhad hydroelectric station, which will shortly supply industrial current.

A new magazine, "Problems of Economics," is being published in Moscow by the Economics Institute of the USSR Academy of Sciences. Its editor-in-chief is Corresponding Member of the Academy Konstantin Ostrovityanov, and the members of the editorial board are Academician Eugene Varga, Kozlov, Gladkov and other prominent Soviet economists.

The magazine is a theoretical organ devoted to problems of Soviet and foreign economics.

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The Third State Loan for the rehabilitation and development of the country's national economy issued recently in the Soviet Union was successfully subscribed in a very short space of time. In the course of five days subscriptions totalled 22,592,233,000 rubles, exceeding by a big margin the original sum of issue (20,000,000,000 rubles). The Soviet people, active participants in the sweeping upbuilding of their State, are well aware of the effective application of the loan funds and that is why they readily purchase government bonds. The Ministry of Finance of the USSR has now closed the bond sale.

The Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences is organizing experimental artificial rain stations in the Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, and in the Moscow, Stalingrad and Grozny regions of the Russian SFSR. The stations will study new methods of watering industrial and grain crops, potatoes and other vegetables by artificial rain under various climatic conditions. Artificial rain machines of new designs will be tested on the fields of the station. The results of the tests will be a factor in determining how widely this method will be used.

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Looking through the archives of the local postoffice in Buturlino village, Gorky Region (formerly the Nizhny-Novgorod province) a newspaper correspondent found an entry showing that in 1916 there were seven newspaper subscribers in that community. These were the local priest, the chief of po'ice, the chief of the rural administration and four merchants. Today the inhabitants of Buturlino village receive 3,535 copies of newspapers as well as seven hundred copies of political, literary and technical periodicals.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

June 14—July 4

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from June 14 to July 4 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88, and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Tuesdays, June 14, 22, 28, 29—Economic affairs.

Tuesday, June 15—Program for farmers.

Wednesdays and Fridays, June 16, 18, 23, 25, 30, July 2—Scientific and cultural programs.

Thursday, June 17—Special program on Soviet democracy.

Thursdays, June 24, July 1—Programs for children.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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USSR

Information Bulletin

JUNE 30, 1948

SCHOOL'S OUT! Moscow schoolgirls leave their school as the summer holidays begin. FRONT COVER. Antonina Titova and her daughter Ludmila, picnic at Joy Bay near Moscow. BACK COVER. Honored Artist of the RSFSR N. Gladilshchikov training animals at the Krasnodar Zoo.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

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Stalin Prizes for Technical Gains

The Soviet press recently published the decision of the Government on the award of Stalin Prizes for outstanding inventions and radical improvements of methods of production effected during 1947. In an interview with a Soviet Information Bureau Correspondent, Academician Alexander Nesmeyanov, chairman of the Committee on Stalin Prizes in the field of Science and Invention, said:

THE importance attached by the Soviet Government to the development of science and technology in the USSR is well known. During the first days after the establishment of Soviet rule, V. I. Lenin, the founder of the Soviet State, confronted the people with the task of re-equipping the old, Russian technology. The fulfillment of the great Stalin Five-Year Plans made it possible completely to re-equip Soviet industry which grew tremendously and reached a high stage of technical progress. In particular, new, extremely productive branches of industry were organized, such as the automobile, aviation, tractor and other industries, which were formerly non-existent in Russia. All this created a huge economic and industrial potential. It is quite clear that such work could not have been carried out without intense constructive work in the sphere of technology, without invention on a broad scale, without comprehensive rationalization of industrial processes.

In 1939, in honor of the sixtieth birthday of the leader of the Soviet Government, Joseph Stalin, Stalin Prizes were inaugurated for outstanding works in the spheres of science, invention, literature and art. These prizes are considered the highest reward which can be merited in the Soviet Union by scientists, men of arts and letters, inventors, and also rationalizers of industry.

This year, Stalin prizes have been awarded for the seventh time. According to the rules, Stalin Prizes in the field of invention and rationalization carry the following cash awards: first class—150 thousand rubles; second class—100 thousand rubles; and third class—50 thousand rubles. It should be mentioned that the award of Stalin Prizes is a mark of special distinction and does not in any way limit the author's right to the remuneration due him for an invention, according to the law (e.g., the receipt of a certain percentage of economy effected).

Among the technical achievements which merited this high reward this year there are many of which Soviet technical scientists may well be proud. An outstanding technical achievement was the construction of the gas pipeline from Saratov to Moscow. Since its completion (two years ago) the pipeline has supplied Moscow with more than 600,000,000 cubic meters* of gas and has not known a single breakdown. Thanks to the new pipeline, additional tens of thousands of Moscow apartments now use gas at an extremely low cost. Recent rationalization measures have made it possible to exceed the planned capacity of the pipeline. For the construction of this pipeline the Stalin Prize has been awarded to the heads of the construction work, V. Pachkin, Y. Bokserman, A. Platonov, P. Borisov, and many other engineers and designers.

Stalin Prizes have been awarded to a large group of engineers and designers who have worked on the restoration of the Donets Coal Basin, which provides fuel for a huge number of industrial enterprises and railway lines in the USSR. The German fascist invaders barbarously wrecked the Donbas coal mines. Practically all the equipment was destroyed, the pits were flooded, the dwellings burned down. The Soviet Government appointed Nikolai Ignatov, engineer of the Ministry of the Coal Industry of the Western Districts of the USSR, to head the restoration work. Engineers A. Kartozia, M. Zherbin, B. Alexandrov and others organized the reclamation of the mines and the restoration of the pit equipment. This was a very serious task as work had to proceed under extremely difficult conditions. There was no time to wait for the manufacture of special equipment; this would have delayed the restoration of the area.

Soviet engineers displayed much initiative in organizing the drainage of the pits, from which several hundred million cubic meters of water had to be pumped out. Plans for the pumping work were quickly drafted; methods were worked out by which ordinary water-drainage equipment could be used; and special fixtures were devised to accelerate this work. These new devices made it possible to use ordinary centrifugal pumps to pump the water from the mines. By the end of 1947 dozens of large pits had already been drained. During four years of restoration work in the Donets Basin, more than five times as much water was pumped out than was the case in the devastated mines of France during seven years after the First World War.

A great deal of work was carried out by the engineers engaged in the restoration of the pit machinery. After a comprehensive inventory and examination of this equipment, enormously damaged by the Germans, the remaining units and parts were used for the assembly of whole machines. As a result of the energetic, tireless work of the restorers, many pits not only recommenced work but had already reached the prewar level of coal output in 1947.

Mention must be made of the work on the creation of a powerful steam turbine and the turbo-generator for it. A unique high-pressure turbine with a capacity of 100,000 kw. at 3,000 r.p.m. was designed and manufactured under the supervision of Professor M. Grinberg at a Leningrad metal-working plant. This turbine excels the best existing models in economy of operation and constructive advantages. The generator for this turbine was also manufactured in Leningrad, in the Electrosila Plant, under the guidance of designer D. Yefremov. The interesting feature of this generator is that

* One cubic meter = 35.314 cubic feet.

hydrogen is used to replace the ordinary water-cooling system, which considerably increases its efficiency. Turbogenerators with hydrogen-cooling were until now unknown in Europe.

The work on the construction of large direct-current electric motors was carried out in the same Electrosila Plant in Leningrad, under the guidance of Professor V. Kasyanov. These engines include electric motors with capacities ranging from 7,000 to 30,000 hp. The difficulty in constructing such direct-current machines lies in that they must be provided with comprehensive regulation of the speed of rotation, must have a great overload capacity, and be designed for frequent back action. These motors have been installed in Soviet metallurgical plants where they serve large rolling mills.

Engineers I. Yasnogorodsky and V. Kharitonov have merited the Stalin Prize for the elaboration of a new, extremely efficient method of heating metals and alloys in electrolyte, and for the construction of automatic units for this type of heating in the operations of heat treatment, forging and punching. This method has been introduced in many leading enterprises in the USSR.

One of the most difficult lumbering operations is the haulage of timber from the site of felling to the railway line. Z. Kotin, L. Sychev, N. Kurin and other designers of the Kirov Plant in Leningrad have designed a special tractor for this purpose, which considerably increases labor productivity in this field. These talented engineers won the Stalin Prize for this work.

A group of engineers working under the guidance of Professor A. Gorev were awarded the Stalin Prize for the elaboration of a method, and the design of a unit for making breaking-capacity tests of high-tension apparatus; the method and unit are based on the utilization of the slowly damped oscillatory discharge of a high-tension condenser battery.

A group of civil engineers, working under the supervision of Hero of Socialist Labor I. Barenboim, worked out and carried into practice an improved method of hydromechanization during caisson operations. The application of this new method during the restoration of the Darnitsky railway bridge across the Dnieper considerably eased the difficult and laborious caisson operations, and made it possible to cement 16,500 cubic meters of soil with little labor and to save some two million rubles.

Many interesting inventions were made by other Soviet specialists engaged in the perfection of technology. In this interview, of course, we cannot mention all the works which merited Stalin Prizes.

However, mention should be made of the flax-harvesting combine designed by engineers M. Shlykov, A. Mayat and A. Moiseyev. This combine performs the three operations of scutching, combing and binding the flax into sheaves. The machine is operated by three workers, and has fully justified itself in agricultural practice. It releases a large number of collective farmers from heavy physical labor and, moreover, economizes seeds.

The Stalin Prize Laureates include a fairly large group of workers in the sphere of agriculture. Stalin Prizes were awarded to A. Vasilyev, scientific worker; V. Vatagin, agricultural inspector; D. Nekrasov, zootechnician; and N. Yezhov, senior herdsman on a collective farm, for the propagation of a new breed of meat-and-wool-yielding sheep, named the "Kuibyshev sheep" by the Ministry of agriculture of the USSR. The breed is of great importance for the USSR, where the question of improving sheep-breeding in the central and northern districts arose many years ago. The attempts to breed the English meat-yielding sheep were unsuccessful, as the animals failed to become acclimatized. The wool of the new breed is of high quality and has been approved for use in the textile industry. The breed is now being propagated in Kuibyshev Region and the adjacent regions.

A Stalin Prize, first class, was awarded to Professor Sergei Yudin, eminent Soviet surgeon, famous not only in the USSR but also abroad for his method of performing an extremely complicated operation for the formation of an artificial esophagus. Professor Yudin has devoted almost a quarter of a century to the perfection of his method and has proved its efficiency by hundreds of successful operations. It is generally recognized that Sergei Yudin's work in the sphere of surgery of the esophagus is of exceptional importance for the development of medical science.

Soviet Students' Holidays

By Grigori Levy

WITH summer holidays beginning, Moscow University has made preparations to give its students a proper rest.

The University's sanatorium at Gelenjik on the shores of the Black Sea, and its rest home at Krasnovidovo near Moscow, can accommodate more than two thousand persons during the summer season. Besides this, the trade union committee (for students) of the University is making arrangements for those needing special medical attention to go to the sanatoriums and resorts of the Crimea and the Caucasus or in other parts of the Soviet Union. Preference is given to war invalids. They receive accommodations free of charge. All other students pay from 30 per cent to 70 per cent of the cost of the accommodations.

But among the students there are some who object in principle to the sanatorium type of holiday. These students, numbering about three hundred, love to hike with knapsacks on their backs. Some fifty-odd students form a permanent group of mountain climbers.

Students who conduct independent research also made interesting excursions and expeditions. During their summer holidays they combine the scientific tasks set them by the Students' Scientific Society with rest.

Those students who for some reason do not wish to leave the city have free access to sports fields, stadiums and swimming pools.

University students who have children may send them to country homes and sanatoriums near Moscow.

World Importance of Soviet Science

By Sergei Vavilov
President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

MANIFESTATIONS of the highest, really progressive creative genius of a people in all spheres of culture frequently exceed national and geographical boundaries. The best achievements of one nation, one country, become the acquisition of other peoples. We all know of many achievements of one nation which have become the inheritance of world culture. Let us recall the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey, The Tale of Igor's Regiment,* Euclid's geometry, Lobachevsky's geometry, Newton's physics, Mendeleyev's periodic law, the works of Shakespeare and Tolstoy, the music of Rossini and Tchaikovsky. All of these no longer belong to any one nation but to the whole world.

Such heights of national creative genius, exceeding national boundaries, create the strongest cultural ties between the nations and become powerful instruments of progress.

The quality, the essential value of an important discovery alone are not yet sufficient to ensure its becoming a part of world science. For a scientific achievement of one nation to become of world significance, much depends upon the social and technical conditions of the given country and epoch. Where the development of science is hindered by class or religious persecution, as in the case of Galileo or Giordano Bruno, even the most remarkable scientific discovery will sometimes not find recognition, even in the native country.

In the Middle Ages, during the epoch of the tenth to the twelfth centuries, science in Russia, in Georgia, Armenia, Uzbekistan and in the countries of certain other nationalities now inhabiting the Soviet Union, had reached approximately the same level as in the countries of Central and Western Europe. This is proved by archaeological data regarding the level of technique, particularly in the building art, in that epoch, and also by extant literary monuments. The normal development of science in Russia was checked for a long time by the Tatar-Mongol invasions, combined with the growing influence of Byzantine religious stagnation and conservatism. The monasteries and the church monopolized the schools and science. As late as the very end of the eighteenth century, the Patriarch of Byzantium reproached the Lakhudov brothers, who had founded a kind of university in Moscow under the name of the "Slav-Greek-Latin Academy," with the fact that in this academy they "dabbled in physics and philosophy" instead of studying theology.

Academician Sergei Vavilov

For many centuries the growth of science in Russia was artificially hindered and delayed. As a result of this oppression, the abilities and the remarkable talents of the people found, for centuries, no organized outlet. A decisive change took place only under Peter I, when science was finally separated from the patronage of the church, secular schools were organized, and in 1724 the Petersburg Academy of Sciences was formed, which became the cradle of the great Russian science.

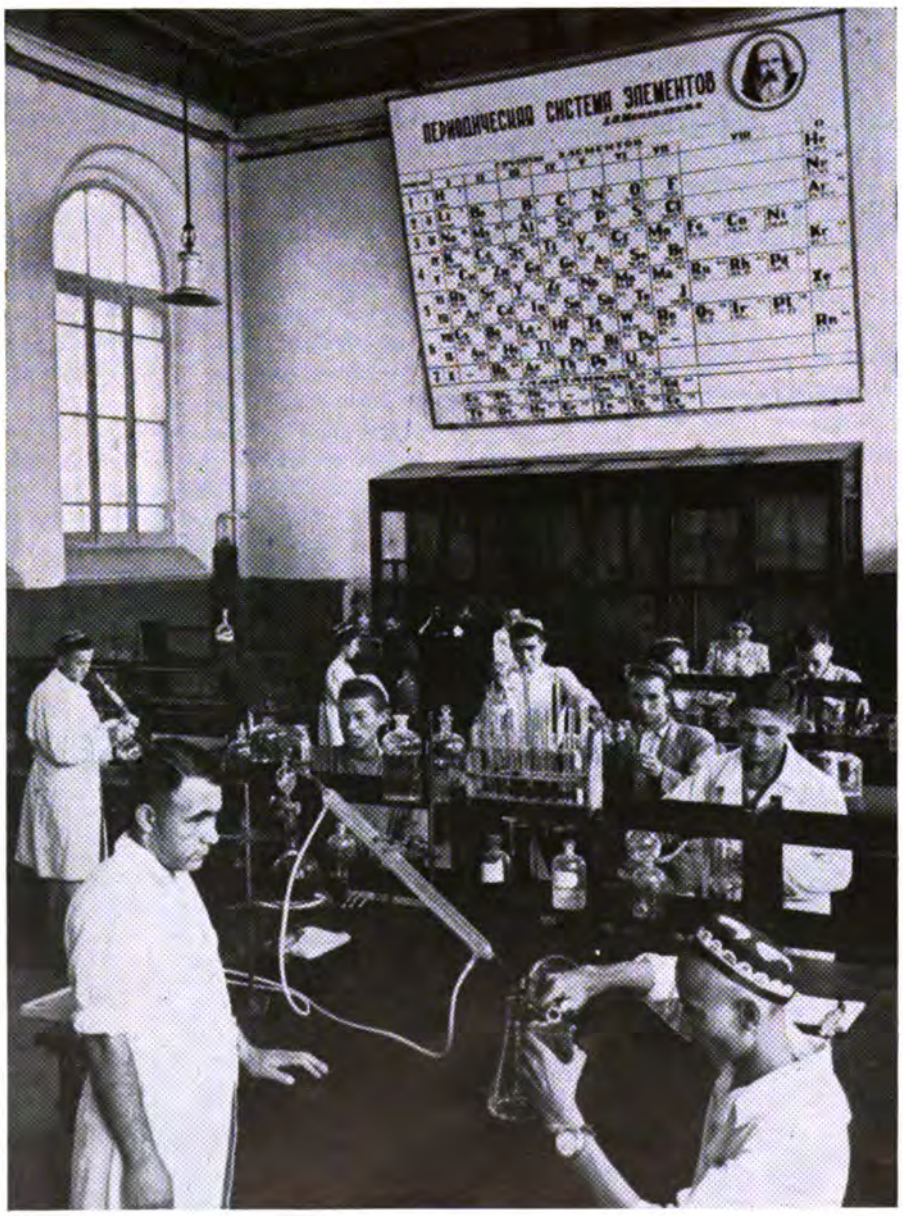
In no country in the world did science know such sudden, rapid progress as in Russia at the beginning of the eighteenth century. This progress is connected, primarily, with the name of Lomonosov.

During the course of two centuries much has been spoken and written about Mikhail Lomonosov. But the more profoundly we study the scientific legacy of this great Russian

ACADEMY IN SESSION. Leading scientists meet in Moscow.

scholar, the more we learn about the amazing depth and range of Lomonosov's discoveries in the spheres of physics, chemistry, astronomy, geography, geology, instrument-making, glass-blowing, mosaic art, and so forth. Through the work of Lomonosov, Russian science became a new source of discoveries of world-wide significance. The law of persistence of weight during chemical transformations, the atom theory of thermic phenomena, the presence of atmosphere on the planet Venus, the theory of the origin of the icebergs in the Arctic—these are only a few examples of Lomonosov's contributions to world science. In a number of cases, the merit of his discoveries was officially recognized by foreign scientists. In recognition of his services he was elected a member of the Swedish and the Bologna Academies. In our time, Lomonosov's role as a scientist of world-wide importance is apparent to all competent and objective historians of the science of any country.

The prominent role of the young Petersburg Academy in world science was manifested in the eighteenth century not alone in the works of Lomonosov. World-wide comment was aroused, for instance, by the geographical, botanical and ethnographical discoveries of one of Lomonosov's contemporaries, S. Krasheninnikov, a soldier's son and pupil of the Moscow Slav-Greek-Latin Academy. Krasheninnikov's major work, *A Description of the Land of Kamchatka,* in four parts, published in 1756, was soon translated into French, German, English and Dutch, which alone is sufficient evidence of the world-wide significance of this achievement of Russian geographic science.



CENTRAL ASIAN UNIVERSITY. In this chemistry laboratory in Tashkent, as in every one in the world, hangs a chart of Mendeleyev's table.

Along with the open recognition of the results of the works of Russian scholars, Western European scientists sometimes made use of these results on the quiet or simply attributed these to themselves. This was the case, for instance, with the discovery of the voltaic arc between carbon electrodes. In foreign literature this discovery is ascribed to the famous chemist, Davy, who allegedly was the first to find this arc in 1810. As a matter of fact, the arc was described in great detail by the Petersburg Academician, V. Petrov, in his book published in Russian in 1803. One year later, the Petersburg Academy, announcing a theme for an international prize, again described the voltaic arc, discovered in Petersburg, in detail in a prospectus in the French and German languages, which was sent to scientific institutions throughout the world. Thus, there can be no doubt that V. Petrov's discovery was made use of in Western Europe.

Despite the difficult conditions under which science had to labor in tsarist Russia in the nineteenth century, its influence on all branches of foreign science increased greatly during this century. So many scientific discoveries, indisputably of world significance, were made in Russia during the nineteenth century that we must limit ourselves to the enumeration of a few examples. In the field of mathematics alone, four Russian scholars made glorious contributions to world science during this period, exercising an enormous influence upon its fundamental principles. Their names are N. Lobachevsky, M. Ostrogradsky, P. Chebyshev and S. Kovalevskaya.

Lobachevsky introduced a real revolution in geometry, showing the specific nature of Euclidian geometry and building up the first version of non-Euclidian, so-called speculative geometry. Lobachevsky's conclusion was of great importance both for mathematics and for the philosophical teachings

THE PAST GREAT ARE REVERED. Soviet scientists pay tribute to the past. Wreaths are laid on Ivan Pavlov's tomb (left). A memorial session in honor of Academician N. E. Zhukovsky, father of Russian aviation.

on space, as well as for modern physics. Lobachevsky's geometry enabled physics to encroach upon the teachings of Euclid in the sphere of the physical conceptions of space and time, connected with the theory of relativity. In the annals of world science the name of Lobachevsky ranks side-by-side with Copernicus and Einstein. In speaking of this great Russian scientist, who was born in Nizhny Novgorod and lived all his life in Kazan, we must recall that Lobachevsky, like Lomonosov, Krasheninnikov and Petrov, came from the people, from the stagnant Russian provinces of those times. Only a few of the leading intellects of the world, such men as the great Gauss, understood the immense significance of Lobachevsky's thought. The influence of Lobachevsky's geometry only later made itself felt with full force throughout the world. Academician Ostrogradsky, one of Lobachevsky's contemporaries, won world fame by his researches into mathematical physics, mechanics and astronomy. Independent of the British mathematician, Hamilton, Ostrogradsky established one of the most important principles of mechanics and physics, the so-called "least-effect principle." Ostrogradsky's influence on world science may be judged from the fact that in recognition of his services he was elected member of the Academies of Science of Paris, Rome, Turin and Washington.

Particularly noteworthy in its variety and scope is the contribution made to world mathematics and mechanics by the Russian Academician, P. Chebyshev. He left an extremely valuable legacy to science in the sphere of mathematical analysis, the theory of numbers, the theory of probability and the theory of mechanisms. The active vivifying influence of this legacy is felt throughout the world still today.

The name of Kovalevskaya, the first woman to win fame in science as a representative of the exact sciences, is connected in particular with her theory of the revolution of a solid, which won no less recognition abroad than at home.

Among Russian scientists' achievements in the nineteenth century in the sphere of physics, which exercised a great influence on the development of world science, mention should be made in the first place of E. Lenz's classic researches into electromagnetism. Lenz's law is known to every schoolboy throughout the world. Side-by-side with Oersted, Faraday and Ampere, Lenz has gone down in the history of science as one of the founders of the teachings on electromagnetism and the theoretical principles of electro-technology.

In the origination and further elaboration of the teachings on the electric effects of light, an important role belongs to A. Stoletov who, in Moscow, established many of the basic laws and features of photo-electrical processes.

In the middle of the nineteenth century a leading place in world astronomy was taken by the works of Pulkovo astronomers. The observatory on Pulkovo Hill near Petersburg was for some time the "astronomic capital of the world," as it were. Among the famous Pulkovo astronomers we should mention Academician F. Bredikhin, director of the observatory at the end of the nineteenth century, who won renown by his researches into the theory of the tails of comets and meteorite streams.

A particularly profound and fundamental contribution to the development of world chemistry was made by Russian scientists in the nineteenth century. The most outstanding discovery ever made in the history of chemistry belongs to D. Mendeleyev—the discovery of the periodic law of the chemical elements. Like Newton's laws of physics and mechanics, Mendeleyev's law predetermined the further development of chemical science for a long period, and opened to physics the paths towards the creation of the theory of the structure of atoms.

In 1842, the Kazan professor of chemistry, N. Zinin, announced his discovery of a new chemical substance, aniline. This discovery marked the beginning of a new era in organic chemistry and in chemical technology.

Another famous Kazan chemist, Academician A. Butlerov, greatly enriched the theory of the structure of organic compounds which, in particu-

lar, was brilliantly confirmed by the isomerism of hydrocarbon compounds, discovered by Butlerov. Butlerov's textbook on organic chemistry, compiled on the basis of his theory, was used not only in Russia but abroad during the nineteenth century.

Russian science made an important and comprehensive contribution to world technology in the nineteenth century. In Russia, Academician V. Yakobi invented and thoroughly elaborated galvanoplastics. The name of this great scholar, physicist and engineer is connected with the realization of the electric telegraph, the construction of the first motor-boats, the development of the science of electric mines. Russian scientists, physicists and engineers may well be called the originators of electric lighting. The Russian engineer, P. Yablochkov was the author of the famous candle which drew the attention of the whole world in the seventies of the past century. Another Russian engineer, A. Lodygin, was the inventor of the first incandescent lamp with a carbon rod that grew red-hot in a vacuum. Lodygin's invention was repeated, used and perfected by Edison.

The discovery of the radio was also first made in Russia. It belongs to Professor A. Popov (1896).

In the nineteenth century, Russian

Academician I. Vinogradov

biology also gained a firm place in world science. K. Timiryazev's brilliant experiments, which threw light on many of the most important features of the process of the assimilation of carbon dioxide from the air by green leaves under the influence of light, laid the foundations of one of the most important chapters in the physiology of plants, relating to photosynthesis.

The Russian school of physiology, represented by such great figures as I. Sechenov and I. Pavlov, laid new paths for the study of higher nervous activity, paths which were later followed by physiologists the world over.

An indisputably great influence was exercised on world science by Russian bacteriology, represented by the works of S. Vinogradsky on bacteria assimilating nitrogen, the discovery of filtering viruses by D. Ivanovsky, the varied works of I. Mechnikov.

All the world heard of the geographical discoveries of Przhevalski, Miklukho-Maklai, Semenov Tianshansky.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, Russian science had become an extremely important factor in world science. Despite the clear disinclination of many foreign scientists to reckon with this evident fact, despite the numerous attempts to deprive even Lobachevsky, Mendeleyev and Popov of the priority of their great discoveries, despite the systematic overlooking of Russian scientists in the awarding of international prizes, Russian science nevertheless exercised an ever growing and more important influence on the progress of natural science and technology the world over.

The first years of the new century, before the Great October Revolution, were also marked by numerous scientific achievements of world importance. The experiments of the Russian physicist, P. Lebedev, remarkable in their intricacy, difficulty and importance, first demonstrated and made it possible to measure the pressure of light on solids and gases. These experiments helped much toward an understanding of the nature of light and provided a key to an understanding of the basic problems of astronomy. Academician V. Golitsyn founded a new science—seismometry—for the study of earthquake phenomena, elaborated the instruments and methods for this, as well as the principles of the theory of seismometry, which were rapidly disseminated and accepted throughout the world. Academician A. Krylov founded the theory of shipbuilding now accepted all over the world. Russian descriptive and theoretical geology made great progress in the works of A. Karpinsky, F. Chernyshev, V. Vernadsky, and others. Professor M. Tsvet discovered a new, important method of analyzing and dividing complex organic compounds, known as chromatography. In importance this method

UKRAINIAN SCIENTISTS. In the non-Russian republics, science also flourishes. A. Palladin (left), President of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences; Corresponding Member Y. Roll, and N. Dyachkov.

can well be compared with spectral analysis.

However, pre-Revolutionary Russia, which had only just abolished serf law, under the arbitrary rule and oppressive yoke of the tsarist Government failed to provide many things that were essential for the complete development of science. These opportunities were only provided by the Soviet power, the Communist Party and the people who defeated the old system in October 1917. In the years of Soviet rule, science has progressed on an unprecedented scale in our country; the number of persons engaged in scientific research has increased fifty-fold as compared with pre-Revolutionary times, and now totals nearly 100 thousand persons. The Soviet Union now has more than one thousand research institutes specializing in different branches of learning and technology. The funds assigned for research work form an ever larger part of the State Budget from year to year. The country now has specialists in branches of knowledge which before the Revolution were not represented at all in Russia.

This new, popular Soviet science, fostered by the Soviet system, in its turn has been an important factor in the consolidation of this system. It has contributed to the accomplishment of the Stalin Five-Year Plans and the unforgettable victory of the Soviet Army over fascism.

The role of this science on a world scale has grown immeasurably. Soviet scientific periodicals, treating of different branches of knowledge, contain colossal scientific data which has become the acquisition not only of our country but of the whole world. This vast material includes achievements of tremendous importance. In many branches of the theory of numbers, the theory of probability, and topology, Soviet mathematics now undoubtedly holds one of the first places in the world. Mathematicians of all countries now hearken to the voice of Soviet mathematicians, to the works of such eminent scientists as Academicians I. Vinogradov, S. Bernstein, A. Kolmogorov, P. Alexandrov, N. Krylov and others. Soviet physics, in all its branches, has contributed important new facts and theoretical generalizations of primary importance to the store of world knowledge. The remarkable

ACADEMY BUILDING. Here, in the building of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in Moscow, the country's leading scientists meet.

phenomenon of combined scattering of light was discovered in the USSR by Academicians L. Mandelstam and G. Landsberg simultaneously with the Indian physicist, Raman. This discovery paved new paths for the study of the internal structure of molecules and their analysis. Academician P. Kapitsa has discovered the remarkable property of liquid helium of existing in a condition of so-called "super-fluidity". The Soviet physicists, A. Fridman and V. Fok, have arrived at important theoretical conclusions connected with the general theory of relativity. Soviet science has contributed a fundamental share in the sphere of so-called nonlinear oscillations, which are of tremendous importance for present-day radio-technique and mechanics. The development of this branch of science is connected with the names of Academicians L. Mandelstam, N. Papaleksi, A. Andronov, N. Krylov and N. Bogolyubov.

A profound influence on science the world over was exercised by the researches of Academician N. Semenov into so-called chain chemical reactions and general questions of kinetic reactions. Great importance attaches to the works of Academician A. Terenin on chemical reactions occurring under the action of light, and to the numerous works of Academicians A. Frumkin and P. Rehbinder on surface phenomena.

Outstandingly daring and original was the exploration of the North Pole undertaken by a group of Soviet geophysicists, headed by Academician O. Schmidt, as well as the ever memorable expedition under Papanin on the drifting ice-floe.

I have cited only a few examples from the history of our science since the establishment of Soviet power; they could be multiplied practically without end. Our Soviet science has become outstanding both in quality and in scope. This was determined in the first place by the tasks with which the Soviet Government confronted science. As we have learned, Russian science had already contributed its share to world science in the eighteenth century, but the successes of our people, progressing toward communism, confront Soviet scientists with new, great tasks. The Soviet people are not satisfied that Soviet science should only form a part of world science. They demand that this science should gradually, but persistently, develop into the leading science in the world.

Soviet Secondary Schools

By Falna Shestakova
Consulting Methodologist of the School Administration of the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR

THE general educational school in the Soviet Union provides tuition and training for all children irrespective of their place of residence, nationality, religion, sex, or the occupation of their parents.

The basic tasks of education are to provide the pupils with the knowledge and to train them in the habits necessary for all branches of labor and community activities. The aim of the school is to inculcate in young people a sense of public duty, to develop disciplined, staunch character with a strong will, truthful, honest, industrious and devoted to their people and their socialist Motherland.

These tasks of training and teaching are accomplished in the USSR by the whole system of popular education in which the secondary school is one of the principal links.

There are three types of general educational schools in the USSR: the elementary school, with a four-year course of teaching, the junior secondary school with a seven-year course, and the secondary ten-year school where the first four grades are the same as in the elementary school, and the first seven duplicate those of the junior secondary school.

All the three types of schools work according to unified teaching plans and programs. Such a system ensures continuity in all links of the chain of general educational schools. On finishing an elementary school a pupil has the opportunity of entering without examinations the fifth grade of any junior secondary or secondary school. There are no obstacles to passing from one school to the corresponding grade of another. Education in schools up to the seventh grade inclusive is free of charge.

During the 30 years since the advent of Soviet power, the network of secondary schools has spread widely throughout the territory of the USSR. In the Russian Federation there were last year 6,213 secondary schools of which 3,229 were situated in rural areas. The number of pupils in these secondary schools exceeded 3,500,000. There will be 33,200,000 pupils in the elementary and secondary schools of the USSR in the coming school year.

In the cities of the USSR, where there are a considerable number of secondary schools, separate teaching of boys and girls has been introduced. But both boys' and girls' schools work under the same programs and provide the pupils with the same education.

All the main subjects are taught by one and the same teacher both in the elementary and in the first four grades of the junior secondary and secondary schools. Beginning with the fifth grade, teaching is conducted by teachers who are specialists in their respective subjects.

The following subjects constitute the course of teaching in the secondary school: the native language and literature, mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural science (botany, zoology, the anatomy and physiology of man, the principles of Darwinism), astronomy, the Constitution of the USSR, history (of the world and of the USSR), geography and one foreign language (English, French, Spanish or German). Last year the teaching of logic and psychology was introduced in the curriculum of the Soviet secondary schools.

In addition to the aforementioned subjects, drawing, painting, penmanship and singing are also taught in the secondary school. Physical culture and sports take a prominent place in the general system of instruction.

Teaching of children in each Soviet republic is conducted in the respective native tongue. In Soviet schools the progress of the pupils is defined by the

FINAL GRADES. Students of a secondary school congratulate one of their number on her marks for the term.

five-mark system: the mark of five (the highest) stands for excellent, four is good, three is satisfactory, two is bad, one is very bad.

The school year lasts 33 weeks in all Soviet schools. Besides the summer vacations, pupils have a holiday of ten days in the winter and five days in the spring.

Methods of teaching in the Soviet school vary, but all of them are subject to fundamental principles: teaching which is based on the active perception by the pupils of the teaching material must be consistent, clear and must take into account the specific ages of the pupils.

Teaching in schools is accompanied by the broad application of visual aids, practical work, laboratory work, excursions, etc. All these means serve the purpose of achieving the main aim: on the basis of a scientific materialistic philosophy, to provide the pupils with firm systematic knowledge of the fundamentals of science and to develop in them a broad, general mental outlook.

In all the grades of the school, great attention in the methods of teaching is devoted to questions of independent work by the pupils. The kinds and forms of independent work gradually become more complex with increasing age, knowledge and development of the children, the object in view being that when the pupil finishes the secondary school he should not only possess a sum of factual knowledge, provided for in the program of the secondary school, but that he should also be capable of applying this knowledge in life, in work or in a higher school if he chooses to continue his education.

On being graduated from a secondary school and passing the examinations, the pupil receives a matriculation certificate which entitles him to enter any higher educational establishment, of which there are more than eight hundred in the country. Pupils receiving the mark of five in all subjects at the examinations are awarded a gold medal; those receiving the mark of four in three subjects and five in all the others are awarded a silver medal. Pupils graduating from a secondary school with either of these rewards have the right to enter a university or institute without an entrance examination.

EXAMINATIONS. Galya Blumkina, a Moscow schoolgirl, takes an oral examination in geography.

BOYS' SCHOOL. Ninth grade pupils reviewing before examinations.

Soviet Schools

At thousands of schools and universities throughout the Soviet Union, Soviet youth is preparing for the great tasks that lie ahead. Young potential artists, musicians, industrial technicians, scientists are learning the skills with which they will make invaluable contributions to the welfare of the Soviet people. Among the schools training Soviet young men and women are 3,733 technical high schools, which train shift foremen, technicians and brigade leaders for industry; thousands of secondary art schools; conservatories training future musicians and composers; schools training young people in the classical ballet. The training is thorough and the Soviet youth responds with enthusiasm. In the Moscow State University, for example, more than 75 per cent of the students taking the spring examinations received good or excellent marks.

GENERAL SCHOOL. Konstantin Shvabin is a sixth grade pupil at Boys' School No. 110, Moscow.

IN A NEW REGION. The Transcarpathian Ukraine, which only recently has joined the USSR, is educating its young people.

ART SCHOOL. Boris Trunov, secondary art school student.

THE EAST. The Republican Agricultural Institute of Uzbekistan.

FOREST SCHOOL. A country school for ailing children, near Moscow. A strict health regime is combined with study.

TECHNICAL SCHOOL. At the Minsk Auto-Mechanical High School.

BALLET. A student of the dance.

MOSCOW CONSERVATORY. Docent E. Gilels and pupils.

UNIVERSITY. V. Ushakov, a student at Moscow University, being examined in geology by Professor S. Chetverikov.

RAILWAY SCHOOL. Hero of Socialist Labor A. Kotenko improves his skill.

HIGHER TECHNICAL. Mendeleyev Chemico-Technological Institute.

A Donbas School

By Y. Usherenko

GORLOVKA is the heart of the Donets Coal Basin—the Donbas for short. Many-storied comfortable apartment houses, schools, hospitals, clubs had been built in this mining town during the period of the prewar Stalin Five-Year Plans. All this was for the miners.

Secondary School No. 73 for girls is one of many educational establishments in Gorlovka. This four-story building has the same history as many other structures in the town. It was built in the Second Five-Year Plan period (1933-1937) and burned by the Germans in the period when they occupied the Donbas.

When the Germans were driven out of Gorlovka and the teachers of School No. 73 returned to their native city the familiar grey building was gone. Heaps of ruins, with the wind howling through them, were all that was left of the school which had accommodated more than one thousand children.

But the children had to resume their education, and classrooms were set up in small houses which had escaped destruction on the outskirts of the town. The teachers made plans for the rehabilitation of their school. They were assisted by the City Soviet, which voted the necessary funds for the purpose, and appealed to the parents, to the miners, to help in the rebuilding of the school for their children.

The miners quickly responded to the appeal. They turned out after working hours and on Sundays to assist in rebuilding the school.

In 1947 the school's restoration was complete. It became more beautiful, more convenient and better furnished than before the war. It is attended by girls from seven to nineteen years of age. The school is conducted in two shifts—the junior grades attend in the morning and the senior in the afternoon.

We came into the school in the morning during the long recess between lessons. The passages and assembly hall were filled with children romping, singing and dancing. Later the bell rang, and the hall and passages instantly emptied. Five minutes later, the girls were in their classrooms. In one of them the teacher Maria Andreyevna Roginskaya was writing out a problem on the blackboard. Nellie Philippova, daughter of a propman in Kochegarka Mine, was called to the blackboard. The little girl quickly solved the problem and returned to her place with a pleased air. The miners' children are doing well at school. Many of them regularly receive the "excellent" mark.

At one o'clock, work in the junior grades ended. But the children remained in the school building for some time. They were to be met in various rooms—in the assembly hall, in the Pioneers' Room and other places.

During the second half of the day the school presents a somewhat different, a more serene picture. It is filled with pupils of the senior grades, most of them members of the Young Communist League. Of all these pupils, 80 per cent receive "excellent" and "good" marks.

On the initiative of the YCL, an exceedingly interesting institution has been established for senior pupils. A senior pupils' club has been organized for two schools in Gorlovka: School No. 73 for girls and school No. 1 for boys. It is a club of a special kind. Not everybody may belong to it; it is open only to senior pupils with "good" and "excellent" marks.

The Senior Pupils' Club has its rules which in part read: "The aim of the club is to broaden the mental outlook of its members, to deepen their general knowledge acquired in school, to organize cultured recreation for them after their strenuous weekly study." The club successfully carries out these tasks. Literary evenings, discussions of various books published in recent years, debates on the morale of youth, lectures on the works of great Russian writers—all this finds a place in the activities of the club. All this attracts the youth to it.

We visited the school on one of its red-letter days: the day of graduation from the eleventh grade. This grade is a special kind. It was established last year for training elementary school teachers. And now 26

MINER'S DAUGHTER. Nellie Philippova of the third grade.

girls—the overwhelming majority of them miners' daughters—have been graduated from this grade and have become teachers.

On that day the graduates received their appointments. The teacher Nina Ilyinichna Martynova congratulated the new young teachers on the successful completion of their studies, and announced the appointments. Maria Shevchenko was appointed teacher in the 74th Ukrainian School in Gorlovka District, Serafima Zakharyuta will work in the 21st School of the same district, Yevdokia Salova in a railway school, and Olga Kolesnik will remain to work as a teacher here, in the school in which she was educated.

Each graduate from the eleventh class who takes up teaching work receives a grant equal to four months' salary for furnishing her household. In addition, she is also given a gift of a woolen costume, two coats—winter and summer—a pair of shoes, two pairs of galoshes, bedding and underwear. The local education department provides every young teacher with a set of textbooks for all classes in the elementary school and the necessary visual aids for lessons.

Part of the young generation of the Soviet intelligentsia is growing up in School No. 73 in Gorlovka, as in all schools of the USSR. The road to education is wide open to all of them.

A Students' Scientific Society

By Grigori Levy
Post-Graduate of the Moscow State University

In March, 1945, a students' scientific society was formed in the Moscow State University on the initiative of the students. The society aims to give the students additional knowledge and training, to develop their individual abilities for practical research. According to the approved rules and regulations, the society enrolls students who display a leaning and ability for independent research, i.e., who have presented one or two interesting scientific papers or published scientific articles in the press. The work of the society is guided by a central council elected at a general meeting. Branches of the society function in every department of the University. The funds of the society are accrued from union dues, income from publications, and assistance from the rectorate and the central trade union committee of the university.

During the three years of its existence, the society has been considerably enlarged; the forms of its work have become extremely varied. At present, it has more than five hundred members and includes 11 branches and 99 sections. At sittings of these sections as well as at special scientific and theoretical conferences, the students read their papers and heated discussions take place. During the past year, 31 students' conferences dealing with the most varied branches of knowledge were held. This year, 764 papers have already been read at meetings of the sections. In the work of these conferences as well as in the whole of the life of the society, an enthusiastic part is taken by prominent scientists of the University, such as its rector, Academician Alexander Nesmeyanov, Academicians Nikolai Zelinsky, Andrei Kolmogorov, Nikolai Semenov, and others. The chairman of the central council of the society is the well-known physicist, Professor Arsenty Sokolov.

The society systematically organizes contests for the best student works, the most important of these being the contest for the Lomonosov Prize, inaugurated in honor of the great Russian scholar whose name the University bears. The prize works chosen in these contests are either published in the *Papers of the Moscow University* or in scientific periodicals of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. During the past year, students of the Moscow University published 44 articles in scientific magazines. This number does not include students' scientific papers printed in the special publications of the society. Small pamphlets, bearing the title *Papers of Moscow University Students' Scientific Society* are distributed and sold throughout the Soviet Union.

An unusually large number of interesting events took place in the life of the society during the past year. In the spring of 1947 the first Moscow Students' Scientific Conference was held; (following the example of the Moscow University, similar students' societies have been formed in nearly all higher educational institutions in Moscow and in many universities and institutes in other cities of the USSR). Eighty papers were read at this conference, and honorary certificates were handed to the authors of the best reports.

Last summer an extremely interesting students' independent scientific ex-

STUDENTS' CONFERENCE. At a scientific conference of students, young people chat with S. B. Kaftanov, Minister of Higher Education of the USSR; S. I. Vavilov, President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR; and A. A. Blagonravov, President of the Academy of Artillery Sciences.

pedition to the Tian-Shan Mountains was organized. It included five members of the society, headed by Rafit Zabirov, a student. The expedition spent three and one-half months in the little-explored eastern part of the basin of Lake Issyk-Kul (Kazakhstan). Despite the great difficulties of working amid rocks and glaciers, the members of the expedition succeeded in taking the measurements and describing a number of objectives scattered over a territory of two thousand square kilometers*, including five large mountain gorges and many glacial lakes. The expedition collected samples of minerals and a large herbarium, climbed to the summit of Peak Przheval'ski, more than 4,600 feet above sea level, and returned to Moscow with extremely rich and valuable material.

Several excursions and expeditions were organized to different districts of Moscow Region. Some 30 students went to Leningrad to take part in the All-Union Congress of the Geographical Society of the USSR. The chemical department of the Society organized a large scientific and practical excursion to the oil refineries and chemical plants of the Caucasus and to the Universities of Tbilisi, Baku and Erevan.

On the return of such expeditions and excursions interesting evenings are usually organized by the students at which the members of the expedition read scientific papers, relate their personal impressions, read excerpts from their travel diaries, and so forth.

It is the aim of the society to promote and maintain relations with other universities of the country: in Leningrad, Gorky, Rostov, Kuibyshev, Tbilisi, Erevan, Kharkov, Vilnius, Riga, and so forth. Guests from these cities frequently visit the Moscow University. Among recent visitors was a group of students from Riga. Correspondence is also kept up with certain universities of Britain, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland and Denmark. Individual correspondence is also maintained. Thus students of the chemical faculty keep up a lively exchange of letters with young chemists of Prague, Wroclawa and Montpelier.

The activities of the society are not confined to the works of the students alone. The society carries out a great deal of work among senior school children of Moscow. Various school circles of chemistry, physics, mathematics and history function all the year round. Every year, in the spring, the physical, chemical and mathematical branches of the society organize all-Moscow school olympiads, the winners of which receive prizes, and enjoy certain privileges if they subsequently wish to enter the University. The chemical olympiad held in April attracted 464 Moscow school children. The winners in the second round in the contest received certificates of merit and valuable gifts; the best schools, the best teachers of chemistry and their pupils received public mention.

All the activities of the society are closely connected with the students' curriculum, and are intended to help them in mastering the chosen branch of knowledge, to instill in them love of science and the habits of independent research work.

The growth of student scientific societies, not only at the Moscow State University, but at universities throughout the breadth of the Soviet land—between many of which there is constant mutual exchange of the results of their research—is an excellent commentary on the giant strides that education has made since the Revolution.

The composition of the student body of the Moscow State University is another commentary on Soviet education. At the University in 1913, almost the entire student body was composed of sons of the gentry, of the clergy, of merchants, of the well-to-do manufacturers and government officials, and of well-to-do peasants. Morover, almost without exception the students were Russians—reflecting tsarist persecution of minority peoples.

Now, students of the University represent 42 nationalities. And the students are all the children of workers, peasants, and the intelligentsia.

Vladimir Dygalok, for example, is the son of a collective farm herdsman of Kabarda. Rafik Shalayev, an Armenian, is a Baku oil worker's son. Oktyabrina Kornilova is a Yakut. The Yakuts were uneducated before 1917.

These young men and women, with opportunities for education unknown to their ancestors, will bring immeasurable riches to the Soviet people through their contributions to the development of Soviet country.

One square kilometer=.3861 of a square mile.

SCIENCE STUDENTS. A chemistry lecture at Moscow University.

Czechoslovakia Remembers This

By Boris Izakov

(Second Article of a Series on the Publication of German State Documents)

MUCH has been written and said of Czechoslovakia of late. It seems to me that in their discussions about the Czechoslovak people, some individuals overlook many essential facts. In this article, I should like to dwell on the historical experience acquired by the people of Czechoslovakia during the fateful Munich days. Considerable space is devoted to this period in the history of prewar diplomacy in Volume I of the *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War*, published recently by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR.

The principal documents published in this volume have been taken from the archives of the German Foreign Ministry captured by Soviet troops when they took Berlin. They mirror the black betrayal of Czechoslovakia by the Western Powers. The people of this country drained the bitter cup of humiliation and loss of national independence; this cup was forced upon them by the Western Powers, and primarily by Britain and France, whom they regarded as allies.

As is evident from the published documents, at the end of 1937 Nazi Germany intended to raise the question of a redivision of the colonies. In order to divert Hitler's attention from this question, the British Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, through his emissaries Lord Halifax and Neville Henderson, "sold" Hitler the idea of advancing to the East of Europe. In the terminology of the secret report of the Polish Ambassador to London, Raczynski, Chamberlain "put a lock on the British goalposts and transferred the game to the East of Europe."

Of great interest among the documents cited in the volume is the report of von Dirksen, the German Ambassador in London, to the German Foreign Ministry, dated July 10, 1938. This Prussian Junker in diplomatic office frankly unburdened himself of his ponderous thoughts to his Berlin chiefs. In the words of von Dirksen, the "first and most important point" of the Chamberlain Government's program, "was and remains the policy of agreement with the totalitarian states." Proceeding to speak of the Chamberlain Government, he wrote: "It has come nearer to understanding the most essential points of the main demands advanced by Germany; namely: to keep the Soviet Union out of deciding the destinies of Europe; likewise to keep out the League of Nations; as well as the advisability of bilateral negotiations and treaties. This Government is viewing with growing understanding Germany's demands with regard to the question of the Sudeten Germans."

Subsequent events showed that the British Government had fully merited this enthusiastic praise of the Hitlerite diplomat. In the pre-Munich months it was conducting feverish activities in favor of satisfying Hitler's appetites. For the purpose of preparing Czechoslovakia's capitulation, Ashton-Gwatkin, a British Foreign Ministry adviser and ex-Minister Runciman, one of the London City magnates, were dispatched to Prague. Lively negotiations were in progress between London, Berlin, Paris and Rome. On Sept. 15, Chamberlain flew to Berchtesgaden to meet Hitler.

As a result of the Berchtesgaden negotiations, Czechoslovakia received the joint Anglo-French note, proposing the immediate surrender of the whole of the Sudeten province to Germany. At first the Government of Czechoslovakia gave the only possible answer: it rejected the proposal pointing out that its acceptance would "be tantamount to the voluntary and full disruption of the State in every sense." The Czechoslovak Government addressed to Britain and France "the last appeal," literally imploring the Western Powers to reconsider their standpoint. But Britain and France were not to be moved. As a result of new pressure from London and Paris, the Czechoslovak Government deemed itself obliged to accept the Anglo-French proposals "with bitterness," as its final reply said.

With this reply Chamberlain flew to Godesberg to pay his second visit to Hitler. However, the latter realized that here he had the opportunity to dictate his conditions, since the Anglo-French side had ventured too far to be able to back out. At Godesberg Hitler was no longer content with the demands presented exactly a week earlier at Berchtesgaden. He raised his price. He was already demanding the satisfaction of the Polish and Hungarian territorial claims against Czechoslovakia. It meant the division of Czechoslovakia and her subsequent complete annihilation. The following "pre-Munich" days are still fresh in the memory of our generation.

The collection published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR contains documents illustrating the unparalleled and entirely unwarranted humiliation to which official representatives of Czechoslovakia were subjected not only by Germany, but by Britain and France as well. There is a special memorandum which tells about the humiliating position in which the Czechoslovak delegation was placed at Munich. The Munich ultimatum was conveyed to the Czechoslovak delegates not by the Germans, but by the British and the French. "We were told in a very rude manner—moreover by a Frenchman," reads this memorandum, "that this verdict was final, permitting no appeal or amendment."

In those Munich days only the Soviet Union remained loyal to its commitments with regard to Czechoslovakia. The statement made by the People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the USSR on March 17, 1938, called attention to the seizure of Austria by the Nazis and the danger to Czechoslavakia, and proposed to the Powers to take collective action to check the aggressor. A telegram dispatched by the People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the USSR on Sept. 20, 1938 affirmed the readiness of the USSR to render immediate and effective assistance to Czechoslovakia in accordance with the treaty obligations.

In their misfortune the Czechoslovak

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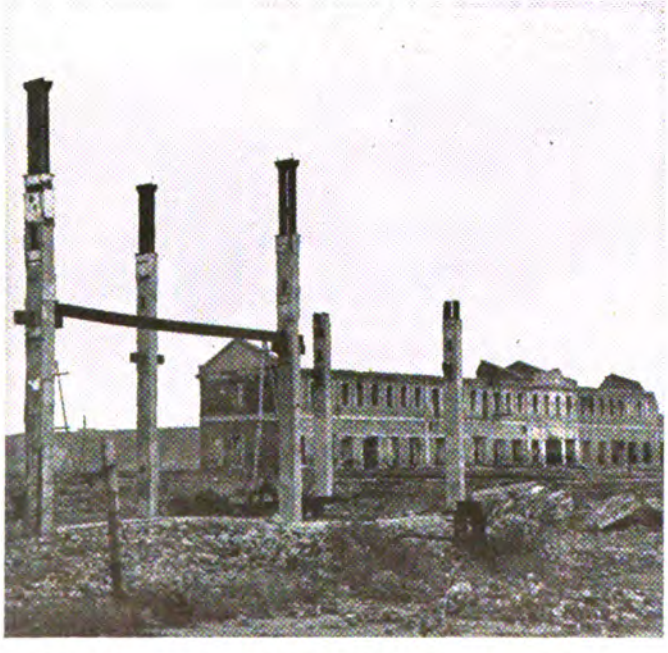
Soviet News in Pictures

ROSES. Grown for oil in Abkhazia.

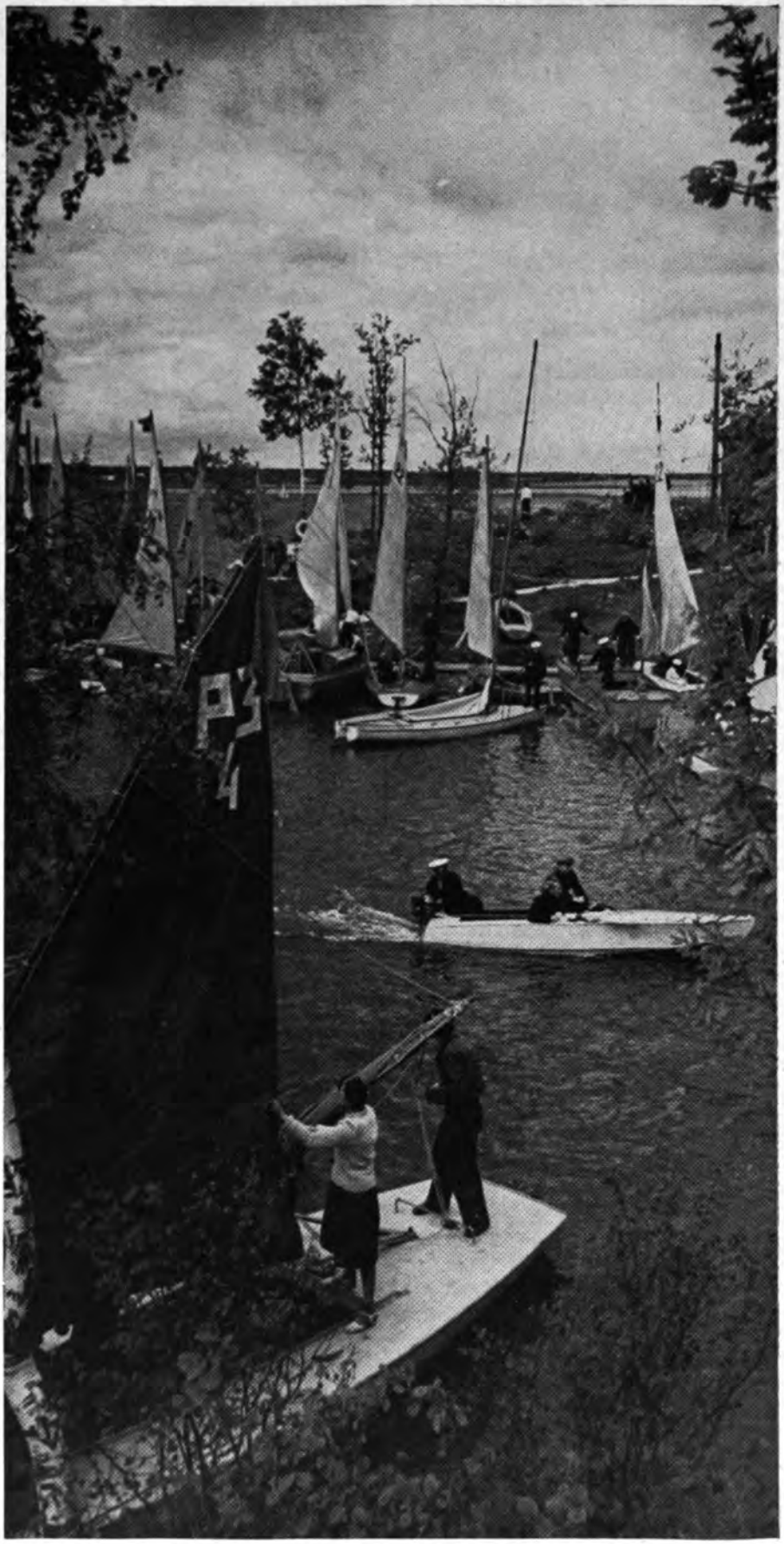
WORKERS' HOLIDAY. An oil worker, his wife and child, at his union's sanatorium at Kislovodsk.



DESTRUCTION AND RESTORATION. The city of Orel (left) when it was liberated from the German occupation. Today (right) its restoration has made great strides.

DECORATED. Valentina Bublyaeva, a teacher, holds the Order of Lenin.

GIFT. Budapest to Moscow. Replica of a statue to Soviet liberators.



SUMMER SPORT. The boating season is well under way in Moscow. Crews prepare for a race at Klyazma Reservoir.

Why I Returned to the USSR

By Nina Makushina

The following letter was recently published in "Pravda."

To the Editor of *Pravda*

DEAR EDITOR:

I SHALL appreciate it if you will consider publishing my letter in your newspaper.

In 1942, when I was a student in the Institute of Foreign Languages, I met John Brand, an employee of the British Military mission in Moscow. I was 18 years old at that time, and I lived alone, since my parents had been evacuated. It was in that period that I foolishly agreed to become John Brand's wife and to go with him later to England.

In November, 1945, I arrived in London, where my husband had already been transferred from Moscow, and I lived in England until April 1948. On April 21, 1948 I returned to Moscow.

While in London I witnessed the filthy anti-Soviet campaign conducted in the British press in connection with the fact that a few Soviet women who had married Englishmen were denied exit visas. I was sincerely sorry for these women, on whose behalf British Members of Parliament undertook the role of spokesmen for the sole purpose of attacking the Soviet Union. But it is not only for the sake of a few women who tried to leave for England that I am asking you to publish this letter. I should like Soviet women and girls—all the Soviet people—to learn from the brief story of my life in London the real truth about conditions in Great Britain.

The British reactionaries, who are using the so-called "question of the Russian wives" for an anti-Soviet campaign, would do better to describe the life of those Russian women who went to England. Of our small group of Soviet women who left for England in November 1945, Golovanova returned to the Soviet Union a month later; Dovgun, ashamed to go back home, left England for another country in the hope of adjusting her life there somehow. I too found it unbearable to live in London any longer and returned to the Soviet Union. Sholokhova, Orlova, Sinyukhina, Kohn and Toshcheva, with whom I mingled in London, are suffering great privations; they are weary of the British atmosphere and are likewise planning to return to the Soviet Union in the near future.

My political education was rather weak. For if this had not been the case, I would of course not have committed such a folly, I would not have left my country. My life in London during those two and a half years was filled entirely with privations, poverty and disfranchisement.

I had heard about the London East End on many occasions. But it is hard to form correct ideas of things from books. I understood what all this meant only after my arrival in London, after my husband and I had settled in Hackney. The houses in this district are frightful slums; it is entirely impossible to get accustomed to the gas-lit apartments, which have no running water nor any other conveniences. Moreover, what astonished me in London is the servile status of the woman, a slave in the family. Most Englishmen believe that the woman's interests should be confined only to the kitchen and her children. The woman is educated in the spirit of slavish obedience to man.

But the most frightful scourge of the working people is the unemployment and want from which a considerable part of the population of London is suffering. Suffice it to describe the life of our small family (my husband and I) to make this perfectly clear.

After his demobilization from the Army my husband looked for work for a full three months before he found a job in a chalk shop in the suburbs. He could find no other work. He was paid 5 pounds sterling, or 100 shillings a week. His carfare to and from work and his tobacco expenses consumed 50 shillings. Each week we paid 5 shillings in so-called insurance fees. It should be borne in mind that this system of insurance has nothing in common with insurance in the Soviet Union. In our country a person insures his life in order to enable his heirs to receive a lump sum in case of his death. In Britain, however, one pays insurance in order to provide for a decent burial, since burying a dead person involves an expense of 50 pounds sterling. Rent (even for the cheapest apartment in the East End slums), heating and gas light consumed another 30 shillings a week from our family budget. The remaining 15 shillings were entirely inadequate for a living. In order to eke out a semi-starvation existence, our family had to have at least 40 to 50 shillings a week for food.

In November, 1946, my husband lost his job and was unemployed for two months. This was a frightful time. It was entirely impossible to find employment. We lived on our savings, accumulated during the course of three years, i.e., from the time of my marriage in 1942 until 1945, when I left Moscow for England. During these two months of unemployment we spent a substantial portion of these savings; we had already spent some of this money while my husband was working by adding each month to the family budget to keep from starving.

In 1947, after a long period of job-hunting, my husband finally found employment in an office connected with the restoration of war-ruined buildings. This was a very "decent" executive position with a weekly salary of six pounds. But in order to keep this position it was necessary to be decently dressed, and we could no longer afford decent clothes. I was obliged to sell some of the valuables I had brought from Moscow. But at this time a child was born to us. For the ten days spent in the maternity hospital I was obliged to pay 14 pounds sterling. Our material position became utterly hopeless. I decided to go to work, but when I tried to place the child in a creche I discovered that I would have to wait two years for this opportunity.

I had long discussions with my husband. I reproached him for the fact that he, just as the other Englishmen in Moscow, had circulated lying stories about the prosperous and cultured life in England. I cited the example of our own family as an illustration of the low living standard in Britain; and as for culture, there was really nothing to discuss—in the two and a half years of

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LEADING SCIENTIST. Academician N. V. Tsitsin (right) has developed perennial wheat varieties.

Science Serves the Farm

By Vassili Mosolov

Vice-president of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences

THE Soviet Government has always directed the activities of science towards the well-being of the working people. In 1918 Lenin said: "Now all the wonders of technique, all the achievements of culture will become the acquisition of the whole people, and from now on the human intellect and genius will never be turned into means of violence, into means of exploitation."

The development of the national economy, including agriculture, in the USSR rests on a scientific and planned basis. By applying the achievements of science, socialist agriculture has achieved high efficiency. The postwar Five-Year Plan (1946-1950) provides for a still wider application of agro-science with a view to increasing the crop yield and the gross harvest of agricultural produce.

Soviet agriculture has a powerful scientific base, consisting of 111 scientific institutes, working in all branches of agriculture, more than five hundred experimental stations and fields, hundreds of outlying bases. An army of scientific and scientific-technical personnel, numbering some 60 thousand, is engaged in painstaking research connected with plant selection, stock-breeding, agro-melioration, the mechanization of agricultural processes, polar agriculture. Scientists are engaged in elaborating new, up-to-date methods of agro-chemistry, agro-physics, agricultural microbiology. This work is guided and co-ordinated by the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences, founded in 1929.

Soviet agricultural institutes include such centers as the All-Union Research Institute of Plant Breeding, with its branches and stations staffed by some one thousand workers, and the All-Union Institute of Fertilizers, Agrotechnique and Agro-Soil-Science which has a staff of more than four hundred persons. Last year, the budget of the Institute of Plant Breeding totalled 14 million rubles, and the budget of the Institute of Fertilizers was set at eight million rubles.

Other important, large-scale scientific institutions are the Institute of Mechanization and Electrification of Agriculture, the Institute of Cotton Cultivation, the Institute of Animal Husbandry, the Michurin Fruit and Berry-Growing Institute, the Institute of Tea Cultivation, and the Institute of Sub-tropical Cultures.

The Scientific Research Institute of Polar Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, founded in 1937, comprises several plant-growing and deer-breeding stations and various bases.

In addition to the special institutes, considerable research is carried out by the institutions of higher agricultural education.

The large collective and state farms make tremendous demands on science, such as could not formerly be presented by the small, primitive individual-peasant households. Large-scale socialist agriculture has created exceptionally favorable conditions both for the research work of scientists and the application of science in practice. This has enabled the Soviet Government, with the help of scientists, to achieve great successes in reorganizing the agriculture of the country on a scientific basis.

Under the guidance of Academician Williams, Soviet scientists have elaborated the world's most advanced system of crop rotation with grass fields, a system based on the researches of eminent Russian scientists of the end of the past century—Dokuchayev, Sibirtsev, Kostychev.

The universal introduction of the system of crop rotation with grass fields has become one of the primary tasks of agricultural planning. During the period of the postwar Five-Year Plan, this system will be introduced on all collective and state farms. This will ensure a further improvement in the fertility of the soil, will increase the harvest, and ensure plentiful fodder

for the growing animal husbandry of the country.

SUB-TROPICS and polar regions, mountain ranges and plains, arid deserts and vast marshes, taiga and woodless steppe—these comprise the varied landscape of the huge Soviet Union. To allocate the appropriate varieties of plants with high crop yields to each climatic zone is the difficult task aimed at by Soviet horticulturists.

Plant breeding has acquired immense scope in the Soviet Union. An important contribution to agro-biology was made by Ivan Michurin, who discovered new methods of hybridization, and after him by his follower, Academician Trofim Lysenko, who, on the basis of Michurin's teachings, founded the theory of the stadial development of plants.

In the past ten years, Soviet scientists have propagated 756 new varieties of plants. Some of these are intended for cultivation in the arid districts of the southeast, others are distinguished for their frost-resisting properties and are suitable for the north and Siberia. Special varieties have been propagated for the central zone of the USSR.

Soviet scientists, propagating new varieties and elaborating new methods of agrotechnique, are helping to change the former distribution of valuable crops with profit for the country. Wheat has been moved to the east and north, far beyond its former demarcation line. Sugar-beet now grows in Siberia and the Central Asian republics as well as in the Ukraine. The areas planted to sub-tropical crops have been enlarged, orchards have moved far to the north, the country has plantations of native rubber—the kok-sagyz plant. Thanks to the efforts of Soviet scientists, husbandry under the open sky has become possible even beyond the Arctic Circle.

The Soviet Government makes every effort to ensure the cultivation of the more productive varieties, propagated by scientists, in the fields of the collective and state farms. By 1949, all districts of the country are to sow only seeds tested for the given district. With this end in view, numerous varieties are being tested under the supervision of agronomists and scientists at the testing stations established for every four or five administrative districts. The varieties manifesting the best properties under local conditions are recommended for sowing.

EXPERIMENTAL FARM. A new variety being gathered at a state cotton farm where the famous colored cotton was also tested.

Work on improving the pedigree of domestic cattle is conducted on a large scale in the USSR. Hundreds of pedigree stock-breeding state farms and state pedigree nurseries, thousands of pedigree stock-breeding sections of collective farms, are engaged in this important work. Working in close collaboration with the collective farmers and state farm personnel, scientists have propagated native breeds of highly-productive domestic animals. Extremely valuable to the country is the Russian breed of Kostroma cows with their high milk yield. The average annual milk-yield of the cows of this breed on the Karavayevo state farm during the past eight years has not dropped below five thousand liters.* The new Vladimir pedigree horse, bred in the Soviet Union, excels the best foreign breeds.

The propagation of animals well adapted to the local features of climate and pasture is highly profitable for the collective and state farms. How much has been done by Soviet scientists in this direction is evident from the example of the many new breeds of sheep developed.

The "Askanya Rambouillet," the thickest-fleeced breed of Merino sheep, was propagated for the Ukraine and the Crimea by the famous Soviet scientist Academician Ivanov. The "Caucasian Rambouillet," a breed well adapted to steppe conditions, is now being bred in Stavropol territory. In the Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic scientists have done much to adapt the Merino sheep to mountain conditions and have developed the "Azerbaijan mountain Merino" breed. The "Siberian Rambouillet," bred in the Altai, yields much meat and wool under Siberian conditions.

The advanced Soviet science of animal husbandry is opening up new ways of increasing the material wealth of the Soviet Union, by elaborating rational methods of feeding and maintaining cattle. Soviet scientists have elaborated the technique of artificial insemination of animals. By widely using this method ever since 1930, the Soviet Union has been enabled greatly to increase its herds of pedigree cattle.

* One liter = 1.05671 quarts.

Britain, the USA, Denmark and other countries have borrowed this new technique from the USSR.

EVER since the organization of large-scale social collective and state farms, great opportunities for the mechanization of agricultural processes have been open to scientists in the USSR. Tractors, combines and other complicated agricultural machines have helped to make the work of the Soviet peasantry highly productive. The most laborious processes have been lightened by the use of machinery.

After the war, scientists-mechanizers began to restore the machinery of the state and collective farms and to design new machines to cultivate the fields.

Soviet tractors are being improved. Powerful caterpillar tractors with diesel-engines, of improved design, have been created. The new caterpillar, diesel-engined tractor, "Stalinets-80," is the most powerful agricultural tractor now in use. The diesel-engined tractor, "Kirovets-D35," is distinguished for its high efficiency, economy of fuel and spare parts.

A new combine, the "Stalinets-6," which successfully harvests rich crops of grain, ensuring a low grasp, has been designed lately, as well as a new self-propelled combine.

Many machines, designed for beet, cotton and flax cultivation, have been tested and approved. By decision of the Soviet Government, a special designing bureau for the mechanization of cotton cultivation has been organized in the Uzbek SSR.

At the present time the collective farms are receiving a number of new machines designed by Soviet scientists and technicians: a sowing machine for group sowing of sunflowers and other cultivated crops; planting machines, potato-harvesting machines, narrow-gauge seeders for sowing grain crops, and so forth.

In the USSR science is the acquisition of the whole people. For, in the words of Joseph Stalin, what sort of science is that which has lost connection with practice, with experience? In the Soviet Union, everything that is found in scientific laboratories soon becomes the acquisition of the collective and state farms, the acquisition of the many millions of peasants. The Hero of Socialist Labor, Peter Varivoda, an Altai peasant who cultivated rich crop-yields of wheat in the Kulunin steppe, explains the successes of the collective farm Stakhanovites as follows: "We love our work, are friends with agronomy, listen to the voice of advanced science."

Such people, working in close cooperation with science, include the famous tractor brigade leader, Praskovya Angelina, who introduced radical improvements into the methods of using tractors; the Ukrainian collective farmer, Mark Ozernoi, who annually reaps high crop-yields of maize as a result of the applying of advanced methods of agrotechnique, and others.

Soviet scientists, in their turn, attentively watch the successes achieved by the leaders of agriculture in order to generalize them and place them at the services of the wide masses of the working peasantry. Thus, people of leading experience enrich, complement and develop science.

This friendship promotes the rapid upsurge of agriculture. In 1947, the gross grain harvest exceeded that of 1946 by 58 per cent.

Broad prospects lie before Soviet agricultural science. The scientific generalization of the rich experience of the masters of agriculture must be continued and the further growth of the country's agriculture, in all its numerous branches, facilitated. It is noteworthy that the increase in the grain harvest by the end of the Five-Year Plan is scheduled to be accomplished as follows: one-third from the enlargement of the sown areas and two-thirds from the increase in the crop-yield to be achieved by the further development of the science of agriculture.

The further growth of Soviet agricultural science, complemented by the experience of the leading collective farmers, will increase the material wealth of the Soviet people and still further strengthen the economic might of the USSR.

Czechoslovakia

(Continued from page 377)

people learned the treachery of their false friends and the genuine friendship of the USSR. Such things are never forgotten.

The lessons of Munich could not be lost on the Czechoslovak people. They left a lasting imprint upon their memories.

Return

(Continued from page 380)

my life in London I hadn't once been able to afford to go to a theater. My husband tried to justify himself by saying that he had not thought postwar life in England would be so hard.

He made an effort to study, to take a corespondence course. But it was impossible, for it involved a big expense and we could not afford it. And he worried about the future of our son, saying with regret that in England he apparently would have as little chance for an education as his father.

Last April we were again menaced by unemployment. The office where my husband was employed had already dismissed 50 per cent of its employees. It was clear that the institution itself would be closed in the near future and my husband would again be unemployed. Our savings were gone and unemployment would bring hunger.

In London I frequently met other Russian girls—Sholokhova, Orlova, Kohn and Sinyukhina—who had married Englishmen. Our conversations always revolved around Moscow; we recalled our country, our dear ones. I often thought with horror that our life in London resembled a kind of slavery, for, owing to the unbridled anti-Soviet propaganda conducted by the reactionaries and war incendiaries, we, Russians, were treated in London with haughtiness, with a sort of contempt. But we had Soviet passports and could go home at any time, and only shame before our relatives for our folly restrained us from this step.

No longer able to endure all this, I decided to leave England with my son. This parting was very hard for us but I felt happy to be going back to my own country; as for my husband, there is happiness for him in the realization that his son will live where he will have an opportunity for an education and a life free from fear of the future, a fear his father knows intimately.

That is why I had to leave my husband and come back to the USSR.

It was a very difficult period of my life, but I can say one thing: I am happy to be back in Moscow. It is hard to describe how happy I feel to see our people again; it is hard for our people to imagine how fortunate they are to be spared the experience that it has been my lot to endure.

NINA MAKUSHINA

June 10, 1948

How Scientists Helped One Farm

By Mikhail Sukhanov

ONE evening in December a conference was held at the Osvobozhdyonny Trud (Liberated Labor) collective farm near Moscow, attended by scientific workers of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, workers of the machine and tractor station, and the members of the collective farm. The topic under discussion was the plan for the further development of the collective farm.

The collective farmers had set the aim of reaping, in 1950, a harvest of three tons of winter wheat, 2.5 tons of rye and 25 tons of potatoes per hectare.* Moreover, they had undertaken to raise the productivity of cattle, obtain an average yield of 3,500 liters** of milk a year from each milch cow, and no less than 25 young on the average from each sow. It formed a bold program, but one which is quite practicable if the farm is conducted on a strictly scientific basis and the collective farmers have the necessary knowledge.

Therefore, the collective farmers requested the scientists to help them work out measures for the realization of this plan, and the scientists readily responded.

Soil experts of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, together with representatives of the local department of agriculture, set up at the collective farm an agronomy school with two departments, one for plant growing and the other for livestock breeding. This school will train brigade and group leaders, as well as rank and file collective farmers. Scientific workers of the Academy and of the soil agronomics station will deliver lectures at the school. In addition the scientific workers are to open an agricultural library, as well as a cottage laboratory at the collective farm, where a study will be made of different kinds of seed, the nature of the soil, methods of cultivation, etc.

The soil-economics station located in the same district is formulating, together with the collective farmers, for the use of the field brigades during 1948, agronomic rules for each kind of crop, for each field on which crop rotation has been introduced, it is also drawing up organizational, economic and agronomic plans for the collective farm for the years 1948 to 1950 inclusive.

The collective farmers, for their part have undertaken to observe and carry out strictly all agrotechnical instructions and suggestions of the scientists.

The basis for this friendly co-operation between scientists and peasants was laid in this district by the great Russian scientist Kliment Timiryazev. Upon his initiative a soil and agronomy station was set up many years ago in the Dmitrov district, where the Osvobozhdyonny Trud collective farm is situated. This station has since been rendering important scientific aid to the surrounding collective farms, helping them to improve the fertility of the poor soil in the Moscow Region, by introducing the grassland rotation system and other agronomic measures.

One of the outstanding features of Soviet science is its strong, unbreak-

* Metric tons: 2204 pounds. One hectare = 2.471 acres.

** One liter = 1.05671 quarts.

PRIDE IN ACHIEVEMENT. Olga Orlova (right) a collective farm agronomist, with Maria Ivanova, a farm girl and agricultural student.

able ties with practical life. Scientists promptly respond when the people apply to them for assistance; and on the other hand, the people willingly carry out the ideas of the scientists. This is natural, for both the scientists and the farmers are striving for the same aim—to consolidate the socialist society, to augment its might and wealth. They know that the richer their socialist society is, the higher is the material and spiritual level of its people. Their community of interests and aims unites the creative forces of men of science and men of labor.

This is the foundation on which arose the friendship between the members of the Osvobozhdyonny Trud collective farm and the outstanding scientists of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, among them Professor Bushinsky, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Professor Chizhevsky, Director of the Soil and Agronomy Station, Doctor of Agricultural Sciences Kruchinsky, and others.

And this is not an exceptional case. In the Soviet Union it is a mass manifestation, for creative co-operation among the Soviet people lies at the very foundation of the socialist system.

Scientific workers of the All-Union Institute of Livestock-Breeding of the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR, are carrying on important work at the Put k Kommunizmu (Path to Communism) collective farm, in the Orekhovo-Zuyevo District, Moscow Region. Academician Petrov, Professors Vsyakikh, Tomme, and others have helped the collective farm to develop its livestock breeding along scientific lines. Scientists and collective farmers jointly worked out measures to improve the breed and increase the productivity of the cattle.

Academician Tsitsin, famous in the USSR and abroad for his splendid work in the sphere of hybridization, is maintaining close contact with the collective farmers of the Kolos (Ear of Wheat) collective farm, helping them to work out agronomic plans, giving them advice as to the best ways of getting abundant harvests, etc.

The Leningrad Regional Experimental Station also keeps in close touch with the local collective farms, which are often visited by its representatives. For instance, before planting, Murasheva, a brigade leader at the Pobeda (Victory) collective farm, asked the station to make an analysis of the soil at her farm and advise her as to the kind and quantity of fertilizer it was necessary to use. The station employees not only complied with her request, but also helped the collective farm draw up a plan of agronomic measures ensuring a rich harvest.

Similar instances may be cited with regard to any other farming district in the Soviet Union. They are an indication of the indivisibility of science and practice, characteristic of socialist agriculture.

LIVESTOCK IMPROVEMENT. E. Krieger, farm worker who holds the Order of Lenin, and Z. Mayunova of Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, measure calves.

PIGS. Young porkers with pedigrees are raised on this collective farm.

Planning Agencies and Their Functions

By S. Gurovich, M.Sc.

THE main plank in the program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), "to turn the means of production and circulation into the property of the Soviet Republic, i.e., the common property of all the working people"—a plank drafted by Lenin—has been put into effect by the Soviet people. The economic foundation of the USSR is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production. This made planning of the national economy not only possible but essential, and the entire economic life of the USSR is defined and directed by a single national economic plan. The aim of this plan is the continuous growth of public wealth, the steady rise in the people's material and cultural standards, the consolidation of the Soviet Union's independence and the strengthening of its defensive capacity.

The single national economic plan is a program for socialist economic reproduction on an enlarged scale. This means that the constant process of production is conducted in the USSR not on an immutable scale but on a new, ever-expanding foundation. This found striking expression in the continuous, unparalleled growth of the national economy during the Five-Year Plans. The process of steady development was not stopped in the interior of the country even during the hardest years of the war; it is continuing with fresh vigor in the postwar period.

The unity of the national economic plan is assured by the system of planning agencies established in the USSR and the procedure for considering and approving the plan.

The highest authorities in the field of national economic planning are the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and the Government it forms: the Council of Ministers of the USSR. The central agency effecting the methodological and organizational guidance of planning is the State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, which has the status and rights of a Ministry. The State Planning Commission is charged with the following tasks: co-ordination in the national economic plan of the work of all branches of the economy; co-ordination of the increase in production and consumption; financing and assuring the necessary material requisites of production; proper regional distribution of enterprises, with the aim of eliminating irrational shipments and bringing the enterprises closer to the sources of raw materials and the consuming areas. One of the main tasks of the State Planning Commission is to assure in the national economic plan the proper correlation in the development of different branches, and to provide for the necessary measures to avoid disproportions in the national economy.

PLANNING HEAD. Academician Nikolai A. Voznessensky heads the State Planning Commission of the USSR.

Academician N. Voznessensky, Chairman of the State Planning Commission of the USSR, has pointed out that the state economic plan, socialist in content, has a number of specific features which turn it into the law governing the development of the national economy of the USSR. The first feature of this nature is the fact that the socialist plan derives its power from the creative activity of the peoples of the USSR, the Party of Lenin and Stalin, the Soviet Government. Underlying the plan is the authority and

activity of the entire Soviet people, organized in a State. Without the day-to-day creative efforts of the people, the Communist Party and the State, the plan would have remained a mere pile of inert figures.

The second distinctive feature of the Soviet national economic plan and of its power is the fact that the plan concentrates all the material resources of the country for the solution of the cardinal tasks confronting the country, for strengthening socialism and socialist property and preserving the independence of Soviet economy from the capitalist encirclement.

Thirdly, the success of the plan is determined by the proper distribution of labor and of material resources and available reserves to fill possible gaps in the fulfillment of the plan, by the proper correlation between production and distribution, production and transportation.

The Union republics and autonomous republics, territories, regions, districts and towns have local planning commissions which draw up plans for the development of the respective republics, territories, regions, districts or towns. The republican planning commissions are controlled by the respective Councils of Ministers and all others by the local executive committees of Soviets.

The State Planning Commission of the USSR has its representatives in all republics, territories and regions. Their task is to check on the fulfillment of the national economic plans approved by the Government. Directly subordinated to them are the republican, territorial, regional and district branches of the Central Statistical Administration, which is part of the State Planning Commission of the USSR. These representatives are independent of the local authorities and deal directly with their headquarters. Republican, territorial and regional planning agencies control the fulfillment of plans by organizations which are under the direct jurisdiction of republican Ministries, territorial or regional Soviets.

Planning of the development of separate branches of industry, agriculture, transport, culture, etc., is done by the Ministries and departments which guide the respective field. The Ministries and departments have a number of specialized central administrations, and administrations which directly guide the activities of the enterprises in their charge. In some cases central administrations have in their charge trusts, which unite the activity of a group of enterprises.

The Ministries, central administrations, administrations and trusts have their own planning departments which plan the activity of the enterprises controlled by them. The periphery of the planning departments of these organizations is formed by the planning departments at enterprises.

In drawing up the national economic plan for the country as a whole the State Planning Commission of the USSR enlists the co-operation of the state planning commissions in the Union and autonomous republics, territories and regions as well as the planning agencies of the Ministries and governmental departments. Hence it is clear that vast numbers of people take part in drawing up the national economic plan. Scientists, executives, engineers, workers and peasants are participating in this highly important work. Democracy is a typical feature of socialist planning. The work of planning the national economy represents a systematic, persistent day-to-day struggle of the Soviet people for increasing output and improving its quality, for reducing the cost of production.

The following procedure is used for considering and approving plans:

The State Planning Commission receives in good time, from the Government of the USSR, general directives on the main tasks for the year and also the proportions to be followed in the development of the key branches of the economy.

On the basis of these directives, the State Planning Commission draws up a system of indices for the national economic plan, consisting of concrete tasks for the Ministries and departments, republics, territories and regions. At the same time the measures necessary for the fulfillment of these tasks are indicated. Since the main goal of each national economic plan is economic reproduction on an enlarged scale, the system of indices worked out by the State Planning Commission embraces the entire process.

These tasks are passed on through the entire system of planning agencies, from top to bottom, until they reach the enterprises. The latter make a detailed study of the tasks; the directors of enterprises and the trade union committees organize discussion with the participation of the shop workers and other employees. Following this, complete drafts of plans for their enterprises, embracing all phases of activity, are submitted by the management to the organization by which it is controlled—trust, administration, Ministry or department.

Next, the plans make the return trip from the bottom up, until they reach the State Planning Commission of the USSR, which then prepares a draft of the single national economic plan and submits it for consideration and approval by the Government. In case differences of opinion arise between the State Planning Commission and a Ministry with regard to the section of the plan concerning the latter, such disputes are settled by the Council of Ministers of the USSR while the plan is being considered.

The Five-Year National Economic Plan is approved by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, and the annual plans based on it, by the Council of Ministers of the USSR. On the basis of the approved plans the State Planning Commission again passes down the final plans for each branch of the economy, which are regarded as state assignments, have the force of law and are binding on all organizations concerned.

On receiving its plan, an enterprise introduces the necessary changes into the draft plan it had originally submitted. The personnel of each enterprise regards the government assignment as the minimum it must carry out under any circumstances. The creative endeavors of the workers at all Soviet enterprises are directed toward exceeding the state plans, both as regards quantity and quality. The successes gained in this respect may be gauged from the fact that the First Five-Year Plan was completed in four years and three months. The Second Five-Year Plan for industry was also finished ahead of time. At present workers throughout the country have joined in competition for the completion of the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years, that is, by the end of 1949.

CLIENTS' TABLES. Bank patrons prepare papers here.

A Soviet Bank

By A. Danilov

Savings Bank No. 96, Dzerzhinsky District, Moscow, begins its day at eight in the morning. Among the early clients on the day I visited the bank, was Alexander M. who has an account of 14 thousand rubles. He wanted to deposit another five hundred rubles which he had received as a bonus for overfulfillment of the production quota. Within two minutes the senior clerk had completed all the formalities, for the staff of Savings Bank No. 96, serving busy people, tries to avoid keeping clients waiting. During the first quarter of 1948 this savings bank handled 115,800 transactions, including 50 thousand deposits.

Deposit transactions are of particular importance in the work of the bank. It has 27,200 depositors whose savings total 89 million rubles, 33.5 million rubles of which come in the long-term deposits category.

These deposits, provided they are not withdrawn before six months, yield the client an interest of five per cent per annum.

Savings bank deposits are both convenient and profitable. They yield a definite income in the form of interest or lottery winnings. Neither the principal nor the interest is subject to any taxes.

Through the bank the depositor may make payments for rent and other municipal services. He merely notifies the bank and the necessary transactions are completed within a day. The depositor then receives a notice from the bank that the payment has been made. Savings Bank No. 96 handled 9,800 transactions of this type during the first three months of 1948. These transactions are quickly completed by Clara Isangulova, a senior clerk. The bank workers devote much time to the checking of State Loan bond drawings. This is a service that has been instituted to assist clients who wish to know whether they have won any premiums paid to holders of winning bonds.

In the center of the round hall stands a table with many partitions. Here beneath glass covers are tabulations of the winning bond numbers.

There is also a large billboard in the hall where several dozen people can simultaneously check the winning numbers of the latest drawing.

Bondholders may also have their bonds checked at the information desk where all types of questions are answered. Senior clerk Antonina Poturenkova is very efficient and she assists nearly a hundred people every day to check their bonds.

During the first quarter of 1948, Savings Bank No. 96 notified bondholders of 2,472 winning numbers and paid the sums of money due the holders. Large sums were paid to 184 bondholders.

More than eight thousand bondholders have deposited their bonds at this savings bank. As soon as the bank receives the official tables of the winning numbers the bonds are checked and the bondholder immediately notified.

The special system introduced for checking of bonds deposited here enabled this savings bank to notify and pay sums on ten thousand winning numbers that had not been applied for. One of the winning numbers brought the holder fifty thousand rubles. Despite the fact that she had lost her receipt for the bond the sum was paid to her.

In connection with the monetary reform carried out to strengthen the Soviet ruble and improve the welfare of the people, it was found necessary to carry through the conversion of loan bonds.

The workers of Savings Bank No. 96 are well prepared to undertake the job of exchanging all bonds issued before 1947 for 1948 two per cent bonds that have been issued in the sum of 39,000,000,000 rubles for 20 years, from January 1, 1948 to January 1, 1968.

Within two days the bank exchanged bonds to the sum of 7,700,000 rubles, and served 760 bondholders.

The best bank workers have been assigned to handle these exchange transactions.

Valentina Kuznetsova, a cashier, received 120 bondholders in one day and exchanged bonds to the sum of 1,468,000 rubles.

Simultaneously, the bank pays sums on winning bonds that were not cashed in. In the first two days of the conversion, winnings were paid on 462 bonds.

Among those coming to the bank are many who wish to purchase new bonds. During the first quarter of this year bonds of the three per cent Internal State Loan were sold in the sum of nearly 4,000,000 rubles.

AT WORK. Clara Isangulova, a senior clerk.

Scenes in A Bank

POSTING WINNINGS. Soviet state bonds pay premiums on lucky numbers. Winning numbers are posted in the bank.

CASHIER. Valentina Kuznetsova at her desk.

INFORMATION. Clients may obtain answers to many types of questions at this desk.

A Prizewinning Book on Glinka

By Anna Khokhlovkina, M.A. and V. Danilin

THE book on Mikhail Glinka which won the author, Boris Asafiev, a Stalin First Prize, is a notable contribution to researches on this classic Russian composer begun long ago by the famous music critics of the nineteenth century, Odoyevsky, Stassov, and Serov, and the views expressed by Tchaikovsky and Taneyev. Asafiev has written a work of high esthetic, scientific and artistic value. He is himself a composer of talent and a scholarly historian of music. He was born in St. Petersburg in 1884. His musical ability was very marked from his early years but it was not until 1904 that he began systematic study. He was graduated from the Conservatory and, almost at the same time, from the faculty of history of the St. Petersburg University.

In the early years of the century, he gained attention as a new musician in the group around Rimsky-Korsakov and Vladimir Stassov in St. Petersburg. Boris Asafiev was then a student in the history and philology faculty of the University. Stassov mentions him in a letter to his brother on August 24, 1904. "This quiet, fair-haired boy simply amazed me. He is self-taught, he has had no lessons from anyone, but he plays excellently on the piano, not like a pianist . . . but like a good musician. He plays from memory the whole of the Russian school—operas, symphonies and ballades—plays accompaniments excellently and reads music excellently . . . " In connection with this new acquaintance, Stassov exclaimed: "How I love these new recruits. How I thirst for them and how rarely—almost never—do they disappoint me."

Stassov's discerning eye, which had so often discovered new Russian talent, was not at fault this time. Articles signed by Igor Glebov, Asafiev's pen-name, attracted particular attention in pre-Revolutionary years.

His work as a music critic and composer began in 1914. He has written a number of books on music, among them *Symphonic Etudes* and *Russian Music From the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century*. They form a whole encyclopedia of Russian music.

Boris Asafiev

He also wrote symphonic, operatic, and ballet compositions, the most popular of which are the ballets *Flames of Paris,* and *The Fountain of Bakhchiserai*. At present he is the chairman of the organizational committee of the Soviet Composers' Union, assistant director of the Institute of the History of Arts of the USSR Academy of Sciences and the director of the research section of the Moscow Conservatory.

Recalling Asafiev's brief but notable friendship with Stassov, it should be emphasized that perhaps in no other of the Russian writers on music of our day, are Stassov's social temperament, his thirst for everything new, everything valuable and progressive in Russian music, so fully reflected as in Asafiev. This is the more marked and the more valuable because Asafiev's creative life was for many years lived in an environment of modernistic decadence and the disintegration of music.

In connection with this, there is no necessity to "straighten out" the windings of Asafiev's path in art. Like many artists and thinkers of those years he was often captured by the spell of false conceptions and, possessing gifts as a propagandist, he contributed to the cultivation of the poisonous flowers of modernistic esthetics. But his most striking and decisive trait was always his pointed criticism in relation to the symptoms of decadence and decline in art, the ability to oppose decadent influences in the main and decisive questions.

In his references to his associations with new artistic trends in the early years of the century, Asafiev says in *My Life* that he understood perfectly that Serov as an artist, Blok as a poet, and others like them in Russian culture, do not fit in with fashionable trends. The Stassov and Repin "leaven," he said, kept him on the alert with regard to the trends of the time in art, literature and poetry. He was attracted and attached to a great deal in them, cultivated his taste, kept abreast of all that was being done. Yet he drew most from Leo Tolstoy and the study of monumental art. It was this that he had inherited from Stassov and progressive Russian criticism of the time: the keen awareness of the vital and the dead in art, the support he found in the spiritual experience of great epochs, which played a decisive role in his creative evolution. These gave him the compass that kept him from losing his way entirely in the years of modernistic wanderings and enabled him to emerge, with the progressive section of the Russian artistic intellectuals, on the broad highways of Soviet culture.

The center of Asafiev's interests in research was always the great realistic works of the classics; moreover, the classics of Russian music.

His work on this subject might constitute, in regard to the number of questions illumined in them and the range of the historical problems treated, a whole encyclopedia of Russian music. What is still more important is that in each historical aspect Asafiev is able to reveal the living source from which life itself nourished him. Pene-

trating the stratification of time, he did as the artists who restore old paintings do when they remove layer after layer of dust, soot and the feeble daubing of imitators, to reach at last the brilliant color of the original; in this way he makes us feel the qualities that were classic in the classics, that made them the focus of thought and emotion and the expression of the highest intellectual culture of the time.

These discoveries are found particularly often in Asafiev's works on his favorite themes—Tchaikovsky, Moussorgsky, Rimsky-Korsakov, and Glinka.

Beginning with his articles on *Ruslan and Ludmila,* and his book on *Symphonic Etudes,* the subject of Glinka takes a leading place in Asafiev's researches. His book, *Glinka,* published in 1947 and now awarded a Stalin Prize, sums up the author's researches and the thought of many years devoted to the study of Glinka.

The book begins with a biography —*Mikhail Glinka; His Creative Biography and Thoughts on Music and Musicians.* The carefully selected quotations and profound commentaries, which often develop into independent critical and biographical studies, sketches and generalizations, are a convincing revelation of Glinka's ideas and the trend of his creative work.

The second part of the book is on the opera *Ruslan and Ludmila.* Neglecting no biographical detail, however slight, and no part of the composer's correspondence, Asafiev traces the history of the opera and finds the basis of its general conception. He regards it as "an experiment of genius to revive the Russian folk-epos of heroic journeyings" and considers that the epic subject matter of the opera distinguishes it from Pushkin's poem *Ruslan and Ludmila,* written in his youth. This poem was "a point of support" but not the "primary cause" Asafiev says. He traces the significance of the epic motives in the score and the principles of their musical embodiment. His analysis of the opera is brilliantly done.

Mention must be made of the chapters in the third book on the opera *Ivan Sussanin,* the very poetically-written chapter on Glinka's ballades, and the concluding chapter *Glinka's Last Testament.*

Underlying the whole book is the analysis of those peculiarities that made Glinka the founder of Russian musical classics. For example, there is the profound and organic popular nature of his work, based on the centuries of musical culture of the Russian people. No less important and natural to Glinka is his ability to select, generalize, and work out creatively the elements of folk art. This complex creative process is illustrated by Asafiev with many excellent examples.

His book is a model of the masterly combination of systematic scientific work with lively and attractively written biography. A work of serious and technical research, it makes pleasant reading, and revives the fascinating character of the composer in convincing imagery. Asafiev's book is an important addition to Soviet historical research on music.

School on Sakhalin

By Yakov Mostovoi

AMONG the deputies who represent the population of Sakhalin Island in the Supreme Soviet of the USSR there is an elderly teacher, Anna Kudryavtseva. The people of this easternmost section of the Soviet Union, located more than six thousand miles from Moscow, know her as a splendid educator, who has contributed no little to the general progress of their island.

It was 18 years ago that Kudravtseva first came to Sakhalin, with other teachers who volunteered to pioneer in bringing enlightenment to the population of the island. Her life since then has been rather eventful. She became principal of a secondary school in Alexandrovsk-on-Sakhalin. The school she heads has won the reputation of one of the finest. For her successful work she has been given the title of Honored Teacher of the Russian Federation.

Kudryavtseva's school is attended by more than five hundred pupils and has a staff of 22 teachers.

As in all other Soviet schools, teaching is closely linked with life. Teachers are constantly seeking for new ways to impart knowledge and bring up the children. Every valuable innovation is rapidly adopted by the entire school staff.

The school has several laboratories where pupils conduct experiments, learn to produce various instruments and visual aids.

Special scientific conferences where senior class students deliver reports are held during the mid-term winter and spring vacations. The latest conference was devoted to the subject, *The USSR as a Country of Advanced Science and Art.*

For a number of years lectures on popular scientific subjects or the latest works of literature have been held.

The school has its own library with 15 thousand volumes. Of special interest are the two thousand books presented by graduates. There is a standing tradition that every graduate makes a gift of his favorite book.

Extensive extra-curricular activities are conducted at the school. For many years pupils have been systematically keeping what is known as the school "annals," a record of all major events such as conferences, excursions, interesting affairs, a list of graduates, awards, etc.

To enable the pupils to become acquainted at first hand with the nature of their area, the school regularly organizes excursions and tourist trips. During the summer vacations, groups of senior pupils, together with their teachers, make trips to the mountains, sail down the rivers, and while roaming in the open collect specimens of the local flora and fauna.

The school staff resembles a well-knit, friendly family. The teachers not only teach, but themselves study persistently and systematically. They keep abreast of the latest developments in pedagogy, discuss their experiences, and think of ways to improve upon past performance. This common creative endeavor makes for personal friendship. Under such conditions it is pleasant to live and work for the common good.

Socialist Realism in Literature

Alexander Fadeyev's Conversation with a Group of German Writers

A group of German writers recently visited Moscow on the invitation of Soviet writers. They had talks with people representative of Soviet culture and art, and visited theaters and exhibitions.

In this article we give notes of the conversation between them and the novelist Alexander Fadeyev, General Secretary of the Soviet Writers' Union, on the subject of socialist realism. A partial transcript of the conversation follows:

FADEYEV. He is a political, as well as a literary figure. Here he is in his seat as a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

HERMLIN (poet): We have never seen nudes in the sculpture and painting of the USSR. Their models are usually clothed in shorts by Soviet artists. This is very far from the frankness and truth with which the Greeks presented the human figure.

FADEYEV: There can be no question of fear of showing the nude figure in Soviet art. That goes without saying. As a matter of fact, a very good sculpture by Manizer of a nude girl was shown at the last big exhibition. The women at the baths in the large canvas by Alexander Gerassimov, a well-known Soviet painter, wear no bathing costumes. A naked woman against the background of a snow-crusted window is seen in one of Deineke's prewar paintings. We have no preconceived ideas about this question.

The point of the whole thing is not the nude body. The human figure has been finely presented in Russian and Western classic art, and there is much more besides this that our artists wish to represent. I understand them perfectly when I see by their work that the large social theme is proving increasingly attractive. A whole world of new social relations is open to them.

The portrayal of the zoological man does not claim attention in Soviet art in general. In our literature, in particular, love is not described in its strictly physiological aspect, as is customary at present among writers abroad. And in this respect our literature approaches more closely the classics, and especially the Russian classics, which, I should say, were very pure, notwithstanding a high degree of realism.

We Soviet writers have passed the phase of attraction to naturalism—most of us paid tribute to it at some time. Now we have outgrown it and make much greater demands on ourselves. This took place gradually, imperceptibly, but I know it from myself and my comrades.

In my first novel, *The Nineteen,* I presented physiological love in a naturalistic manner in some places, and used the coarse words and expressions that I had heard from the partisans. When I re-read the book at a later period, I liked it less in this regard. A good deal in the first version of the book now strikes me as alien. My impulse to cleanse my book of it was natural and I did it.

Great influence on our writers was exercised in this respect by the readers, who rose from the depths of their former existence under tsarism to a highly conscious, creative and critical attitude to life and art. In our readers' letters and at meetings we hear protests against crude naturalism which teaches nothing and gives nothing. Every man has some progressive and some retrogressive traits, and Soviet people want to be portrayed full face—which we are trying to do—and not back view. In this we are endeavoring to approach the classics, but on a new basis.

WEISENBORN (playwright): Where do you draw the borderline between naturalism and realism?

FADEYEV: The ideas of our school-days about this must be got rid of. We do not conceive of realism as simply the representation of reality, as photographic representation, but as showing people and phenomena in their move

ment and development. The old literature knew some remarkable masters of realistic presentation. For example, Balzac showed society in movement and with such supreme power disclosed how terrible the disintegrating soul of capitalism is, that his readers, too, are imbued with hatred of capitalism, and it becomes clear to them that there can be no future for such a system. Notwithstanding the contradictoriness of Balzac's outlook, he still believed that the world could be ordered differently. If we take other instances from the French, the art of Flaubert, with all his artistry, is from my standpoint less realistic, because in representing the "evil of the world," he neither saw nor sought an outlet from the situation, and did not beckon people anywhere. Zola was still more naturalistic, being bound by the spell of the theory that social man may be portrayed in the light of physiology and pathology.

Socialist realism contains elements of classic realism, but differs from it in principle. This is not the artist's elemental representation of tendencies of development, without a clear understanding of tomorrow. No, the Soviet writer sees tomorrow in today, that is, sees reality in its revolutionary development and educates the reader in the interests of tomorrow.

This means that socialist realism contains of necessity revolutionary romance. What I have in mind is not the romanticism of Victor Hugo or other dreamers, in whose work "what should be"—the dream—is separated from the historic actuality. Socialist realism presupposes a revolutionary romanticism based on actual human relationships.

Realism and romance are organically merged in socialist realism.

LANGHOF (writer): In Soviet literature, does not romance prevail over realism, and does not this result in actuality not being fully presented?

FADEYEV: No. It is exactly in this way that the truth of life receives fullest expression. This presupposes the faithful presentation and criticism of all the darker, negative sides of life. It is not a question of exposing them but of not lowering life to that level. The presence of revolutionary romanticism renders socialist realism still more realistic in comparison with the old realism, inasmuch as the ulcers of the past may also be the more thoroughly exposed in the light of the future.

Today we observe in the progressive people of our Soviet country the traits that everyone will possess tomorrow. To show these traits and develop them in people is far more important than to describe what has been shown long ago. Our writers endeavor now to show the new which never existed and could not have existed formerly. In this respect the Soviet writers' work is more difficult and more responsible than the work of those who write of old, familiar things. It is easier to write, for example, of the difficult position of the isolated intellectual, the lone hand, in capitalist conditions—a subject on which countless books have been written—whereas the portrayal of the people of socialism, their collective labor, their moral lineaments, is true innovation.

The principal task of Soviet literature is to show the inner world and actions of progressive people, to draw good characters whose nobility of thoughts and actions evokes in the reader the desire to emulate them.

WEISENBORN: In that case how is one to understand the censure of Zoshchenko who represented the negative side? Surely this representation is necessary too, because, seeing the bad, people are repelled by it.

FADEYEV: The representation of the negative side is necessary, too, but not after Zoshchenko's fashion. He showed us avarice, narrowness, self-love, stupidity and covetousness, all petty feelings, as invariable, always natural to people. He did not see the processes that alter people. The result was a libel on people in general, on the altered, spiritually-mature Soviet people in particular. They had long been indignant with Zoshchenko and the hopeless outlook of his work. True satire scourges the negative in the name of mankind, for the benefit of man. But satire which asserts that man is a concentration of the negative ceases to be satire and becomes a lampoon. The blow struck at Zoshchenko should not be viewed from aesthetic standpoints alone; this is a question of a fundamental outlook on man, on the Soviet type of man in particular, and on the tasks of art—it is a question of humanism in the large sense.

WEISENBORN: If Zoshchenko's work was wrong and harmful, did not the public censure that provided anti-Soviet propaganda all over the world with food for scandal, do still more harm?

FADEYEV: Questions of principle should be treated in principle—that is, truthfully and severely. In such cases, one must not consider what the anti-Soviet propagandists may or may not get hold of. From their point of view the October Revolution did the most "harm" of all, but we cannot relieve their position in any way.

ANNA SEGHERS: You have just repeated your juxtaposition of Balzac to Flaubert which I read once before in the Berlin *Tagliche Rundschau*. Are we to take your critical remarks about Flaubert as the general Soviet view of this writer? Don't you find that his novel *Madame Bovary*, even though it did not show the tomorrow of the women and of the social circles it describes, helped thousands of women to avoid the path of Madame Bovary?

FADEYEV: I am a writer and I am expressing my own viewpoint. I consider Flaubert a prominent writer, but even among the prominent writers of the past some may be nearer, some further, from us. A discussion went on for about a year in the *Oktyabr* magazine regarding my attitude to Balzac and Flaubert and many did not agree with me. The anti-Soviet propagandists mentioned here strive to show that in the Soviet country "semi-official" views exist regarding all questions of literature and that writers are to be guided by them. This is sheer nonsense. The guiding role of the Party in literature cannot be taken so primitively as that. Soviet society, the Party, the writers' organization, act in a united front whenever they see distortion of our outlook, libels on our people and our State. Their socialist outlook is common to all Soviet writers, but this in itself presupposes the wide development of various individualities. Moreover, in our literature there are different trends in form within socialist realism. We argue far more about these questions here than is the custom abroad, where there is so much kowtowing to sham authorities, such as Sartre and his like. Our criticism may be sometimes severe, but it serves as a pledge of progressive movement.

PAINTING. "The Return of Pronchishchev to Ust-Olenek in 1736" by I. P. Ruban.

A Russian Explorer

By A. Lurye

THE death of Lieutenant Vassili Pronchishchev and his young wife Maria, who travelled with him to the remote, unexplored polar regions, is one of the most dramatic, exciting and touching episodes of the epic history of the conquest of the Arctic. The Pronchishchev expedition was but a part of the Great Northern Expedition, organized by the Government in the eighteenth century with the object of plotting the polar coastline of Siberia.

The task of the third detachment of the Great Northern Expedition, under the command of Lieutenants Pronchishchev and Lasinius, was to explore the northern sector of the Siberian coastline. It was to survey the shores west of the mouth of the river Lena (that is, the hitherto unexplored Taimir Peninsula, the area of the rivers Khatanga, Taimir, etc.). Lasinius commanded the frigate *Irkutsk* and Pronchishchev the somewhat larger *Yakutsk* (length, 70 feet and width, 18 feet). The crew of the *Yakutsk* included the bold and skilled navigator Chelyuskin, the geodesist Chekin, and consisted of 42 persons. The 43rd member of the party was Pronchishchev's young wife, Maria. On June 30, 1735, the *Irkutsk* and *Yakutsk* sailed from Yakutsk down the river Lena and on August 7 reached its mouth. There each sailed his own way, Lasinius to the east and Pronchishchev to the west. On August 13, the *Yakutsk* sailed out into the open sea and maneuvering through the ice, headed for the northwest. Strong head winds retarded the progress of the vessel. Eventually the *Yakutsk* entered the estuary of the river Olenek and dropped anchor. It was late autumn, and severe frosts forced Pronchishchev to winter near the river bank.

In the summer of 1736, the *Yakutsk* set sail westward to explore the coast line. In his report to Captain Bering, Chelyuskin wrote: "Sailed amidst dangerous icepacks. In the mouth of the river Khatanga and at its approaches encountered huge ice floes . . ."

By then the expedition had approached 77° 29′ latitude: this was the northernmost point ever reached by any polar explorer. Pronchishchev and Chelyuskin had almost reached the most northern extremity of Asia, the cape which Chelyuskin eventually discovered.

Much to the dismay of Pronchishchev and Chelyuskin, a strong north wind drove the *Yakutsk* back to the south. Then, on August 29, ill with scurvy, Pronchishchev died. Chelyuskin took over command of the ship. That same day the frigate penetrated the mouth of the river Olenek. With flag at half mast, caked with ice and snow, the *Yakutsk* moored at the previous year's winter station. Early in September Pronchishchev was buried with military honors. His wife Maria, overcome with grief, died five days later and was buried beside her husband.

The grave of Pronchishchev and his wife was discovered in 1875. The famous explorer E. Toll stopped here and restored the grave, ruined by time.

Despite the death of the commander, the expedition continued its work under the leadership of Lieutenant Laptev, Chelyuskin and others.

The deductions of these early Russian cartographers, Pronchishchev and Laptev, were amazingly precise. Their deviations in determining the latitudes were very slight. The greatest of the achievements of the Taimyr expedition was the discovery by navigator Chelyuskin on May 7, 1742, of the northern extremity of the Asiatic mainland, which he named Northeastern Cape (eventually renamed Cape Chelyuskin).

During the course of eight years the expedition plotted and explored the whole of the northern coastline of European and Asiatic Russia, Kamchatka and the Sea of Okhotsk.

The Soviet people remember the exploits of Pronchishchev and his companions and revere their memories. Many of the capes, bays, islands and seas of the Soviet Arctic have been named after them. The Moscow painter Igor Ruban devoted three years to a study of the voyage and the circumstances which led to the death of Pronchishchev and his wife, and painted a big canvas, *The Return of Pronchishchev to Ust-Olenek in 1736*. The artist depicts the ship's commander, ill, sorrowful, but determined, leaning on the arm of his wife. His ice-coated little vessel struggles bravely through the mass of ice.

Ruban's painting is representative of the best realistic traditions of Russian historic paintings. One variation is in Moscow, another, which the painter presented to the Geographic Society of the USSR, is in Leningrad. Academician L. S. Berg, President of the Society, said that this painting was a memorial of the heroic deeds of one of the most courageous Russian Arctic explorers who gave his life for science and the study of his country.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE results of the mass agrotechnical training of collective farmers have been reviewed by the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR. According to preliminary data, more than three million collective farmers (men and women) of the Russian SFSR, the Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Georgia and other republics of the Soviet Union attended the collective farm agrotechnical circles, schools, seminars and short-term courses last winter. Over 700 thousand persons attended animal husbandry courses and circles and 27 thousand chairmen of collective farms completed courses of study for raising their qualifications. Millions of collective farmers attended lectures by scientists, agronomists and experts of field crop agriculture.

★

A penicillin plant is being built at Leninakan, Armenian SSR. Work on the production buildings is nearing completion. The first experimental shop has issued its first produce.

★

For sixteen times in succession, the Linotype factory of Leningrad has won first place in the competition between the enterprises of the Ministry of the Machine and Instrument Making Industry for the best fulfillment of production plans. This victory brings to the winner a large monetary prize (prizes are awarded each month when results are summed up). Two-thirds of these funds are used for prizes to distinguished workers, engineers and other employees, and the rest—for the cultural and other services maintained for the workers and their families. Last year the plant used a portion of this fund for opening a rest home for the workers and a summer camp for their children on the Karelian Isthmus, for the renovation and re-equipment of the dining hall, for purchasing new furniture, games, radio sets and sports equipment for the shop clubrooms. Sums running into tens of thousands of rubles have been spent on sanatorium accommodations and on extra-mural activities for children.

Preparations have begun for the alpine climbing season. Twelve alpine camps, organized by trade union and sport organizations functioned in the mountains of the Caucasus and Tien-Shan last year. These camps provided for the needs of 4,500 sportsmen. One thousand four hundred and eighty-two sportsmen took part in the ascents. This year the mountain camps will train another 5,200 alpinists, and approximately 1,500 people will climb the heights.

★

A few days ago the Leningrad Automobile and Motorcycle Store received its first batch of Soviet low-powered automobiles ("Moskvich"). In a short time over five hundred cars were sold. Among the first to buy them were: Michael Ivanov, a metal worker of a technical rubber goods factory, Edelman, a metal worker at the Autoarmatura tool factory, Titov a moulder at one of the Leningrad foundries, Andresyak, a radio mechanic, Shcherbak, a trades school instructor, Trusakov, a mechanic, Fyodor Kuznetsov, Master of Sports, champion of the USSR in rowing, Professor Meshkov of the Academy of Arts, Schenopovitch, a worker of the Leningrad public works trust, Engineer Sheremetyev, and Vatsura, M.D.

Spring examinations in universities, colleges and institutes have begun in the USSR. Nearly 120 thousand students are taking their examinations in Moscow. Before the Revolution there were only 112 thousand students in higher educational establishments in all Russia. Today the number exceeds 700 thousand. There are now in the Soviet Union 802 higher schools of learning compared to 91 before the Revolution.

★

In the Dolgano-Nenets national region situated far beyond the Arctic Circle on the shores of the Arctic Ocean, there are 45 schools, a technical high school, a pedagogical institute, a dramatic theater, eight clubs, libraries, and more than 60 hospitals, clinics and first-aid posts. Many Dolgan and Nenets youth study at Leningrad university. Prior to the establishment of Soviet power in Russia, the local population in this region led a nomad life and were on the verge of extinction.

★

About six thousand students of third-year courses in the agronomic departments of agricultural institutes have gone to collective farms and machine and tractor stations of the USSR for practical work during the summer.

Moscow Radio Broadcasts in English

July 5—July 18

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from July 5 to July 18 at the folowing times and frequencies, (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Tuesday, July 5, 12, 13—Economic affairs.

Tuesday, July 6—Trade unions.

Wednesdays, July 7, 14—Scientific and cultural programs.

Thursdays, July 8, 15—Programs for farmers.

Friday, July 9—Special program on life in a Soviet Union Republic.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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GOLDEN GRAIN. Pavel Begun, chairman of a Byelorussian collective farm, among the ripening rye. FRONT COVER. Physical Culture Day parade, 1947. This holiday is celebrated in July. BACK COVER. Station of the Moscow-Volga Canal at Moscow. The canal was first opened July 15, 1937.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Warsaw Declaration of the Eight Foreign Ministers

Following is the Declaration issued June 24 in Warsaw by the Foreign Ministers of USSR, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland Romania and Hungary:

V. M. Molotov

On June seventh there was published a communique on the conclusion of the London Conference of the Three Powers—the United States, Great Britain and France—on the German question. The communique contains a summary of the decisions adopted at that secret conference on the principal political and economic questions concerning Germany as well as on the change of Germany's western frontiers, although reports that appeared in the press indicate that the communique passes over in silence certain decisions adopted at the conference.

The London Conference was called in violation of the Potsdam Agreement, which provides that questions concerning Germany are to be decided upon by the Four Powers—the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France, while the examination of these questions was entrusted to the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs composed of representatives of these powers. It is also impossible to overlook the fact that the Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) were also invited to take part in this separate conference of the Three Powers, although the states bordering on Germany, such as Poland and Czechoslovakia, as well as other directly interested countries, did not take part in it.

The convocation of a separate London conference on the German question attests to the fact that the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France, who organized this conference, set themselves the purpose of liquidating the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs established at the Potsdam Conference, as well as liquidating the quadripartite control machinery in Germany, set up still earlier upon agreement among the Four Powers. This violation of former agreements among the United States, the USSR, Great Britain and France on the German question, as well as the violation of undertakings concerning consultations with interested countries, takes place before everybody's eyes and leads to the disruption of the Potsdam Agreement on the demilitarization and democratization of Germany, an agreement aimed at preventing a repetition of German aggression in the future.

These violations of existing agreements concerning Germany affect the vital interests not only of the Four Powers occupying Germany and of

To Our Subscribers

A large number of subscriptions to the USSR Information Bulletin expire in August and September. Readers will facilitate renewals by re-subscribing in advance of expiration dates.

The office of the USSR Information Bulletin will soon have available a printed booklet, "Soviet-American Relations," containing the recent statements on this subject by the United States and Soviet Governments; Mr. Henry Wallace's "Open Letter to Premier Stalin" and J. V. Stalin's reply, and two TASS statements. It will be priced at 10 cents. Advance orders can be taken now.

the states which suffered German aggression, but of all the European countries striving to establish firm and lasting peace in Europe.

It is known that the Yalta and the Potsdam Agreements set the aim of disarming Germany and abolishing her war industry, undermining the very foundations of German militarism and preventing Germany's resurgence as an aggressive power, and thus converting Germany into a peace-loving and democratic state. Moreover, the Yalta and Potsdam Agreements provide for Germany's obligation to pay reparations and thereby to repair, if only partially, the damages of countries which suffered from German aggression.

The decisions of the London Conference of the Three Powers with the participation of the Benelux countries, pursue different aims. These decisions cast aside the tasks of the demilitarization and democratization of Germany, the tasks of transforming Germany into a peace-loving and democratic state, and completely pass over in silence Germany's reparation obligations. The London decisions are not aimed at preventing the possibility of new German aggression but at converting the western part of Germany and primarily the heavy industry of the Ruhr into an instrument for re-establishing Germany's war potential, in order to utilize it for the military strategical aims of the United States of America and Britain. Clearly such a plan cannot but create favorable conditions for the repetition of German aggression.

At the same time the decisions of the London Conference show the true meaning of "The Western Military Alliance" recently established by the Governments of Great Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg, under the patronage of the United States of America. Still more frankly than "The Western Military Alliance" which comprises the above five states, the London Conference, in which the United States of America also took part, did not set itself the purpose of preventing new German aggression but set itself totally different aims. Acknowledging that it is impossible to draw the whole of Germany into the military strategical plans of the United States and Great Britain, the London Conference strives to use the Western Zones of Germany as a base for these plans, tearing these zones away from the rest of Germany.

1. The decisions of the London Conference are directed toward the consummation of Germany's split and dismemberment. Having renounced even the verbal recognition of Germany's political and economic unity, announced previously by the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France, the London Conference prepared the establishment of a government for the Western part of Germany, detached from the rest of Germany by the separate actions of the above powers. For this purpose there was envisaged a convocation of a specially-picked constituent assembly composed of representatives of the Laender of the British, American and French occupation zones, which must secure the formation of a puppet government for the western part of Germany, composed of such German elements as suit the occupation authorities in the Western Zones and are bound by close ties with the American and British capitalist monopolies, but are not bound with the German people and treat inimically their democratic aspirations. This means that the United States, Great Britain and France concluded the deal with a view to effecting the political and economic split and dismemberment of Germany with a view toward creating such a separate government in the Western Zones as must oppose the legitimate demands of the German people for Germany's unity and democratization.

In addition to the above measures for effecting the political split and dismemberment of Germany, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France are now also carrying out new measures for the economic split and dismemberment of Germany. Directly following the termination of the London Conference, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France began carrying out the separate currency reform announced on June 18 for the Western Zones of Germany, despite the fact that the above-mentioned communique passed over in silence the decisions of the London Conference on this subject. Separate currency reform in the Western Zones of Germany was effected contrary to the obvious necessity of a single currency reform for the whole of Germany, to be carried out upon an agreement among the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France, as had been proposed by the Soviet Government.

Instead of a single currency system with a single mark for the whole of Germany, which has existed until now, and as was agreed upon previously by the Four Powers, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France separately carried out a currency reform and introduced a special mark for the western part of Germany. This erects an economic barrier between the western part of Germany and the rest of Germany and creates numerous new difficulties in the way of the elimination of the economic dislocation and of the economic rehabilitation of Germany. The entire currency reform in the Western Zones of Germany is being carried out with a view to securing advantages to the big property owners and primarily to those German monopolies which maintain close connections with American and British capitalist monopolies, and this creates the menace of growth of unemployment and the deterioration of the material conditions of the working people in Western Germany and will lead to fresh difficulties in economic relations with other countries.

Such are the inevitable consequences of the London Conference, the decisions of which lead to the consummation of the political and economic split and dismemberment of Germany.

2. The policy of splitting and dismembering Germany thwarts the conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Germany, without which it is impossible to put an end to the drawn-out state of war and to the occupation regime in Europe. It is no accident that the communique of the London Conference does not contain a single word about the Peace Treaty with Germany and does not as much as touch upon the question of the preparation of a peace treaty.

The decisions of the London Conference of the United States, Great

Britain and France, with the participation of the Benelux countries, confirm that the Governments of these Powers and the German circles closely connected with them are not interested in the early conclusion of the German Peace Treaty or in the early withdrawal of occupation troops from Germany. Instead of a peace settlement for the whole of Germany, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France prepared the introduction of the so-called "occupation statute" in the Western Zones of Germany, at which the London communique hints in deliberately nebulous expressions. Whereas the interests of all peace-loving peoples demand the early conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Germany, which must abolish the occupation regime in Germany and fully restore to the German people conditions of peaceful and democratic development, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France do not want to permit an early conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Germany, and strive to impose upon Germany's Western Zones their "occupation statute" in order arbitrarily to prolong the occupation of Germany, loading the German population with the burden of occupation expenditures for many years to come. This policy of the American, British and French authorities, which leads to the enslavement of the German population and to the delaying of the peace settlement in Europe, is incompatible with the tasks of Germany's transformation into a peace-loving and democratic state, and it is incompatible with the striving of the peoples for the earliest establishment of democratic peace in Europe.

3. The decisions concerning the state structure in the Western Zones of Germany are imbued with an anti-democratic spirit. All preparations for the convocation of a so-called Constituent Assembly and for creating a German constitution have been placed in the hands of three military governors and of the prime ministers of the Laender of the Western occupation zones of Germany. The democratic parties, trade unions and other democratic organizations representing the interests of the German people have been completely removed from this work.

The interests of the peace and security of the peoples of Europe call for the elimination of the Hitlerite centralization of state administration in Germany which destroyed the Landtags and autonomous administration of the Laender, and for the restoration of the decentralized administration which existed previous to Hitler's regime, and the re-establishment of Landtags and of two Chambers for the whole of Germany. This will ensure Germany's unity and the transformation of the German State on peaceful and democratic principles, on condition that the democratic organizations will be accorded the possibility of free activities.

The decisions of the London Conference take an entirely different direction.

On the pretext of preventing the restoration of a centralized Reich, the London Conference tries to push Germany back and to impose upon the German people a federalist state in which the principal authority is vested in separate Laender, while the central government administration is confined to functions of secondary importance, despite the fact that this is in contradiction to the modern development of democratic states.

This Anglo-Franco-American plan is aimed at dismembering Germany, which entails the destruction of the independent German State. The implementation of this plan of federalization (dismemberment) of Germany surrenders the idea of Germany's unity to the German chauvinists and revanchists who strive to restore Germany as a militarist country, dominating other peoples. As a result of this, the idea of revanche will rear its head; chauvinism, for which there exists favorable ground in Germany, will gain strength; and conditions will arise for the emergence of new Bismarcks or even new Hitlers. If the German people's aspiration for a united Germany again becomes a tool in the hands of German chauvinists and militarists, who have already received many encouragements from the occupation authorities in the Western Zones of Germany, this will inevitably lead to the repetition of German aggression with the gravest consequences for the peoples of Europe, including the German people, which compels the peace-loving peoples to intensify the measures of struggle against the fomentors of a new war.

4. The policy being pursued by the occupying powers in the Western Zones of Germany encourages the German revisionist elements. These elements conduct a campaign against the agreements adopted at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences with regard to the democratization and demilitarization of Germany, her obligations to repair damage caused by German aggression, and against the well-known decisions on the transfers of the German population, and attempts are being made to exploit this population for purposes hostile to the neighboring states.

The campaign of German revisionist elements is especially directed against the Polish-German frontier along the Oder and the Western Neisse which is an immovable frontier—a frontier of peace. The London Conference passes by the question of the revisionist campaign, thus encouraging the aggressive tendencies of German reactionary circles. In these conditions, the measures against all revisionist activity form one of the most important conditions of the consolidation of the peace and security of the peoples of Europe.

5. The decisions of the London Conference of the Three Powers subordinate the economy of Western Germany to the aims of the United States of America and Britain, rendering it dependent on the implementation of the so-called "Marshall Plan" in Europe. This means that industry and other economic branches in Western Germany will be put in the fetters of the plans of American as well as of British capitalist monopolies, which strive to subjugate the entire economic life of the Western Zones of Germany and are by no means interested in the genuine rehabilitation and progress of German peace industry, which they regard as their competitor.

This policy of expansion is aimed at increasing still more the dependence upon American and British monopolies of countries connected with the "Marshall Plan."

Far from contradicting the interests of the other peoples, the rehabilitation and development of Germany's peace industry complies with the tasks of economic recovery in Europe. The German people should be granted broad

opportunities for restoring and developing peace industry, agriculture and transport, as well as foreign trade, since otherwise Germany cannot exist and discharge her reparations obligations toward countries which suffered from German aggression. Along with this, Four Power control is to be preserved for a certain period in order to prevent the restoration of German war industry and German militarism. The inclusion of the economy of the Western Zones of Germany into the "Marshall Plan" means that this part of Germany is to be included in the division of entire Europe into two camps, being carried out under the "Marshall Plan": the camp of the European states which adopted the "Marshall Plan" and are for this reason subordinated to the control of the United States of America, on the one hand, and that of the European countries, among them the USSR and the people's democratic republics which do not agree to foreign intervention into their domestic affairs, on the other.

Thus, the London Conference not only completes the implementation of the plan for splitting and dismembering Germany but at the same time, in accordance with the "Marshall Plan," further deepens the division of the countries of Europe into camps opposing each other. Clearly, this policy has nothing in common with the true interests of the peoples of Europe or with the economic rehabilitation of Europe. There is no need to mention that the implementation of this policy of the United States, Great Britain and France places the economy of the Western Zones of Germany in unbearable conditions of subordination to the expansionist plans of foreign capital, which does not in any degree consider the interests of democratic Germany.

6. The London Conference passed a special decision on the Ruhr. It has been decided to set up a special agency for controlling the distribution of the Ruhr coal, coke and steel, composed of representatives of the Powers which took part in the London Conference, while the production of coal, coke and steel has been withdrawn from the control of this agency; this ensures the preservation of the domination of American and British financial and industrial monopolies over the Ruhr industry.

Thus, instead of transferring the Ruhr coal and metal trusts and cartels to the German people as their possessions, on which the Soviet Union as well as other participants of the present conference insist, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain actually leave the Ruhr heavy industry in their own hands, without the participation of France and the USSR in the control of production, and without any influence whatever of German democratic organizations. This facilitates the deal between American and British monopolies on the one hand and German coal and steel industry barons in the Ruhr on the other hand, which creates the possibility of re-establishing Germany's war potential and creating a seat of new German aggression.

It is not difficult to see that this policy is absolutely incompatible with the interests of peace, with the interests of the German people and other peoples of Europe. Only the transfer of the Ruhr heavy industry to the German people and the institution, for a definite time, of control over production and distribution of output of the Ruhr industry by the Four Powers—USSR, United States, Great Britain and France—which jointly are able to ensure the development of the Ruhr industry for peace purposes only, would create a possibility of solving the Ruhr problem in the interests of the peace and security of the peoples of Europe.

7. All the above-mentioned shows that the London decisions constitute a gross violation of the Yalta and Potsdam Agreements on the unity of Germany, on the demilitarization, denazification and democratization of Germany, on the destruction of Germany's war-potential and the elimination of the conditions which might facilitate new German aggression.

In view of this, the assertion of the London communique that the London decisions must facilitate the subsequent agreement of the Four Powers on Germany, must be considered utterly untenable. The untenable nature of this assertion is evident even from the fact that the London decisions utterly contradict the decisions taken previously at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, and thwart both the agreement on quadripartite control machinery for Germany and that of the examination of the German question in the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, with the participation of the Four Powers. Far from being able to facilitate the agreement of the Four Powers on Germany, the London separate conferences of the Three Powers, with the participation of Benelux, and the separate decisions of these Powers undermine the confidence of the peoples in international agreements to which the United States and Great Britain are parties. It is not difficult to see that the violation of international agreements cannot inspire confidence in those who violate these agreements.

In view of the above, we refuse to recognize the legal validity or any moral authority whatever of the decisions of the London Conference.

8. In accordance with the Yalta and Potsdam Agreements on Germany, the Governments of the USSR, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland, Romania and Hungary, believe that the following problems are to be settled in the first place without any delay:

I. The implementation of the measures ensuring the final demilitarization of Germany, by agreement among Great Britain, the USSR, France and the United States.

II. The institution for a definite time of control by the Four Powers—Great Britain, USSR, France and the United States—over the Ruhr heavy industry, with a view to developing the peace branches of the Ruhr industry and preventing the re-establishment of Germany's war potential.

III. The establishment, by agreement among the Governments of Great Britain, the USSR, France and the United States, of a provisional, democratic peace-loving government for the whole of Germany, composed of representatives of democratic parties and organizations of Germany, for the purpose of creating a guarantee against the repetition of German aggression.

IV. The conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany, in accordance with the Potsdam decisions, so that the occupation troops of all the Powers should be withdrawn from Germany within one year after the conclusion of the peace treaty.

V. The elaboration of measures for the fulfillment by Germany of her reparations obligations toward the states which suffered from German aggression.

Pravda's Comment on the Warsaw Eight-Power Declaration

The following article appeared in "Pravda" on June 27 under the title, "A Document of Historical Importance."

THE Warsaw Conference of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland, Romania and Hungary is an event of great international significance. This is so, primarily, because the appraisals and conclusions regarding the major questions of the present international situation, formulated at the Conference, express the thoughts and aspirations of the peoples of all countries, of all true adherents of an enduring peace.

The very first comments on the Warsaw Conference show that the Declaration of the eight Ministers of Foreign Affairs holds the center of attention and is meeting with the support of broad sections of the democratic public as a genuine peace manifesto setting forth a program for the only correct solution of the German problem.

The problem which the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the USSR and of the peoples' democracies met to solve is that of making new German aggression impossible. That was the meaning and the aim of the Warsaw Conference. From Warsaw, as the *Robotnik,* organ of the PPS,* wrote, there resounded throughout the world words "which will be endorsed by the peace-loving common people."

The Warsaw Conference was called to discuss the situation which has developed in connection with the decisions taken in London at the secret conference of three Powers, the USA, Britain and France, and in which the Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) participated. The fact that the conference in London was attended by the members of the so-called "Western Union," plus the United States, and the nature of the decisions adopted there, clearly indicate that sponsors of the conference have definitely broken with the policy based on the decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, with the policy directed toward the democratic reconstruction and demilitarization of Germany, and that they are pursuing aims which have nothing in common with the strengthening of peace and the prevention of a recurrence of German aggression.

The special program on the German question which was confirmed at London is opposed in principle to the program adopted at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences. The implementation of the London program is fraught with extremely grave consequences.

Wherein lies the strength of the Potsdam program for dealing with the German question? In the fact that it is based on historical experience and combines a policy for effective external guarantees of the peace and security of the European peoples with a policy for the conversion of Germany into a peaceable democratic state, for the creation within Germany of firm guarantees against the domination of imperialist reaction and its backbone, the magnates of the Ruhr and the Prussian Junkers.

Entirely different aims underlie the London program for dealing with the German question. To begin with, the London program discards international co-operation of the four occupying Powers in Germany; secondly, the London decisions, as pointed out in the statement of the eight Ministers, "cast aside the tasks of the demilitarization and democratization of Germany, the tasks of transforming Germany into a peace-loving and democratic state, and completely pass over in silence Germany's reparations obligations."

The primary aim of the London program is to complete the division and dismemberment of Germany. That is the underlying basis of Anglo-American policy on the European continent, the essence of the widely advertised "Marshall Plan" and the no less widely advertised "Western Military Union."

Since the course they are steering aims at bringing about the political and economic division of Germany, the London decisions outline a whole system of measures directed toward this end. These include the calling of a puppet constituent assembly in the Western Zones of Germany, the setting up of a puppet "Western German Government" which would be obedient to the American and British imperialists and hostile to the democratic aspirations of the German people, and also the separate currency reform announced on June 18.

The London decisions, according to the comment of *The Economist* of London, mean that "the economic and indeed the political fabric of a single German state has been torn in two . . ." *The Economist* regards this as "obviously unsatisfactory, and so fraught with danger for the future that, having reached this last decisive stage, some people in the West are inclined to draw back and question the whole Allied policy which they say has led to this consummation."

The admission of *The Economist* is all the more valuable since that journal is in favor of going on with the policy which has led to the division and dismemberment of Germany.

What is actually the purpose behind this policy of splitting and dismembering Germany?

The purpose is none other than to make Western Germany the object of a deal between the capitalist monopolies of the USA and Britain, and the German magnates of the coal and steel industries of the Ruhr. There is no doubt that the London program of completing the split and dismemberment of Germany is also a program for the enslavement of Western Germany to the American and British monopolies and its conversion into a war-industrial and strategic base of American and British monopoly capital.

In order to make the split and dismemberment of Germany permanent and to undermine the foundations of the popular democratic movement, the London decisions impose upon the German people a federalistic organiza-

* Socialist Party of Poland.

tion of the state. It is quite obvious that a system under which the individual Laender are invested with full state power, while the central government bodies are turned into mere executors of minor functions, means in fact the breakup of Germany and its complete liquidation as an independent state.

But the Anglo-French-American plan is doomed to failure. History cannot be made to alter its forward movement, it cannot be turned back to times long past. Germany can only exist as a single state.

Those who seek to deprive the German nation of its sovereign rights, who seek to take from the German people the idea of their country's unity, make this idea a weapon in the hands of German imperialist reaction, in the hands of the German chauvinists and revanchists. Do not the universally known lessons of history teach us that a deal between Anglo-American monopoly capital and the magnates of the Ruhr can have only one result—a repetition of German imperialist aggression?

It is no accident that all sorts of revisionist tendencies are current in the United States, Great Britain and also in Western Germany. Their aim is to nullify the basic decisions adopted at Yalta and Potsdam; they attack the decisions which established the Polish-German boundary on the Oder and the Western Neisse.

It is time that those who inspire such revisionist campaigns realize that the Polish-German boundary on the Oder and the Western Neisse, which is fully in accord with historic justice, is there to stay—that, as distinctly pointed out in the Declaration of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, it is a frontier of peace.

The policy of splitting and dismembering Germany precludes the possibility of concluding a peace treaty with her. That is why the London decisions have nothing to say about preparing a peace treaty with Germany. That is why the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France, pursuing their selfish aims, are now bustling to impose upon Western Germany a so-called "occupation status," in other words, are bustling to prolong arbitrarily the occupation of Germany, to enslave her population, and to delay the peace settlement in Europe as a whole.

That is the London program for dealing with the German question, a program defying the principles of security, and leading to the destruction of external and internal guarantees against a possible recurrence of German aggression.

The participants in the Warsaw Conference repudiated the London decisions. It is emphasized in the Declaration of the eight Ministers of Foreign Affairs that the countries they represent refuse to recognize the London decisions as having any legal force or any moral authority.

In opposition to the illegal London decisions, the Warsaw Conference formulated a program that fully accords with the decisions of the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences and provides the necessary guarantees against a possible recurrence of German aggression.

Proceeding from the task of converting Germany into a peaceable democratic state based on internal political and economic unity, the Warsaw Conference put forward five questions which require a prompt solution: namely, completion of the demilitarization of Germany on the basis of an agreement among Great Britain, the USSR, France and the USA; establishment of Four-Power control over the heavy industries of the Ruhr for a specified term; formation of a provisional democratic and peaceable government in Germany; conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany in accordance with the Potsdam decisions, and the withdrawal of the occupation troops of all the Powers from Germany within a year after the conclusion of the treaty; and measures to secure the fulfillment by Germany of her reparations obligations.

It is clear to all that this program accords with the true interests of peace and international co-operation; that this is the only way to build up forces within Germany capable of opposing militarism, capable of leading the country along the road of democratic development, without which there can be no real guarantee against a repetition of German aggression.

"Only the Soviet Union and the peoples' democracies could, as is to be seen from the Declaration, provide a program on the German questions which accords with the interests of all the peoples and really serves the cause of peace, democracy and socialism," said V. M. Molotov.

The program for dealing with the German question, adopted by the Warsaw Conference, is prompted by the desire to guarantee to the nations the opportunity for peaceful development in accordance with their wishes, without fear for the future, without apprehension of a repetition of German aggression, which has caused humanity so much suffering. The Warsaw program is a program of consistent struggle for stable and lasting peace among nations.

Vegetation on Mars

PROFESSOR Gavril Tikhov, founder of the new science of "astro-botany," has made a report in Leningrad on his latest studies of vegetation on Mars. He says that the Martian vegetation changes from green to light or deeper blue, depending on the season of the year, and that this is due to the climatic peculiarities of Mars. He remarks that on the earth a light blue tint is peculiar to certain plants growing in northern countries or on high mountains.

The vegetation on Mars probably consists in the main of grass-like plants and creeping bushes of a greenish-blue color, says the professor. Some of them turn brown and dry up in the middle of summer while others preserve their greenish-blue color even in winter. In the Polar regions of Mars, where the sun does not set during half of the Martian year, which equals nearly a whole year on earth, the temperature during this period stays constantly above zero.

Collection of data on the color of various formations on Mars and on the changes of color at various seasons will be continued under Professor Tikhov's direction. These studies will be conducted by means of powerful telescopes equipped with various light filters.

Marshal Sokolovsky's Order On German Currency

Following is the text of Order No. 111 issued by Marshal Sokolovsky, Chief of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany:

A SEPARATE currency reform has been put into effect in the Western Zones of Occupation in Germany. The currency unity, which constituted the basis of economic connections between the various sections of the country, has been broken. A smashing blow has been dealt at Germany's unity. The agreement concerning the control mechanism and the Potsdam Agreement which provided for the preservation of Germany's unity have been violated. The separate currency reform in the Western Zones of Germany completes the splitting of Germany.

The American, British and French occupation authorities have enforced a separate currency reform against the interests of the German people, so as to meet the wishes of the American, British and French monopolies which are out to dismember and weaken Germany and to enslave her economically. Another aim of the separate currency reform in Western Germany is to strengthen the positions of the representatives of big German capital and the Junkers who secured the accession of fascism to power, prepared for and unleashed the Second World War, and today are helping foreign imperialists to enslave Western Germany.

The Soviet Military Administration in Germany, acting in accord with the instructions of the Soviet Government, objected to a separate currency reform in the various zones of occupation in Germany and insisted on a currency reform for the whole of Germany. A single currency reform for the whole of Germany was possible, and it was essential for Germany. In the Control Council, agreement had been reached on the basic principles of a currency reform for the whole of Germany. However, the Four-Power agreement on a general German currency reform, already prepared in its main parts, has been thwarted by the American, British and French occupation authorities.

—Radiophoto, June, 1946

Marshal Sokolovsky

The situation which has now arisen represents a serious threat to the normal recovery and development of the peace economy of all Germany.

Under these conditions, the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, desiring to meet the demands of the German democratic public, is compelled to take urgent measures to safeguard the interests of the German population and of the economy of the Soviet Zone of Occupation and the Greater Berlin area. In view of this, the Soviet Military Administration has accepted the proposal of the German Economic Commission for a currency reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany.

Unlike the separate currency reform in the Western Zones of Occupation in Germany, which is being enforced in the interests of foreign and German monopolies, the currency reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany will take into account the interests of the working people and will be based on the principles of social justice and the need for the speedy recovery and development of Germany's peace economy. The currency reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation must drastically reduce the amount of money

in circulation and make it accord with the requirements of economic development. At the same time it must be so carried out as to involve the smallest possible losses to the working population. The brunt of the losses inevitable in a currency reform must be borne by persons who made their money in the war, through profiteering or by illegal black market operations. The currency reform must create extensive opportunities for the further development of industry and agriculture, primarily on the basis of strengthening the major industries belonging to the people, on the basis of strengthening the farms of working peasants, and also of making use of private enterprises directed toward the development of the peace economy.

Naturally, the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, insisting as it did on a currency reform for the whole of Germany, did not deem it possible to pursue a double policy and to prepare in secret for a separate currency reform. As a result of this, there is at present no printed paper money available for the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany. The currency reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation will be carried out on the basis of the reichsmarks and rentenmarks by pasting special coupons on them.

For the success of the currency reform, it is imperative that the entire population and all democratic organizations and the press of the Soviet Zone of Occupation should actively help to carry it out properly, in accordance with the established procedure, and should also assist in bringing about speedy economic progress and in the overcoming of economic difficulties, in expanding trade and combating profiteering, the black market and the illegal raising of prices.

Taking into consideration the proposal of the German Economic Commission and the wishes of German democratic public opinion,

I hereby order:

1. That throughout the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany and in the Greater Berlin area there shall be introduced, as of June 24, 1948, new money tokens: reichsmarks and rentenmarks of the old design with special coupons pasted on them.

Small metal change shall remain in circulation at nominal value.

2. That it shall be established that the sole legal tender in the Soviet Zone of Occupation and in the Greater Berlin area is reichsmarks and rentenmarks with special coupons pasted on them, and also the metal money now in circulation.

3. To prevent the disruption of money circulation and to eliminate economic difficulties, only the new money of the Soviet Zone of Occupation shall circulate in the Greater Berlin area, which is in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany and, in the economic respect, represents a part of the Soviet Zone.

4. That it shall be the duty of the entire population and of managers of enterprises, organizations and offices in the Soviet Zone of Occupation and in the Greater Berlin area to hand over, by June 28, 1948 all reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government to credit institutions to be exchanged for the new money tokens—reichsmarks and rentenmarks of the old design with special coupons pasted on them.

5. That the exchange of reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government for the new money tokens—reichsmarks and rentenmarks with special coupons pasted on them—shall begin on June 24 and end on June 28, 1948.

The exchange of reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government shall be discontinued as of June 29.

6. That during the first two days of the exchange, i.e., June 24 and 25, the old money—reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government—shall be permitted to circulate and be accepted in payment everywhere along with the new money tokens at the rate of 10 old marks for one new mark.

The circulation of marks of the Allied Military Government and also of reichsmarks and rentenmarks without special coupons pasted on them shall be discontinued as of June 26.

7. That the *Rules Governing the Currency Reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany,* submitted by the German Economic Commission, shall be confirmed, and that it shall be made incumbent upon the German Economic Commission and also upon the Governments of the Laender and the Magistrat and other administrative bodies of the City of Berlin to carry out the exchange of reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government for new money tokens—reichsmarks and rentenmarks with special coupons pasted on them —and also the revaluation of deposits and current accounts, at the rate of 10 marks in the old money for one mark in the new money tokens, with the exception of cases of preferential and special conditions for their exchange and revaluation, as enumerated in the mentioned Rules, particularly:

(*a*) To ensure, in order to safeguard the current incomes of the working population, the preferential exchange of paper money up to 70 marks per person at the rate of 1:1;

(*b*) to ensure, in order to safeguard savings from work and the interests of insurants, the preferential revaluation of savings deposits at the rate of 1:1 up to 100 marks and at the rate of 5:1 up to 1,000 marks, and of insurance policies at the rate of 3:1;

(*c*) current accounts of state, municipal and other public enterprises to be revalued on preferential terms at the rate of 1:1;

(*d*) current accounts of other industrial enterprises to be revalued on preferential terms, at the rate of 1:1, within the limits of the weekly turnover and the amount of outstanding wages, and current accounts of commercial and other business organizations to be exchanged on preferential terms, at the rate of 1:1, to the amount of their weekly payroll;

(*e*) to assist the further strengthening of the farms of peasants who received land under the land reform, the credits granted to these farms shall be revalued on preferential terms, at the rate of 5:1;

(*f*) current accounts and deposits made up to May 9, 1945, and at present blocked, shall be revalued at the rate of 10:1, and bonds of an internal loan shall be issued for the sum obtained after the revaluation. In cases of current account balances or deposits exceeding 3,000 marks per depositor, the latter shall be given the loan bonds only after the legitimacy of the accumulation of the funds in question has been verified.

Within three months after the promulgation of this Order, the

German Economic Commission shall decide on the conditions and terms of the internal loan to be issued.

(*g*) In order to wipe out accumulations obtained from war contracts, speculation, unlawful raising of prices and black market operations, the exchange of cash over 5,000 marks per family and of current account balances and deposits of more than 5,000 marks each shall be permitted only after the legitimacy of the origin of such sums has been verified. Incomes accumulated by persons who made their money in the war or obtained it by profiteering, illegal raising of prices and black market operations, are considered unlawful and are subject to confiscation. Likewise, funds belonging to fascist and war criminals shall be confiscated.

The German Economic Commission shall issue instructions on the procedure to be followed in verifying the legitimacy of the origin of such funds, and shall ensure thorough verification and the confiscation of unlawfully-obtained incomes, within two months after the promulgation of the present Order.

8. In carrying out the currency reform, all wages and salaries, pensions and stipends, and also prices for all types of commodities and services, shall be maintained at their former level.

9. Germany's internal state debt formed prior to May 9, 1945, and all Germany's foreign debts, as well as promissory notes in closed banks, shall not be affected by the currency reform.

The purchase and sale of bonds of internal loans issued prior to May 9, 1945, and also the payment of interest on such bonds, shall be prohibited.

10. Reichsmarks, rentenmarks and marks of the Allied Military Government belonging to generals and officers of the Soviet Army troops and the personnel of the Soviet Military Administration shall be exchanged at the rate of 1:1 to an amount not exceeding their two-weeks' salary; and those belonging to privates and sergeants to an amount not exceeding the monthly salary, which they receive in German money.

Sums exceeding the mentioned amounts shall be exchanged at the rate of 10:1.

Savings banks deposits and current accounts, in German currency, of such persons shall be annulled and not be subject to revaluation.

11. The Chief Financial Department of the German Economic Commission shall direct the entire work involved in carrying out the currency reform and shall be responsible for the strict observance of the rules for the exchange of cash and notes and the revaluation of savings banks deposits and current accounts in conformity with the approved *Rules Governing the Currency Reform in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany.*

12. The direction of and responsibility for the enforcement of the currency reform shall be placed upon the Prime Ministers of the Laender, upon the Burgomasters and Landrats in the towns and districts, and on the district Burgomasters and the Magistrat of the city in the Greater Berlin area.

The Prime Ministers of the Laender and the Burgomasters and Landrats of towns and districts shall draw up a list of credit institutions permitted to carry out the exchange, and shall issue instructions to place at the disposal of the credit institutions the necessary personnel, to provide them with proper premises and to ensure the safety of valuables while the currency reform is being carried out.

13. The exchange of old money, and the revaluation of accounts and deposits shall be performed through the German Bank of Accounts and Issue, the Laender Banks of Accounts and Issue, and in the city of Berlin through the Bank's city office.

The revaluation of savings banks deposits and current accounts shall be completed not later than by June 30, 1948.

14. Forgery of the special coupons for the money tokens will be regarded as forgery and counterfeiting of money, and the persons guilty of it will be held responsible in accordance with the existing laws.

The circulation in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany and in the Greater Berlin area of money tokens other than those provided for in Article 1 of the present Order, and also the circulation of reichsmarks and rentenmarks without the special coupons pasted on them, shall be regarded as actions designed to undermine economic life, and the persons guilty of such actions shall be punished.

The German Department of Internal Affairs in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany, the Ministers of Internal Affairs of the Laender and the Chiefs of Police of Berlin and its districts shall combat the crimes mentioned in Article 14 of the present Order.

15. The Main Financial Department of the German Economic Commission in the Soviet Zone of Occupation in Germany, the Finance Ministers of the Laender and the city office of the Bank of the City of Berlin shall have the duty to furnish current information on the progress of the exchange of money and the revaluation of accounts, and also final reports on the results of the currency reform.

16. It shall be the duty of the German Economic Commission, the Laender governments, the Landrats and Burgomasters of towns and districts, in order to stabilize money circulation:

(*a*) to ensure strict control over the maintenance of existing prices and to take drastic measures to combat the black market and speculation;

(*b*) to take measures to expand production of manufactured goods, to increase agricultural output and to ensure the supply of manufactured goods and food to the population;

(*c*) to draw up proposals for changes in tax laws with a view to the leveling of the hardships of the aftermath of the war, equitable taxation of current incomes of enterprises, and protection of savings from work;

(*d*) to take measures to reduce excessive administrative and other unproductive expenditures, to ensure a balanced budget and a maximum of investments to rehabilitate the economy of the Zone.

17. The Chief of the Finance Department of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany shall exercise general control over the enforcement of the present Order.

Chief of the Soviet Military Administration, Commander-in-Chief of the Group of Soviet Occupation Forces in Germany,

MARSHAL OF THE SOVIET UNION
V. SOKOLOVSKY

Chief of Staff of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany,

LT.-GENERAL G. LUKYANCHENKO

The German People's Will

By D. Melnikov
Soviet Information Bureau Commentator

THE national poll on the unity referendum taken in Germany between May 26 and June 13 represents a striking expression of the desire of the German people to have a united, democratic Germany. More than 90 per cent of the constituency in the Soviet Occupation Zone (Saxony, Mecklenburg, Brandenburg, etc.) participated in the national poll. Hundreds of thousands of Germans signed the referendum petitions in the Western Zones, despite the fact that they were thereby exposed to repressions and persecutions. More than 750 thousand persons signed the petitions in the Northern Rhineland and Westphalia (including 300 thousand in the Ruhr area).

The fact that so vast a number of Germans signed the demand for a referendum deprives the opponents of Germany's unity of any moral or legal grounds for rejecting the demand for a national referendum.

The Weimar Constitution required 4,500,000 votes for sanctioning a referendum. According to incomplete data, the present referendum petitions were signed by 13,124,000 Germans —almost three times the number demanded by the Weimar Constitution.

This does not mean that the question of a referendum in Germany has been decided. The occupation authorities of the Western Powers have on several occasions shown how little regard they have for the demands of the German people, particularly on the question of unity. Ignoring the will of the German people, they forced a separate administration upon the population in the Western Zones, included Western Germany in the notorious "Marshall Plan", adopted a decision on a separate currency reform, on the convocation of a constituent assembly for the Western Zones and on the formation of a new government in Trizonia in the near future.

The results of the national poll indicate that this policy is emphatically rejected by the German people.

It shows how well-justified were those democratic elements who maintained that the German people wish to see their country united and are prepared to fight with all their strength for this unity. The unity movement now constitutes a great force which seriously alarms international reaction. "The popular masses," declared Otto Grotewohl recently, "have become fully aware of the significance of the idea of Germany's unity. The unity idea has developed into a tangible force which points to us the way to a future peaceful Germany where it will be worth while to live and work."

The reactionary newspapers of the western countries speak with alarm of the power acquired by the movement for Germany's unity. The London *Sunday Times*, for example, wrote on May 30 of a "new resistance movement" taking shape in Germany, which is expressed in refusal to co-operate with the British and American authorities in the realization of their plans for Bizonia—for there is growing uneasiness among the Germans concerning the division of Germany. This, continued the paper, may lead to the boycott of the West German Government by many respected German political representatives.

And indeed, their fear of arousing the dissatisfaction of the German people has prompted even some reactionary-minded German politicians to dissociate themselves from the splitting activities of the Western Powers. After the publication of the London decisions of the Six-Power Conference on the division of Germany, Otto Seling, one of the leaders of the reactionary Christian Democratic Union, announced his resignation from the committee for drafting proposals on the currency reform. Even such an open reactionary as Adenauer, leader of the Christian Democratic Union in the Western Zones, adopted a highly critical attitude toward the London decisions, saying that their realization would "place all power over the German national economy in the hands of other states." All this indicates that the domestic as well as the foreign reactionary forces are no longer able to ignore the movement for Germany's unity, the tremendous scope of which was again revealed by the results of the national poll.

In his address at the London session of the Council of Foreign Ministers, V. M. Molotov declared that the German question cannot be settled without the German people, that a peace treaty with Germany cannot be signed without a German national government. Such a settlement, he said, would not be stable, it would lack a solid base.

The results of the national poll attest to the correctness of these words of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, the correctness of the policy of the Soviet Union, which insists on the establishment of a united, democratic and peace-loving Germany.

Leipzig Conference Held

According to the ADN agency, the first conference of representatives of people's enterprises of the Soviet Zone of Germany opened in Leipzig on July 4, attended by eight thousand delegates. Heinrich Grau, chairman of the German Economic Commission, in his opening remarks thanked the Soviet occupation authorities for their help in the reconstruction of German economy.

Fritz Seldman reported on the role and tasks of the people's enterprises. He spoke of reaction's attempts to influence the economy of the Eastern Zone, and emphasized the fact that the socialized sector was the basis for the policy of planning and leadership in that Zone. He reported on the plans to accomplish large-scale amalgamations of the most important enterprises of the Zone; and he stressed the necessity of trade relations with the Eastern European countries.

Walter Ulbricht, vice-chairman of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany, described in detail the two-year economic plan for the Soviet Zone. The conference also approved a resolution of the factory committees which expressed the working people's support for the two-year plan.

THE HARVEST. The grain is nearly ripe in the South, and soon scenes like this will be common. Harvesting in Soviet Georgia.

Riches from the Earth

By M. Sukhanov

In Siberia the recently sown fields have become densely carpeted with green, while in the republics of Central Asia and Transcaucasia reaping of grain is going on apace, and trucks and carts laden with grain of the new harvest are streaming to the state elevators and collective farm granaries. Gathering of the harvest will soon begin in the steppes of the Kuban and Don areas, in the Ukraine and in the Crimea.

In letters to Stalin, the Soviet peasants have pledged to extend sowing areas and to increase crop yields. Millions of peasants are engaging in socialist competition in their efforts to fulfill these obligations. Collective farms, machine-and-tractor stations, brigades of collective farmers as well as individual collective farmers are all engaging in socialist competition. The Ukraine offers a vivid example of the mass nature and fruitfulness of this socialist competition. In this important granary of the USSR, 369 thousand collective farm groups, 87 thousand brigades, 28 thousand collective farms and 1,240 machine-and-tractor stations have joined in socialist competition.

Supported by the powerful state machine-and-tractor stations, the Ukrainian tillers of the soil have sown more spring wheat, the most valuable crop, than they had planned, and have sown more sugar beet, cotton, flax, hemp, the rubber-bearing plant kok sagyz, and other crops than they did last year. By the beginning of June the sown area of spring crops was 1,200,000 hectares* more than last year. Sowing was done in brief periods —early grain crops were sown in five to seven days. And now grain is ripening splendidly on the Ukrainian fields.

The peasants of Byelorussia have also topped the spring sowing plan, completing it 20 days earlier than last year. This year's sown area in Byelorussia is 302 thousand hectares more than in 1947. In Kazakhstan the area sown with spring wheat exceeds that of last year by 350 thousand hectares. Moreover, the sowing area was extended and the plan fulfilled much earlier than last year in the Kalinin, Velikiye Luki, Orel, Voronezh Regions, in the Krasnodar Territory and other places in the Russian Federation.

*One hectare = 2.471 acres.

On June 15 Soviet newspapers published an official communique stating that the collective and individual peasant farms of the Soviet Union had overfulfilled the plan for grain and leguminous sowings. Seventy-nine regions, territories and republics of the USSR exceeded their quotas. Spring sowing was better organized and carried out in shorter periods than last year. Spring wheat sowings, as of June 10, exceeded last year's sowings by 5,300,000 hectares.

Such agronomic measures as harrowing, and top-dressing winter crops with fertilizers, were carried out as usual this year on the fields of the USSR. Shorter periods of sowing, top-dressing and other agronomic measures have created favorable conditions for normal development of the plants.

The struggle for a big harvest has been and is being waged this year by the Soviet peasantry under difficult weather conditions. In an estimate of this year's spring, the well-known Soviet scientist Ivan Yakushkin, Member of the Lenin Agricultural Academy, wrote: "This spring the weather was exceedingly capricious. The most

serious of these caprices were the lateness of the spring in the south, strong frosts in April, dryness in the first week of May in the central belt, and in the whole of May in a number of the southern districts."

Yet despite the difficult meteorological situation, Soviet peasants carried out sowings more successfully and more rapidly than last year. This is to be explained by the very nature of socialist agriculture, equipped as it is with the most up-to-date techniques and utilizing, as it does, modern agricultural science. Without tractors, which the state machine-and-tractor stations place at the disposal of all Soviet peasants, it would have been impossible to make up for time lost due to the lateness of the spring; it would have been impossible to carry out sowing in brief periods and to have completed sowings earlier than last year. Without tractors and without airplanes it would have been impossible to effect top-dressing of winter crops with fertilizers on millions of hectares of land. All this would have been beyond the power of peasants working singly on small farms; all this is now successfully carried out in the USSR on the large-scale collective farms.

Soviet industry is steadily supplying the rural population with machines. By the beginning of this year's spring sowing, Soviet agriculture had received twice as many machines as it received last year. Powerful tractors of a new design have come to the collective farm fields from the Stalingrad, Chelyabinsk, Kharkov and other plants. The collective farms have also received new plows, seed drills and other agricultural machines.

The machine-and-tractor stations, able to supply an increased number of tractors to the collective farms, played a decisive role in the successful fulfillment of the spring sowing plan.

And now, as the harvesting begins, the machine-and-tractor stations have received and are distributing for use a huge number of the most modern harvesting machines. Soviet industry, for instance, is supplying the machine-and-tractor stations with such new improved combines as the Stalinets-6 for gathering grain that yields especially high crops. And production of self-propelled harvester combines has also been inaugurated.

The struggle for the harvest is being waged full scale. And the Soviet peasants are fully armed for this struggle —they are carefully tending the sowings; they are top-dressing the plants with fertilizers; they are irrigating the fields and carrying out other agronomic measures. In addition, the steady growth of mechanization of agriculture and the ever-increasing number of machines on the fields are constantly enhancing the efficiency of agriculture and creating all the conditions necessary for a successful struggle for the harvest.

The first reports from the harvesting fields indicate that the Soviet peasants are fulfilling with honor the obligations they have undertaken in the drive for a big harvest this year. The Bagirov collective farm in Azerbaijan is harvesting from two and one-half to three tons of grain per hectare, and the Voroshilov collective farm in Georgia one and eight-tenths tons. One of the state farms in Rostov Region, with an area of about four thousand hectares, has obtained crop yields ranging from two to two and one-half tons of grain per hectare. Similar reports are coming from Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Armenia and other parts of the Soviet Union.

Soviet peasants are adopting every measure to gather this year's harvest on time and without any losses.

COTTON. The "white gold" of the Uzbek Republic being harvested at Kaganovich collective farm.

The Arctic Yields to Man

By A. Lozhechko

BOULDERS and marshes are all that the eye meets on Kola Peninsula. This vast area, situated in the northwest of the USSR beyond the Arctic Circle, was covered by glaciers during the ice age. The glaciers left an endless trail of boulders. In spots they are overgrown with moss or covered with a layer of sand; trees occasionally grow on the topsoil. But at every step one sees boulders jutting out of the earth—rocks that are as round and smooth-surfaced as if they had been polished by sea waves.

Kola Peninsula has not been endowed with a mild climate. Summers are short; winds are fierce; frosts strike early. This bitter climate is a great handicap to plant life.

The well-known scientists, Gaberlandt and Krueger, had claimed that farming is impossible beyond the Arctic Circle (at about 67 degrees N. Lat.), and life itself seemed to bear out their assertions. When, for instance, Russian settlers in tsarist times tried to grow grain or vegetables on the Kola Peninsula, their barley froze and their potatoes produced no tubers.

About twenty-five years ago, however, a man came to this desolate tundra, fired by what many regarded as a fantastic dream. He had set himself the goal of bringing farming into the rocky and frigid tundra. An Estonian named Johann Eichfeld, this man was a member of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), and a recent graduate of the Leningrad Agricultural Institute.

Eichfeld began by organizing an experimental station at Khibini, at 67 degrees N. Lat.

He cleared a section of land close to Lake Imandra and decided to prove by experimentation that the poor Khibini soils could be made fertile. He determined to discover under what conditions grains and vegetables could be grown beyond the Arctic Circle. He planted potatoes, turnips, beets, spinach, radishes and cabbage, fertilizing them with manure that had been dropped by herds of cattle driven through that district during the First World War.

Academician Johann Eichfeld

An assistant soon arrived—a middle-aged woman agronomist named Maria Khrennikova. Together they carefully tended every plant.

But before long the first blow fell. An early-morning summer frost killed their crops. The labor of the two pioneers seemed lost. But when the two scientists closely examined the plants they found some had managed to survive.

"Couldn't they become the forebears of the new, hardy, frost-resisting varieties?" Eichfeld wondered.

But as the few surviving plants developed, strange things began to happen. Some varieties of potatoes produced luxuriant tops but no tubers; radishes, beets and cabbages flowered, but formed no roots. Spinach flowered but did not yield any leaves. This was due to the long arctic day. True, the endless day had its positive aspects as well: the abundance of sunshine compensated for the lack of heat. And some varieties of oats which did not mature in Leningrad Region began to yield in Khibini.

Eichfeld and Khrennikova decided then to select the best early-ripening and frost-resistant varieties which could survive the arctic day.

The pioneers planted thousands of different varieties from different corners of the globe on their experimental plots. Gradually, by selection, they evolved varieties that could withstand early frost and go through the entire cycle of plant development in the course of the short arctic summer, varieties that were not harmed by the long arctic day.

Despite the opinion of some renowned scientists the two experimenters had proved that plants can be grown beyond the Arctic Circle! This was a major victory for Eichfeld and Khrennikova.

But that was only the first lap on a hard trail. The grains and vegetables they grew thrived only on fertilized soils. And on Kola Peninsula organic fertilizer was a rarity. The new obstacle seemed insurmountable.

At this juncture Eichfeld thought of the Khibini marshlands. What about drying them? The reclaimed land would be much more fertile than the rocky and sandy soils.

Eichfeld and a workman named Mikhail Onokhin uprooted trees, cleared shrubs and dug drainage ditches. The reclaimed area was then divided into three plots. One was left without any plant food. On the second, mineral fertilizers were used. On the third, organic fertilizers were applied.

The section on which mineral fertilizers were used produced a splendid crop. This opened up excellent prospects for farming on the reclaimed marshy tundra of the Kola Peninsula. The only difficulty was that of bringing in mineral fertilizers from afar.

Within several years a little settlement grew up on the banks of Lake Imandra. Several pioneers who set out to introduce farming in the Far North toiled there throughout the summer and the long arctic winter.

At the end of the 1920's huge deposits of apatite (a valuable mineral that can be used for the production of phosphate fertilizers), were discovered

SIBERIAN WHEAT. S. Kirilin of the Yakut ASSR in Arctic Siberia, with wheat grown there.

in the Khibini Mountains. Johann Eichfeld at once realized that the Khibini apatite placed solid ground beneath his cherished dream. Enthusiastically he took part in the first surveys for apatite, the white stone of fertility. He made many experiments to establish the influence of apatite on local soils and sent samples to Leningrad and Moscow for detailed study.

The tapping of apatite resources was soon launched on a large scale on the initiative of Sergei Kirov, eminent leader of the Bolshevik Party and noted Soviet statesman. A mine was sunk and an entire city was built on the bank of Lake Vudyavr. This town was later named after Kirov.

As the population of Kirovsk grew, the problem of supplies, of providing milk, potatoes and other vegetables came to the fore. It was then that Eichfeld had the chance to apply the results of years of experimentation and research to practical use. He proposed that the world's northernmost large-scale agricultural enterprise be set up near Khibini. It took the concrete shape of a truck and dairy farm—"Industria", administered by the Apatite Trust.

In 1931 the farm planted its first two hectares. Now the sown area is two thousand hectares.* The farm supplies potatoes, beets, cabbage, cucumbers and tomatoes to the inhabitants of Kirovsk. And when "Industria" acquired its own cows, milk trucks began to arrive in Kirovsk every day.

Until 1932 agronomists at the arctic experimental station evolved new varieties by selection. Subsequently they set out to develop new sorts by crossing. Noil Veselovsky, one of Eichfeld's assistants, crossed a frost-resistant, wild-growing, South American potato with a cultivated variety that yields good tubers. Veselovsky planted the seeds he obtained and then, from among several thousand plants, he chose two hundred which possessed the greatest resistance to frost and yet produced high yields. This is how he evolved new varieties of the northern potato such as "Imandra", "Imandra's Sister" and others.

*One hectare = 2.471 acres.

Crossing was also employed to develop new varieties of tomatoes, cabbage, barley, oats and fodder grasses.

Several researchers—Pavel Gusev, Elizabeth Palchikova, Filat Mankov—worked zealously under the guidance of Eichfeld on the transformation of the northern tundra.

Then the war came and the front drew close to Khibini. German planes bombed the apatite mines. They also bombed the Arctic Branch of the All-Union Institute for Plant Growing, as the experimental station was named, destroying one of the laboratories and several hothouses.

But work at the station did not stop for a single day. For example, during the war, employees of the station evolved a new variety of cabbage the heads of which keep well during the winter months.

Scientists at Khibini are now waging a successful struggle against agricultural pests. There had been no pests there in the past but with the change in flora there was a change in fauna: the introduction of vegetables was followed by the appearance of several common pests. They behave differently under arctic conditions than in the central zone; new methods of combating them had to be devised.

Now Johann Eichfeld, a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and a Stalin Prize Winner, no longer lives on Kola Peninsula. He is the head of the All-Union Institute for Plant Growing and resides in Leningrad. But he frequently goes to Khibini. During his visits he spends a great deal of time with his old friends, going over every detail of their work, every new experiment, often suggesting new ideas, new lines to follow in their struggle against the grim weather of the Arctic.

The work started by the pioneers of northern agriculture has spread beyond Khibini. A number of state farms have been set up in Murmansk Region. The local inhabitants, the Saami, who grew no grain in the past, now raise good harvests of rye on their collective farm fields. Eight thousand hectares of land are now being cultivated in what was formerly barren tundra.

The labor of the pioneers is breathing new life into the far north.

Six Stalin Prize Winners in Science

By Vladimir Shepel
Soviet Engineer

OF THE 45 Soviet scholars who were recently awarded Stalin Prizes, six are representatives of physico-mathematical sciences.

The Stalin Prize, first class, was conferred upon Academician Abram Alikhanov and his brother, Artemy Alikhanyan, member of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian SSR, for researches into the sphere of cosmic rays, which led to the discovery of new elementary particles—varitrons.

The Soviet scientists Alikhanov and Alikhanyan discovered in the composition of cosmic rays new elementary charged particles with masses equalling 200, 350, 500, 950, 2,000, 3,400, 8,000, 20,000 electron masses. This is one of the greatest discoveries made in recent years in the physics of cosmic rays, for it changes the conception of elementary particles and opens new horizons in regard to the solution of the problem of nuclear forces.

The discovery of these particles was made possible because of the ingenious apparatus designed by Alikhanov and Alikhanyan for the observation of cosmic rays, and the organization of a special high-altitude laboratory in which numerous, extremely painstaking analyses of the composition of the particles of cosmic rays could be made.

Academician Abram Alikhanov of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

Academician Artemi Alikhanyan of the Armenian Academy.

The Stalin Prize, first class, was posthumously conferred upon Nikolai Chebotarev, late corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, for fundamental researches into the theory of algebraic equations, outlined in his monograph *The Problem of the Resolvent,* published in 1947.

The problem of the resolvent is one of the most important in the theory of algebraic equations. Some of the most eminent mathematicians in the world, Hermite, Kronecker, Crane, Riemann, Hilbert and others, obtained results applicable only to individual cases of this important problem. Chebotarev was the first mathematician to arrive at a result applicable in all cases.

The Stalin Prize, second class, for outstanding work in the sphere of physico-mathematical sciences was awarded to three Soviet scientists—Alexander Shalnikov, Vladimir Smirnov and Gennady Goluzin.

Alexander Shalnikov, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, head of the laboratory in the Institute of Problems of Physics, received the prize for his experimental researches into super-conductivity. He elaborated a micro-method of measuring magnetic fields, which permitted measurements to be taken within extremely narrow fissures.

(Continued on page 412)

Professor Alexander Shalnikov

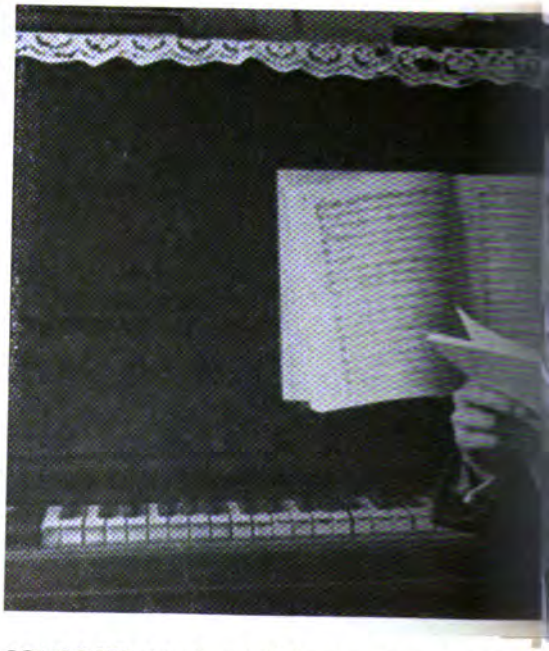
Professor Gennady Goluzin

Soviet News in Pictures

DRAMA STUDENT. Maria Redlich in Ostrovsky's "Storm."

"ROOF OF THE WORLD." So the towering Pamirs are called. This group, led by Eugen
"Mt. Nameless", never scaled before, and rechristened it "Mt. 1

RECONSTRUCTION. New housing for Minsk auto workers. The restoration of the city has provided many fine new houses.

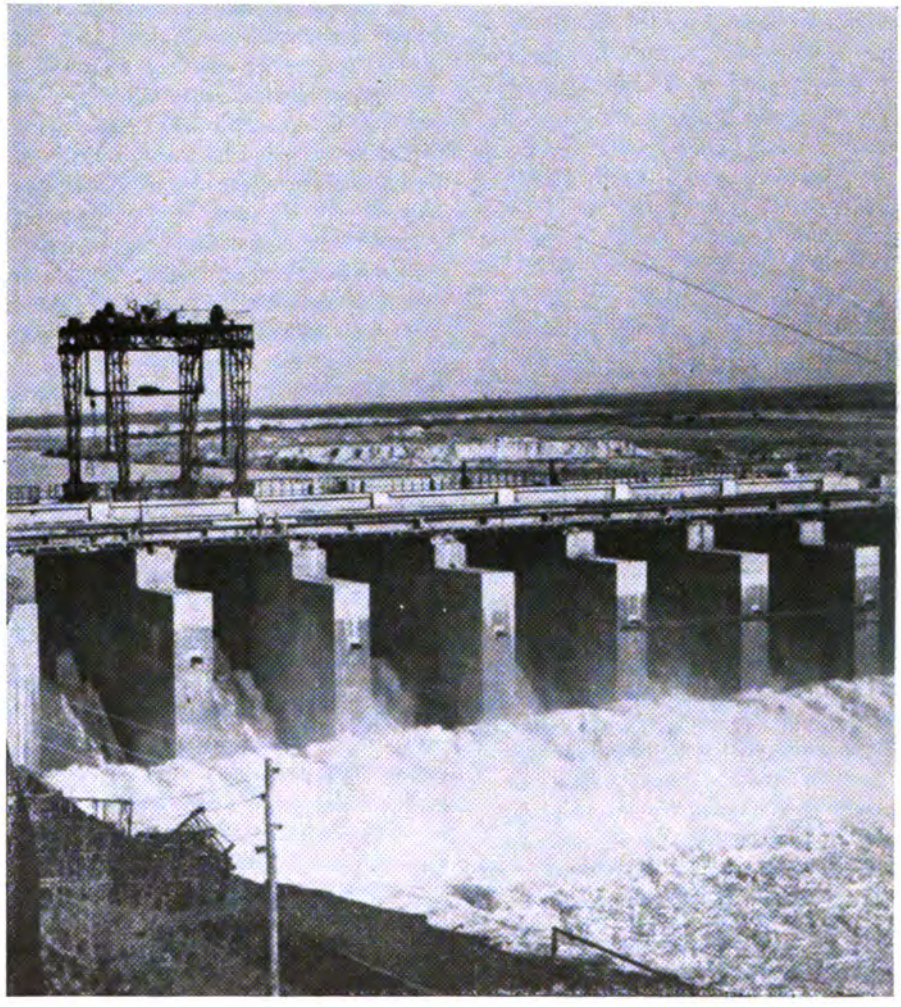


COMPOSER. Mukhan Tulebayev, composer of
Under the tsars, the Kazakhs were o

alakov, recently climbed the peak called
th of October."

zakh national opera "Berjan and Sara."
ed and had no intelligentsia.

SUMMER IN THE COUNTRY. Nurseries and kindergartens move to the suburbs in hot weather. Children of Kiev.



EASTERN DAM. The Farkhad Dam in the Uzbek SSR, serving the Farkhad power station, recently put into production.

A Scientist Who Saw the Future

By Alexander Churakov
Doctor of Geology

ALEXANDER Karpinsky, who died on July 15, 1936, was one of the founders of Russian geology, and a scholar of world fame. In his very first researches Karpinsky showed himself to be a subtle observer of nature, an outstanding research worker. Working in the Russian Geological Committee, he made annual trips to the Urals, the Ukraine and what are now the western districts of the European part of the USSR. Karpinsky conducted research in the spheres of mineralogy, petrography, soil science, paleontology, historical geology, tectonics, geo-physics, paleo-geography, the history of the science of geology, even meteorology. He established the first principles of geochemistry, a science which only came into being in the twentieth century.

During the last two decades of the past century Karpinsky published a number of works on the history of the geological development of European Russia. These articles, short and written in simple language, revealed the complicated picture of the recession and advance of the sea on the great Russian plain.

Karpinsky constantly showed in his works that broad theoretical generalizations were necessary not merely for the development of science but also to satisfy the economic requirements of the country. On the basis of exploration and research he deduced the presence of salt deposits in the Ukraine, a conjecture which was subsequently confirmed. This scholar pointed out that coal deposits must stretch to the east of the Donets coal basin. This was confirmed in the years of Soviet power, when drilling commenced in the district indicated by Karpinsky. The eminent scientist also predicted the discovery of the Chelyabinsk lignite deposits in the Urals.

A mining engineer by profession and a natural scientist by inclination, Karpinsky did equally successful work in connection with theoretical problems of geology and the solution of practical problems of mining. He never separated theory from practice.

In studying extinct animals, Karpinsky was one of the first Russian paleontologists to base his work on Charles Darwin's evolutionary theory. Having thoroughly examined the fossil shells of cephalopod mollusks (ammonites), the scientist brilliantly proved how simply and easily structural features of the ancient ancestors of these mollusks could be found in the fossil shells. In this way, he confirmed one of Darwin's chief assertions—to the effect that the early stages of the growth of an organism show us the forms of its distant ancestors.

The Seventh International Geological Congress was held in Russia in 1897. Karpinsky enjoyed great prestige among Russian and foreign geologists and he was elected chairman of the organizational committee of the Congress. Foreign geologists stated that, in respect to the abundance of interesting scientific data laid before them, the Seventh Congress surpassed all previous ones. Russian geological science won absolute recognition throughout the world.

Alexander Karpinsky was a member of 21 foreign academies and scientific societies, and a fellow of 29 Russian scientific societies, universities and institutes.

After the establishment of Soviet power in Russia, Karpinsky was elected president of the Academy of Sciences and held this post for nearly twenty years. During this period he continued his studies of the metallic riches of the Urals—the deposits of platinum, gold, iron and coal. He discovered and described a new nickel deposit. Alexander Karpinsky was the author of a number of works on mineral deposits in other parts of the country also. Thanks to him, large oil deposits were discovered and in recent years a large oil base has been formed in the east of the USSR. Karpinsky described the geological structure of the Urals and gave us a detailed outline of the geological structure of the whole of the so-called Russian platform.

To Alexander Karpinsky belongs the credit of laying the foundations for a study of the mineral raw material resources of the Soviet Union. He gave all his knowledge and experience to the work of building the first socialist state in the world. Seventy years of his life were spent in tireless work in the spheres of geology and mining.

Karpinsky died in 1936. His ashes are buried in the Kremlin wall, next to the ashes of other great men of the land of socialism. He has left countless pupils who are continuing his work.

Stalin Prizes

(Continued from page 409)

This method made it possible to carry out experiments resulting in the discovery of the laminate structure of super-conductors in the intermediary stage, and the appearance and disappearance of this structure when the sample was brought to a condition of super-conductivity during changes of temperature and of the magnetic field.

Academician Vladimir Smirnov, professor of the Leningrad State University, became a Stalin Prize Laureate for his work, *A Course in Higher Mathematics* in five volumes, the last of which was printed in 1947.

Academician Smirnov's *A Course in Higher Mathematics* is the first extensive Russian course of analysis covering all modern analyses, including the most up-to-date theories. The achievements of mathematics in general, as well as the author's own researches into the sphere of analysis, are contained in this work. Smirnov's book demonstrates the leading role of Russian and Soviet mathematical science.

Professor Gennady Goluzin of the Leningrad University won the Stalin Prize for his works on the theory of the functions of the complex variable. These works complete his many years' researches into the theory of the functions of the complex variable and variational calculus, the results of which are now widely used in electrotechnical, hydrodynamic and aerodynamic computations.

These outstanding new achievements of Soviet physicists and mathematicians are extremely important contributions to world science.

The Fatal Policy

By Boris Izakov

This is the last of three articles by the noted Soviet journalist, Boris Izakov, in which he comments on the material contained in the first of two published volumes of "Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War." They contain texts of documents of Hitler's Government which were captured by Soviet troops in Berlin. They have been published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR and are now off the press, in the Russian language.

THE first volume of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* just published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, is an indispensable handbook for anyone making a study of the pre-war policy of the Western Powers, the policy whose purpose was to isolate the Soviet Union. The language of the secret documents captured by Soviet troops in the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Berlin is eloquent and instructive. It illuminates the privacy of the ministerial offices and diplomatic recesses in which the Munichites crossed all their t's and dotted all their i's.

The policy of isolating the Soviet Union dates back to 1917, when the new democratic Soviet State was set up in Russia under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin. The Soviet Government, as is well known, has always held that the different systems in our contemporary world can coexist peacefully, can co-operate. The attitude of the Western Powers toward the Soviet Union, however, has too often been determined by their intense dislike of socialism. Ever since the days of the "cordon sanitaire," the foundations of which were laid by Winston Churchill, the Western Powers have continued to surround the Soviet Union with a wall of hatred.

The fascist incendiaries of the Second World War shrewdly played on that hatred. In the collection of documents published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR there is the record of a conversation between Hitler and the British Ambassador, Sir Neville Henderson. The record says that Hitler insisted that "Soviet Russia should not have been allowed into Europe. He, the Fuehrer, when he made his proposals had in mind a union of Europe without Russia." In the same conversation Hitler explained that Germany could not reduce armaments because of the existence of the Soviet Union. The Nazi politicians knew well what sort of arguments had the best chance of being listened to in London.

The fact is that influential personages in the western capitals were only too eager to hear such talk. The collection opens, for instance, with a highly interesting document—the record of a conversation between Hitler and Lord Halifax, Lord Privy Seal, who came to Obersalzburg in November, 1937, for secret talks with the Fuehrer. Both sides were sounding each other out, seeking the points of future rapprochement. Halifax indicated from the outset that the Chamberlain Government intended to give Hitler its support. In the record of that conversation we read: ". . . he (Lord Halifax) and the other members of the British Government were fully aware that the Fuehrer had attained a great deal, not only inside Germany itself, but that having destroyed Communism in his country, he had barred the road of the latter to Western Europe, and that therefore Germany was entitled to be regarded as the bulwark of the West against Bolshevism." And Halifax went on to make far-reaching proposals to Hitler.

To what extent pro-Nazi and anti-Soviet sentiments prevailed in London at that time is evident from a memorandum by Churchill of a conversation he had with the Danzig Nazi leader, Foerster. (The document in the possession of the Soviet Foreign Ministry is a German translation of the English text made in the German Foreign Office.) Winston Churchill, who led the Conservative opposition against Chamberlain's foreign policy, records: "I said that I was no opponent of German might, and that most people in England would like to see her (Germany) take her place as one of the two or three leading world powers. In my opinion," he went on to say, "it would be quite possible, as part of a general European agreement, to pledge Britain and France to come to Germany's assistance with all their forces should she be the victim of an unprovoked attack on the part of Russia through Czechoslovakia, or in any other way." One ought to reconstruct in one's mind the special conditions that existed in 1938 to comprehend the entire meaning of that proposal.

To be sure, by the end of the 1930's the "cordon sanitaire" policy had long been crushed under the wheels of history. The Western Powers could not ignore the greatly increased strength of the Soviet Union and its consistent policy of peace, a policy which found a large response among the peoples of other countries. But the Governments of the Western Powers remained true to themselves even when, in the face of the growing menace of fascist aggression, they had to enter into negotiations with the Soviet Union and from time to time had to conclude political pacts and agreements with the Soviet Union.

Another of the documents in the collection is a political report by the Polish Ambassador in Paris at that time, Lukasiewicz, concerning a talk he had with the French Foreign Minister, Bonnet. Here is what Lukasiewicz had to say about the French Foreign Minister's opinion of the Franco-Soviet pact of mutual assistance: ". . . M. Bonnet began to speak at length, and with manifest emphasis on this problem, of relations with the Soviet Union in the present situation and, to a certain extent, divorced from it. The Franco-Soviet pact, he said was 'very vague' and the French Government was not at all inclined to rely upon it. . . . M. Bonnet personally

(Continued on page 426)

Soviet Labor and Its Pay

By B. Markus, D. Sc.
Soviet Economist

THE chief distinguishing feature of socialist economy, which is based on the public ownership of the means of production, is its subordination to the interests of the laboring people: the workers, peasants and intelligentsia. There is no one in socialist society who stands above the man of labor. The working people are the supreme masters of the country, and their supreme will is carried out by the Soviet Government. The State takes into account no interests but theirs when it draws up the national economic plans and coordinates all the energy of the country toward the realization of these plans.

Abolition of the exploiting classes has fundamentally changed the nature of labor in the USSR: labor has become free from exploitation. The overwhelming significance of this fact finds its expression in all aspects of life in the USSR. Gigantic possibilities have been opened up to the Soviet State, possibilities for an unlimited increase in production; simultaneously the standard of living and culture of the working people is being greatly raised. The national income is an excellent index of this process. The national income in the Soviet Union (in constant prices) increased from 21,000,000,000 rubles in 1913 to 128,000,000,000 rubles in 1940, i.e., more than sixfold. At the end of the post-war Five-Year Plan, it will have reached 177,000,000,000 rubles. The population of the USSR during that period (1913-1940) increased from 139 million to 193 million. It therefore follows that the national income per head of population has increased by almost 439 per cent.

MASTER OF THE COUNTRY. A Soviet worker. All the factories, all the riches of the country, belong to him and his fellow-citizens.

Such a rapid pace in the growth of national income is unknown in the rest of the world. But even more significant is the system of socialist distribution of the national income.

Inasmuch as the basic means of production under socialism belong to the people, i.e., are public property, the whole system of distribution is built upon entirely different principles than is the case under capitalism. In a socialist society it is the duty of every able-bodied citizen to work. "He who does not work, neither shall he eat"—such is the major principle of socialism. With the abolition of exploiting classes, all goods that are newly produced, i.e., the whole national income, belong to the socialist society, i.e., to the working people who have produced them. And this product is distributed in the interests of the working people themselves. Approximately a quarter of the national income is, according to plan, applied to the expansion of production and the formation of the necessary re-

serves. The rest of the national income is issued directly for the personal consumption of the working people.

Socialist economy develops according to the laws of economic reproduction on an enlarged scale, i.e., along the path of a continuous and ever-growing rise and the social product is increasing at a very rapid pace. And since the whole of this product is distributed only in the interests of the working people, the rapid and steady rise of their standard of living and culture is an immutable economic law of socialism. The figures quoted above on the growth of the national income are an evidence of this.

A great leap in the development of the productive forces and in the increase in consumption by the people has already taken place in Soviet times. But a further increase in the volume of production is necessary to ensure the full satisfaction of all the needs of the working people. Under socialist conditions the only progressive principle of distribution, which can best promote the further development of production, is distribution under which the share of each citizen is in accordance with the quantity and quality of his labor—the principle of equal pay for equal labor, i.e., the more productive and the more qualified the labor, the higher its pay.

Differences in earnings in the USSR cannot engender antagonisms. For out of one's income, however high it may be, no one in the Soviet Union is allowed to acquire factories, mines or land; no one may exploit the labor of others. Differences in earnings lead, consequently, only to a different degree of satisfying one's material and cultural needs. But there are no obstacles in the USSR to prevent any citizen from increasing his earnings by raising the productivity and quality of his labor. On the contrary, the State does everything to enable working people to raise their qualifications —all forms of scientific education and production training are widely accessible to men and women of all ages. Electricity and machinery are used to such an extent in production that labor is lightened and the workers' earnings are consequently higher.

The socialist principle of distribution according to work done, is enforced in the case of factory and office workers by the payment of wages, and in the case of collective farmers by the distribution of the income of the collective farm among its members on the basis of payment according to the individual output.

FREE SERVICES. Soviet services such as medical and dental care without charge, vacations, pensions, add an estimated 38 per cent to wages.

The predominant system of pay for industrial workers is direct, unlimited piecework. A quota of output and a rate of pay for each article produced is fixed for all workers. This system applies to almost all Soviet production. Under this system the worker is paid the regular piece rate for each article produced within the limits of the quota, and for every article produced above this quota he receives progressively larger pay, which, in some cases, is double the regular rate. Time-pay for labor is applied only in those cases where it is impossible to determine the norm of output in advance. But in relation to this category of workers a bonus system is usually instituted (for overfulfillment of plan as a whole, for achieving definite standards of quality, etc.). The wages of a worker are fixed in accordance with the tariff* category in which he is placed. The actual earnings, however, are usually considerably higher than the tariff wages —no less than nine-tenths of Soviet workers greatly overfulfill their quotas. Measures of passing on to others the methods of labor used by the leading workers, on-the-job training of workers, etc.—all these methods make for regular overfulfillment of quotas. In most machine-building plants, for instance, quotas are usually overfulfilled 160 to 180 per cent.

The average annual wages of factory and office workers in the USSR had almost trebled during the 13 years before the Great Patriotic War. Under the current Five-Year Plan wages will increase an additional 48 per cent as compared with the prewar level.

* Tariff categories are decided upon jointly by each plant or factory management and the trade union local, and are based on a worker's skill and experience.

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A Soviet Trade Union Budget

By S. Babayan

Chairman of the Central Committee of the Machine and Instrument-Building Industry Workers' Trade Union of the USSR

THE 1948 budget of the Machine and Instrument-Building Industry Workers' Trade Union of the USSR was approved recently by its Central Committee in the sum of nearly 30 million rubles. Prior to accepting the budget the Central Committee obtained data on the needs and requirements of the trade union committees of various plants.

Three-fourths of the yearly funds of our trade union will be expended on the cultural and educational needs of workers who are members of our union. Nearly one-half million rubles have been allocated for lectures. Last year, lectures arranged by our trade union were attended by nearly 70 per cent of the membership. Particularly successful were the lectures on literature and art, on the international situation, the work of the United Nations, the achievements of modern science and technology, problems of philosophy and ethics. In short, there is hardly a field of knowledge that is not of interest to the members of our union. Besides those lectures especially arranged, we supplied tickets to lectures given at the All-Union Society for the Dissemination of Political and Scientific Knowledge and for lectures at palaces of culture and at engineers' and technicians clubs.

The requests of culture lovers among our membership prompted the Central Committee to increase the sum allocated this year for concerts, theatrical performances and cinema and amateur art activities to nearly seven million rubles.

The amateur artists at our enterprises are continually developing and perfecting their ability. The amateur dramatics circle at the Klim machine-building works, for instance, has put on performances whose artistic level may be favorably compared to that of professional theaters. The performances given by the circle draw a large audience of workers from the plant and residents of the town. Their presentations of *The Young Guard* by Fadeyev, and *Platon Krechet* by Korneichuk won prizes at the Moscow Regional Amateur Art Review. We have assigned large sums to create the conditions necessary for the further development of the talent of our amateur artists. Large sums have been granted the workers' chorus of the Bolshevo machine-building works, the Song and Dance Ensemble of the Novo-Petrovsky plant and a great number of other amateur circles at workers' clubs.

Forty-five trade union clubs and 74 of our libraries have been allocated large sums for the purchase of more books, musical instruments, chess sets and other paraphernalia. The libraries of our trade union have a total of more than one-half million volumes. The Soviet people love to read and therefore factory trade union committees annually purchase scores of thousands of new books to supplement their libraries. The repair and maintenance of clubs and trade union libraries is not included in our budget expenditures however, since this item is financed by management, according to all contracts signed as a result of collective bargaining between management and labor.

Thousands of new workers annually enter our industry. Some come from trade schools and industrial schools; others from collective farms. The former are eager to increase their skills, the latter wish to acquire skills. The training of workers in the USSR is conducted by the Ministry of Labor Reserves, operating on the basis of a unified state plan. A ramified network of various courses conducted by Stakhanov schools, trade union and other schools, gives the workers direct assistance in acquiring a trade or specialty and in raising their qualifications. At our trade union clubs and in the factories we have arranged special rooms for technical schooling. Here one may obtain the expert consultation of engineers and lists of recommended technical literature; lectures are given by leading workers on the most efficient methods of work; models of new types of machines are studied, etc. The expenses of technical schooling are borne by our union, and this year we have allocated hundreds of thousands of rubles for this purpose.

TRADE UNION SANATORIUM. At Kislovodsk, it is the property of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

The State (as distinct from factory management and trade unions), expends huge sums on evening schools for working youth, schools situated in the plants. Many graduates of these schools are continuing their education at higher schools. And in our effort to raise the educational level of the workers, the trade unions are helping to organize schools for working youth.

We have decided to send nearly eight thousand of our trade union functionaries to courses and seminars this year. A few of the subjects that will be covered are the history and theory of the trade union movement, the principles and practical application of social insurance, and labor laws and safety regulations. The organization of this training is covered by special funds.

The trade union budget also provides large sums for the arrangement of children's matinees, theatrical performances and concerts, and for the maintenance of Pioneer summer camps and country homes for the children of workers of our plants. Some 50 thousand children of members of our union will spend their summer holidays at country homes.

The factory trade union committees devote constant attention to the children of men who were killed in action and of war invalids. The budget of each factory trade union committee provides for monetary aid to these children. This aid is over and above the pensions and grants which, according to Soviet law, are paid by the State to the families of war invalids or men killed in action. The trade unions want each such child to feel the care and attention of his father's comrades and workmates. Trustees selected by factory trade union committees frequently visit the orphans, buy them toys and goodies on holidays, clothing, shoes, and books.

Our trade union owns several rest homes, sanatoriums and country houses. This year we shall provide accommodations at resorts for more than 30 thousand members of our trade union. The expenses involved in the maintenance of rest homes and sanatoriums, as well as the payment for accommodations, are defrayed in the main by the state social insurance fund, which is administered by the trade unions. Nevertheless considerable additional sums are expended by the trade unions for resort cures and for the holidays of workers.

FACTORY LIBRARY. Workers in training at the Trekhgornaya Manufactura textile mill, Moscow.

SUMMER CAMP. Children's camps for trade unionists' youngsters are maintained by the unions.

The main source of the trade union treasury is membership dues (one per cent of the workers' monthly wages). And every kopeck in the treasury must be spent according to designation. It is the business of the auditing commission, elected simultaneously with the factory trade union committee at general membership meetings, to see to this.

A House for Workers

By N. Kanavin

CAUGHT up in a swirling stream of trolleybuses, autobuses, passenger cars and trucks, we rolled out the broad Mozhaisk highway toward Moscow's western boundary.

We were keeping an eye out for the "most beautiful building on the highway."

It had been so described by Constantine Alexandrovich Protopopov when, over the telephone the day before, he invited us to inspect it.

"You can't miss it," he had said.

Protopopov is the manager of the building—a new and very recently-opened apartment house which was built for the employes of the Moscow Tube Works.

Trying to find the "most beautiful building on the highway," however, was like trying to find a needle in a haystack. For the highway is flanked on both sides by literally dozens of handsome new apartment buildings in the final stages of completion; only by watching closely for the house number, 86 Mozhaisk Highway, were we able to find it.

Protopopov's description wasn't far from being accurate. Nearly complete, it is a splendid seven-story building with many windows and balconies, about one hundred yards from the Moscow city limits.

As we walked through the main entrance we met Protopopov carrying a huge bunch of keys in one hand. We began to ask him questions about the building, but before he could reply, a three-ton truck pulled up at the main entrance a few feet away, and Protopopov dashed off to welcome the new tenant, a shop foreman named Pavel Shevelev, and gave him a key to the apartment to which he had been assigned.

On his return Protopopov declared that he had had hardly a moment's peace since the house had opened its doors to the tenants a few days before.

And the few hours we spent with him confirmed his statement. Every few minutes while we stood talking to him, a truck could be heard pulling up at one entrance or another, and Protopopov would hurry off to welcome the newcomer.

Among other things, Protopopov informed us that Kutuzov's famous cottage is only about forty yards from the building. During the Patriotic War of 1812, there took place in that cottage the council of war convened by Field Marshal Kutuzov, commander of the Russian Army.

THE HOUSE. Children of new tenants make friends.

We asked Protopopov if he would arrange an interview with a tenant who was already fairly well settled in the building. He nodded assent and escorted us up two flights of a staircase. At each landing were four doors, leading to three- and four-room apartments, as well as a door leading to the elevator.

Finally we stopped at apartment number 73. Protopopov pressed the button of the electric doorbell, and presently a stocky, middle-aged man stood in the doorway, bidding us enter.

His name was Fyodor Vassiliyevich Avseyenko, and he is one of the foremost rolling operators in his plant.

Although he had just returned from work, Avseyenko graciously invited us in, and introduced us to his wife and their two children—a girl of thirteen and a boy of seven.

Born in Byelorussia, Avseyenko attended a village school and later worked on a collective farm. At the age of twenty he was drafted into the Soviet Army, and after serving the required period, he came to Moscow. At first he worked in a ball bearing plant; later he went to work in the tube works.

In June, 1941, when Hitler Germany attacked our Motherland, Av-

NEW TENANT. Protopopov hands his key to Pavel Shevelev, a shop foreman.

seyenko joined the Soviet Army as a volunteer. He fought on the Kalinin Front before Moscow and was wounded; on his discharge from the hospital, he was certified as an invalid of the third group.

But Avseyenko could not rest while our country was being invaded.

He returned to the tube works and asked for a job.

He was offered a watchman's job and refused it. He was advised to work in the technical control department, and rejected that offer as well.

Avseyenko told us proudly: "I was determined to work at the kind of job where I could be of the greatest possible service to the Soviet Army and to my country."

So Avseyenko became a rolling mill operator.

Now he is a Stakhanovite; his name is never missing from the Honor Roll of the Moscow tube works. Month after month Avseyenko exceeds his production quotas in the cold-rolling of metal strips for tubes.

Now, as he showed us around his large, sunny apartment, Avseyenko declared: "The last apartment we had wasn't too bad. But the family is growing and the children are getting older. The last place was too small, and didn't have the conveniences this place has. We all feel much better here. My wife is especially pleased—here she has everything for her household needs."

Pointing out the modern kitchen conveniences, the tastefully-decorated rooms, and the huge windows through which the sun poured, his wife added: "The builders have done a wonderful job for the tenants."

At this point Protopopov remarked that he was spending too much time away from his administrative office, and we took our leave.

Sure enough, when we arrived downstairs there were a half-dozen new tenants waiting.

And before we left the home of the workers of the Moscow tube works, we saw one truck after another drive up to the entrance loaded with furniture, trunks, children's toys. Rolling mill operators, mechanics, technicians, chauffeurs, bookkeepers were moving into the new apartments their country had built for them.

GETTING SETTLED. Anatoli Avseyenko carries the radio while his father, Stakhanovite Fyodor Avseyenko, carries suitcases. Below, Avseyenko's wife begins the first dinner in the new home.

Invalids' Co-operatives in the USSR

By Peter Provotorov

Chairman of the Presidium of the All-Russian Union of Invalids' Co-operatives

CO-OPERATIVE organizations of invalids take an active part in the economic life of the USSR. Various products manufactured by invalids' artels (co-operatives)—electric motors, stockings, footwear, haberdashery, locks, musical instruments and many others—are in great demand. The population also patronizes the numerous invalids' workshops for repairing clothing and footwear, for chemical cleaning, photographic studios and other everyday services.

It is not, however, so much a question of invalids' co-operatives supplying consumer goods to the population (along with state factories and mills); the main task of these co-operative associations is to retrain invalids to enable them to take up useful work. And the co-operatives are solving this task ever more successfully.

There were nearly six million invalids in Russia after the end of the First World War and the foreign intervention. In all the other belligerent countries taken together four million persons had lost their working capacity as a result of the war. A special decision calling for retraining invalids and readjusting them to normal life was adopted by the Soviet Government in 1921. Invalids' co-operative associations were provided with production facilities and were exempted from taxes, excise duties, etc. Invalids' co-operatives have since then been steadily growing and gaining strength. Long before the Second World War, virtually all cripples and chronic invalids in the USSR had acquired trades and had found employment suited to their abilities in state enterprises and in their own co-operatives.

Then came the Second World War, and the Union of Invalids' Co-operatives was once more faced with the task of retraining men who had lost their capacity to work at their previous trades or professions.

All war invalids in the Soviet Union receive state pensions. But it is not only a question of satisfying the material needs of invalids. It is of no less importance that those who were wounded at the front should once more be able to feel that they are valuable members of society, that they are capable of socially useful creative labor.

CO-OPERATIVE WORKER. Nina Butalova, who must work at home, makes children's hats.

Before the war Vladimir Krylov, for instance, was an excellent mechanic and molder. A young and gifted worker, much was hoped for him. But the war dashed these hopes to the ground; Krylov lost both hands. As an invalid of the first category, he received a pension from the State at the rate of 80 per cent of his average earnings before the war. But Krylov simply could not imagine himself outside the working class, far away from creative labor. He wanted to perform work necessary for the country just as thousands of other invalids did.

During the days of the Second World War it again became necessary to set up invalids' training schools and workshops staffed by highly qualified instructors. These institutions were to teach men new trades and professions in conformity with their wishes and needs and also with due regard to the needs of the national economy for workers in various branches of production. These workshops and schools teach invalids various trades: those of sewing machine mechanics, workers for repairing watches and radio sets, turners, wood carvers and carvers in stone, metalworkers, bookbinders, tailors, shoemakers, photographers, toy makers.

Eminent Soviet medical men, engineers and inventors design special devices to lighten the labor of invalids. Special benches and armchairs for legless men have been designed, also devices enabling people with manual defects to hold tools, etc. Blueprints and models of such devices, designed in the laboratories of the Central Institute for Studying the Working Capacity of Invalids, are sent to all parts of the country.

A great deal of research conducted by Soviet scientists has made it possible to employ the blind. In the workshops of the Moscow Artel of the Blind, its

members are successfully coping with such intricate work as the assembling of electric motors.

After going through a course of training in workshops and schools, helpless cripples become highly skilled workers. Vladimir Krylov, who is mentioned above, learned the use of special devices and became a skilled wood carver. Hero of the Soviet Union Konstantin Povchufarov finished a course of training as a dental technician and is now successfully working at his new trade. There are scores of thousands of such examples.

Invalids who, because of their health, cannot work in a collective or are unable to travel, are provided with work at home. Special departments for such home workers are organized in co-operatives and factories. The necessary working materials are brought to the invalids in their homes and the finished articles are picked up. For instance, of 112 invalids employed in the machine shop of the Home Workers' Artel in Leningrad, only eight manufacture parts in the workshops, and the rest work at home. They paint and assemble metal toys, mend locks, make keys, repair office machines, etc.

The administrative bodies and auditing commissions of invalids' organizations are elected by secret ballot at membership meetings.

Invalids receive stipends during the time of their training, and monthly wages for their work in the factories of the co-operative associations. At the end of the year, the general meeting of the co-operative effects the final distribution of profits and the members of these artels thus receive additional income. Part of the profits of the artel is allocated for expansion of production and other economic needs, also for cultural and everyday services for invalids. The invalids' co-operatives maintain a network of polyclinics, dispensaries and sanatoriums in which the members receive free treatment.

Neither their earnings in the artel nor the share they receive of its profits, nor the stipends paid to them during their training, deprives the invalids of their state pensions, the amount of which depends upon the degree of the loss of working capacity.

Invalids' co-operatives in the Soviet Union, with the support of the Government, are steadily growing and gaining strength year by year.

Soviet Tobacco

By S. Matlin and G. Nevzorov

THE growing of light yellow tobacco, possessing a pleasant and delicate aroma, requires great art. In pre-Revolutionary Russia its cultivation was based mainly on individual skill. Agronomic technique was at a low level, selection work was almost entirely absent and mineral fertilizers were not used.

Tobacco cultivation was fundamentally reconstructed in the Soviet Union in the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans; large mechanized state and collective farms were established. The area of tobacco plantations increased 3.5 times; the Krasnodar Scientific Research Institute and ten experimental stations, employing hundreds of scientific workers, were organized. Tobacco growing was enriched by an advanced agronomic technique, new high-crop yielding varieties and highly productive machines. All tobacco plantations on state farms are now sown exclusively with selected varieties. Soviet selectionists recently cultivated a new kind of light tobacco named "Ostrolist" which yields high crops and is disease-proof. It provides excellent raw material for the production of superior cigarettes. During the current year this kind of tobacco is cultivated on six state farms of the Kuban.

An interesting experiment utilizing the phenomenon of heterosis—rapid development of hybrids of the first generation—is being conducted in the Alma-Ata state farm in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic. For this purpose the "Hungarian Garden" and the "Trapezond" varieties were crossed. The seeds obtained from the hybrids, sown last year on an area of 27 hectares,* yielded the unprecedented crop of 3.5 tons of tobacco per hectare, with an average yield of two tons. In some of the sectors a yield as high as 4.5 tons was harvested, and the Stakhanovite Bondarenko obtained on her sector 4.8 tons of tobacco per hectare. The tobacco proved to be of high quality.

* One hectare=2.471 acres.

An important achievement for Soviet tobacco cultivation is the invention and introduction of a planting machine which greatly lightens, accelerates and cheapens the planting of seedlings.

Cultivation of high grade tobacco, previously concentrated in the Kuban and in the Crimea, has recently been started in new regions. Three tobacco state farms, including one on the river Chilik in Kazakhstan, have been established. The purpose of the Chilik state farm is to cultivate the fragrant "Dyubek" tobacco which before the war was grown only on the south coast of the Crimea. The tobacco produced in the young farm is of excellent quality.

The Kirov state farm, recently established in Yalta district on the south coast of the Crimea, is cultivating the high grade fragrant tobacco known as "American." The area under this tobacco has been increased to 50 hectares during the current year.

Of considerable interest is the establishment of a raw material base for the development of Soviet cigar production. A cigar factory is working in Pogarsk District, Briansk Region. This factory has a state farm which cultivates splendid tobaccos suitable not only for filling, but also for wrapping cigars.

Krasnodar Territory (North Caucasus) is still the principal tobacco cultivation district. Here are situated seven large state farms in which new varieties are tested, advanced methods of agrotechnique discovered and applied, and high harvests gathered. The state farms in the foothill districts are successfully cultivating the "Trapezond Shore No. 1272" variety (a new kind for these districts) which hitherto had been grown only in Abkhazia. A group leader in the Goryache-Klyuchevsk state farm, M. Sivokon, member of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR, obtained last year on the area of six hectares in her charge a crop yield of 4.26 tons of tobacco of this variety per hectare.

Summer Holiday

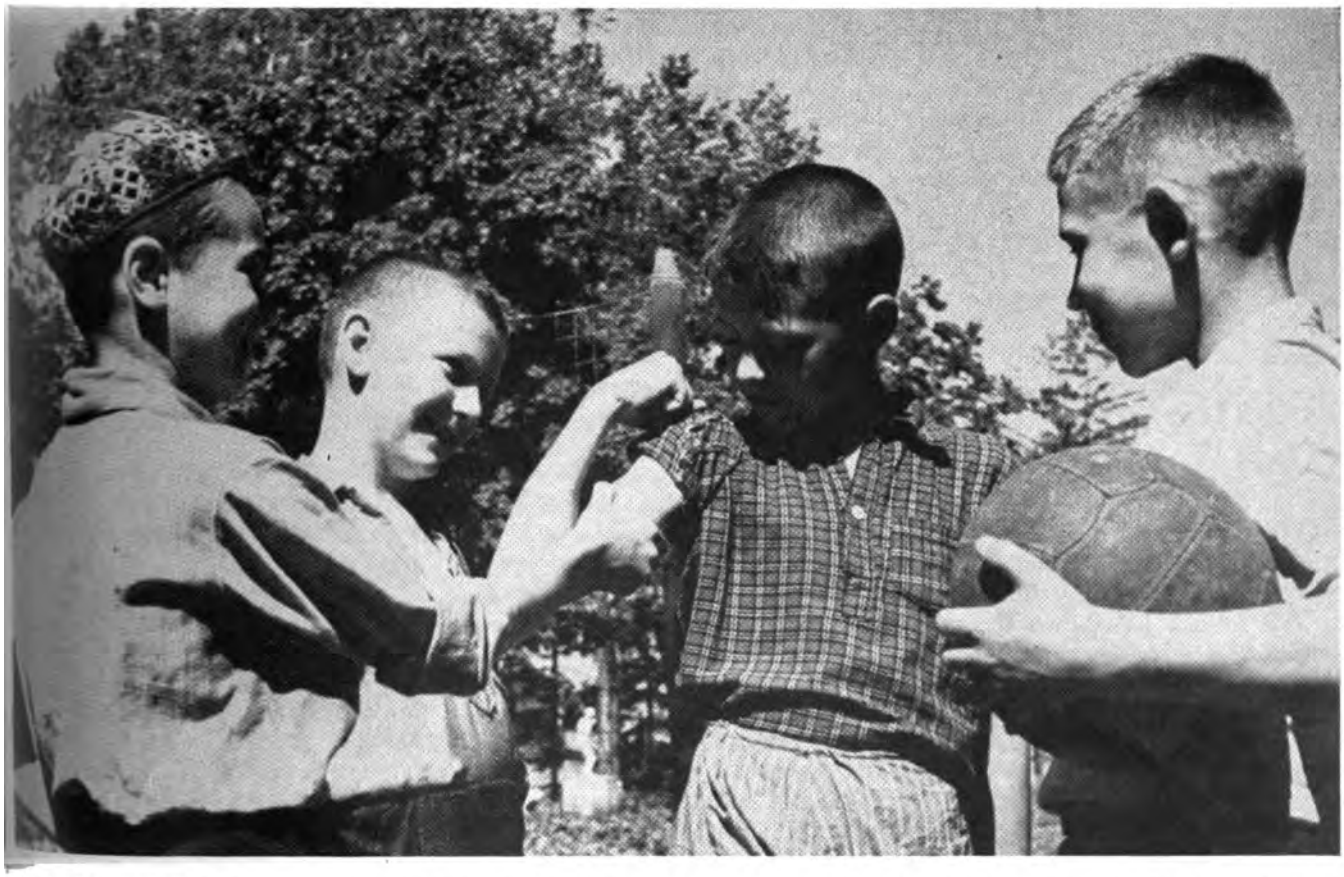
When Soviet school bells rang out the end of the school year in June, millions of Soviet school children in the cities and villages thronged gaily into the streets, eyes bright with visions of a summer to be joyously spent at camps and holiday homes and sanitoriums. The trade unions underwrite all of the costs of each child's vacation except for a nominal fee to be paid by his family—in proportion to the family income. If there are any financial circumstances that would make such a vacation difficult or impossible, the entire cost is undertaken by the trade unions.

The diet and activities of the children are carefully supervised. They eat five meals a day. Each youngster is free to choose the activities he wants; within that framework, guidance of activities is provided with an eye to the finest physical and cultural development of the Soviet children—who represent the country's greatest riches.

THE HOLIDAY BEGINS. Small Muscovites wave farewell as the train starts.

VACATION HOME. Once a landowner's mansion, this building near Tula is now a children's sanatorium.

DINING ROOM. Lunch at the sanatorium is a gay time as young vacationers get acquainted at small tables. Menus are carefully planned by dieticians.



FEEL THAT MUSCLE! A committee of three examines an applicant for the soccer team. Their smiles say that he will make the team.

"The Tale of a Real Man"

By Boris Polevoi

In the summer of 1943 a "Pravda" correspondent—later to become a Stalin Prize novelist—visited a Soviet Guards air regiment. There he met Alexei Maresyev, a fighter pilot in command of a squadron. On the day of their meeting, Maresyev made seven flights and brought down two enemy planes.

That night Maresyev and Boris Polevoi, the "Pravda" correspondent, shared the same tent. As they were settling down for the night, Polevoi was astounded at what he saw—Maresyev's legs were artificial!

Polevoi said nothing, but his look of astonishment did not escape Maresyev. And so the fighter pilot related something of his history. . . .

Maresyev's plane had been brought down during a battle in the early months of the war and he had bailed out in fascist-held territory, sustaining severe injuries as a result of the fall. After he had crawled through the snow for several days, he was rescued by peasants—his legs and feet frostbitten; on the verge of collapse. When he finally reached an Army hospital, both legs had to be amputated.

The doctors told him his flying days were over. But Maresyev knew better. By a terrific effort of will, by long, tormenting discipline, he was able finally to use his artificial limbs as easily as he had used his real ones.

He returned to battle. Later, he was honored as a Hero of the Soviet Union. And he came safely through the war.

Polevoi has been awarded a Stalin Prize for his novel, "The Tale of a Real Man," of which Maresyev is the hero.

The following excerpt from "The Tale of a Real Man" is an account of the first flight of Alexei Maresyev ("Meresyev" in the novel) when, after the amputation of his limbs, he returned, determined to fly again, to the Air Force.

It is the first of two excerpts from the novel to be published in the USSR Information Bulletin. The second will be published in the near future.

ALEXEI'S state of mind was a curious one.

From the time that he had become convinced that it was possible for even a legless man to learn to fly and become a first-rate pilot again, the thirst for life and activity had dominated him.

Now he had a purpose: it was to return to his profession of fighter pilot. And he pursued this end with the same fanatical obstinacy as when, after the smashup that cost him his legs, he had crawled back from enemy-held territory to his own people. Accustomed from early youth to think of the meaning of his life, he determined first of all what he must do to attain his end as soon as possible, without any unnecessary waste of time. It appeared that he had to begin by speeding his recovery and restoring the health and strength he had lost during the time he had been starving—to do this he had to eat and sleep more. In the second place, he had to restore his ability as a pilot; and this entailed developing himself physically, by means of exercises as far as lay within his power while he was still in the hospital. In the third place—and this was the most important and difficult of all—he had to develop the muscles of his legs, amputated at the knee, in such a way as to preserve their strength and agility and then, when the artificial legs were provided, to learn to control them so that he could make the movements necessary to pilot a plane.

Even walking is no easy matter for a legless man—and here was Meresyev intending to fly a plane, and a fighter plane at that. For this, and especially for the instant of the air battle, when everything had to be calculated to the hundredth part of a second and the co-ordination of movement had to be on the level of an unconditioned reflex, the feet must be able to function no less exactly, skillfully and, most important of all, no less rapidly than the hands. He knew he had to train himself to the point of fitness where the artificial limbs attached to the stumps of his legs could do this tricky work as perfectly as the living legs.

The idea might have seemed incredible to anyone who knew anything of the technical side of a pilot's work. But Alexei now believed that it was within the bounds of human possibility. And since this was so, he was determined to achieve it.

He started to carry out his plan. He followed the instructions given for his treatment and took the medicine prescribed for him with a pedantic exactitude that astonished even himself; he ate a great deal and even asked for second helpings, even when he had no appetite. He forced himself—no matter what came or went—to get the proper amount of sleep; he cultivated the habit of taking an after-dinner nap, though for a long time his active and energetic nature resisted this.

Physical exercises were more difficult. Ordinary exercises in this case were unsuitable for a legless man. So he invented his own. For hours on end he bent and unbent his torso and, with his hands on his hips, turned his torso and his head from side to side with such vigor that his spinal column creaked.

When at last the bandages were off and, within the limits of his hospital cot, Alexei had a litle more freedom, he did more elaborate exercises. Thrusting the stumps against the back of the bed and sitting up with his hands on his hips, he bent and unbent very slowly, slackening the tempo and increasing the number of bends on each occasion. Then he worked out a series of exercises for his stumps. Lying flat on his back, he tried to bend them.

draw them up toward his body, then unbend and stretch them upward. The first time he did this he realized what tremendous, perhaps even insurmountable difficulties, awaited him. Comparing himself involuntarily to a plane, Meresyev understood that the ideally calculated construction of the human body had been thrown out of gear, and that though his body was still strong, it would never recover the harmony of movement cultivated from childhood.

The leg exercises caused him severe pain; nevertheless, he devoted a minute longer to them every day. These were terrible minutes, when the tears streamed down his face, and he had to bite his lip until the blood came, to keep back an involuntary moan. But he forced himself to go on with the exercises, first once a day, then twice, increasing the period each time. After each series of exercises he fell back on the pillow, wondering if he would ever have the strength to resume them. Yet, when the time came, he started all over again. And one evening he felt the muscles of his legs and thighs and found with satisfaction that they were no longer slack flesh and fat as they had been at the beginning but the firm sinews of the old days.

THE flying field was still deserted when he turned up that morning. Only Naumov was here, smoking a cigarette he had rolled himself, so small that it looked as if he were drawing smoke out of two brown fingers pressed together.

"So you've turned up?" he said, without replying to Alexei's formal greeting. "All right. You're the first here, you'll be the first to go up. Get into the back cockpit of a Number Nine and I'll be there in a jiffy. We'll see you do your stuff."

He took the last few quick pulls at the tiny butt, while Alexei hurried toward the plane, anxious to adjust his feet before the instructor came—a good guy, all right, but for all Meresyev knew, he might suddenly turn stubborn, refuse to give him a trial, and raise a row about it. Alexei clambered onto the slippery wing, clinging convulsively to the side of the cockpit. In his excitement and nervousness he kept slipping—he couldn't seem to manage to throw his leg over into the cockpit, and the narrow-faced, melancholy-looking mechanic, no longer young, glanced at him in surprise, evidently thinking:

"Well, I'm damned if he isn't tight!"

At last Alexei got the stiff limb into the cockpit, dragged the other after it with a mighty effort and sank heavily into the seat. He fastened the leather straps of the artificial legs to the pedal controls. The construction proved satisfactory; the leathers held the limbs firmly and resiliently to the levers, and he felt as he had felt in childhood when he wore well-fitting skates.

The instructor stuck his head in.

"You don't happen to be tight, by any chance? Breathe!"

Alexei breathed. Failing to catch the familiar smell, the instructor turned and shook his fist at the mechanic.

"Start!"

"Contact!"

"Right—contact!"

The engine gave a few piercing spurts, then the even throbbing of the pistons could be distinctly heard. Meresyev uttered an involuntary exclamation of delight and was reaching out mechanically for the gas, when he heard the surly voice of the instructor cursing into the speaking tube:

"What d'you mean by poking in there before me?"

The instructor himself gave the engine the gas, it gurgled, hummed and the plane started down the runway, jerking a little. Steering mechanically, Naumov pulled the stick toward him and like a dragonfly the little plane rose straight into the air.

The instructor could see the face of the pilot in the tilted mirror. How many such faces he'd observed during a first take-off after a pilot's long absence! He had seen the condescending good nature of the aces, the eyes of the enthusiasts light up as they found themselves in their native element again after long wanderings from hospital to hospital. He had seen those who had suffered terrible injuries during crashes turn pale when they went up again, fidget nervously, and bite their lips. He had watched the audacious curiosity of the new hands, taking off from earth for the first time. But an expression as strange as that which he saw now, through the mirror, on the face of this dark, handsome, young fellow, who was obviously no new hand at flying, Naumov had not seen in all his years of work as instructor.

A blotchy feverish red showed through the dark skin, the lips turned pale but not from fear—no, from some noble agitation, the reason for which Naumov could not understand. Who was he? What was going on in him? Why had the mechanic thought he was drunk? When the plane had taken off and hung in the air, the instructor saw that the man's eyes—black, stubborn, gypsy eyes over which he had not lowered the goggles—suddenly glittered with tears that trickled down his cheeks and were smeared by the current of air that struck him in the face at the turn.

"Queer bird, this! Have to keep an eye on him. You never know," Naumov said to himself. But there was something in the agitated face staring at him through the square of mirror that moved the instructor in spite of himself. To his surprise he felt a lump rise in his throat and the instruments became a little blurred.

"Take over!" Naumov said, but he only slackened his hands and feet, ready at any moment to take back control from this extraordinary fellow. But through the instruments that duplicated every movement, Naumov felt the confident, experienced hands of the new man, the "pilot with God's help", as the chief of staff, an old air wolf who had flown during the Civil War, was fond of calling new men.

After the first circle Naumov ceased to worry about his trainee—the plane was being piloted surely and competently; the man knew what he was doing. But the funny thing was, that while flying level, the pilot kept making slight turns to right or left, now banking, now losing height. He seemed to be testing himself. Naumov decided that next day he might be sent up alone into the zone and, after two or three flights, be put on a UT 2 training plane, a little light copy of a fighter.

It was cold, 12 degrees below on the wing thermometer. A keen wind was blowing into the cockpit, penetrating the dogskin leggings, and the instructor's feet were stone-cold. It was time to be getting back.

But every time that Naumov ordered through the speaking tube "Make landfall!" he caught sight of a dumb imploring look in the burning black

Fatal Policy

(Continued from page 413)

was no adherent of collaboration with Communism. . . . M. Bonnet would be very much pleased if, after elucidating the question of collaboration with Poland, he could tell the Soviets that France did not need their assistance."

It was a double-faced diplomatic game, a game which had nothing in common with the interests of peace and universal security. Its meaning was revealed by another Polish diplomat, the Ambassador to London, Raczynski, who in the middle of December 1938 wrote with reference to the attitude of the British ruling class: ". . . a conflict in eastern Europe which threatens in one way or another to embroil Germany and Russia is universally and subconsciously regarded as a 'lesser evil,' capable of postponing the menace to the Empire and its overseas components for a longer period. Chamberlain's attitude to the Soviets continues to be cold." That was written less than one year before the beginning of the war in Europe.

The results of the policy of isolating the Soviet Union, persistently pursued by the Western Powers, were ruinous. For that policy enabled the fascist aggressors to plunge the world into the Second World War. Yet today we are again witnessing attempts to isolate the USSR. Do we not hear today the same sort of talk which, in effect, goes something like this: "Soviet Russia should not have been allowed into Europe," and talk about "a union of Europe without Russia." Characteristic of this policy of isolating the USSR is the creation of a "Western Bloc" which is splitting Europe into two camps. Apparently, the ruling circles in some countries have learned nothing from history.

But those who believe that they can put into effect a fatal policy, a policy already condemned by the entire course of history, are bound to meet with failure. So much has changed in the world in the past ten years, and the position of the USSR has become so strong, that any attempts to go back to the policy of isolating the Soviet Union are doomed. Such attempts are utterly unrealistic these days. The time for such attempts is gone forever; it is never to return.

Tale of a Real Man

(Continued from page 425)

eyes, a look that was not so much a request as a demand, and he could not find it in him to repeat the order. Instead of ten minutes they stayed up half an hour.

When they landed at last, Naumov clambered out of the cockpit at once and hopped about by the plane, clapping his hands in their heavy gloves and stamping his feet. The early frost had been a bit sharp this morning. The new pilot took some time messing around in the cockpit, then climbed out slowly, reluctantly, and when he had finally set foot on the ground, sat down by the wings with an expression of blissful intoxication on his face, which was red with frost and excitement.

"Freezing, eh? It got me through my leggings, and how! I don't know what your feet must be like in those boots!"

"I haven't any feet, you see," the new man replied, still smiling at his own thoughts.

"What?" Naumov's mobile face dropped.

"I haven't any feet," Meresyev repeated very distinctly.

"What d'you mean—no feet? What am I to make of that? Got something wrong with them?"

"No. I haven't any at all. . . . These are artificial."

For a moment Naumov stood rooted to the spot, as though he had been hit on the head with a hammer. It was incredible—what was this crazy new guy saying? No feet? But he had just been flying, and doing very well, too. . . .

"Let's have a look," the instructor said, with sudden dread.

His curiosity did not offend Alexei or arouse his indignation. On the contrary, he wanted to give this cheery, amusing fellow a still bigger surprise, and so, with the gesture of a conjurer, he raised both trouser legs.

The pilot was standing on artificial limbs of leather and aluminum, standing, looking cheerfully at the instructor, the mechanic and the men waiting their turn to go up.

All at once Naumov understood the agitation of the man, the strange expression on his face, the tears in his dark eyes and his eagerness to prolong the sense of flying. He had made a tremendous impression on Naumov. Rushing up to Meresyev, he shook both his hands vigorously.

"Listen, old man, how did you do it? . . . Why, you just don't know yourself what a man you are!"

Labor and Its Pay

(Continued from page 415)

But the real income of Soviet citizens is not only determined by their nominal wages. An important addition to the Soviet worker's budget is the State's payment of sickness benefits, an annual vacation with full pay, free education and payment of stipends to students, state expenditure on raising the qualification of factory and office workers, the organization of holiday facilities and free medical aid, the upkeep of children's institutions and payment of grants to mothers of large families and to unmarried mothers. All this increases the money wages of Soviet workers by 38 per cent. Along with the growth of money wages, the level of real wages rises also as a result of reduction in prices of food and consumer goods which is systematically effected by the State in order to raise the living standard of the working people. Moreover, real wages have increased 51 per cent over the level of a year ago as a result of the revaluation of the ruble, the reduction of prices, and higher earnings. And that figure does not take into account an even more recent slash in prices effected during the second quarter of 1948.

The socialist system of payment for labor helps the steady growth of the productive forces of socialism; and the consequent achievement of an abundance of commodities will make possible a more rapid transition to the next phase of Soviet society—communism—where each will receive wages not in accordance with the quantity and quality of his labor, but in accordance with his needs.

Notes on Soviet Life

A TRAVELING exhibition of pictures by Russian and Buryat-Mongolian painters has been organized by the Buryat-Mongolian Art Gallery. The pictures are carried from one village to another in specially equipped automobiles. The exhibition has already been shown in many collective farms of the Republic and was attended by more than five thousand persons.

★

Geologists at work near Kaluga in the Moscow Region noted signs of the presence of oil at a depth of 1640 feet. Devonian rock discovered at a depth of 200 feet is similar in structure to that which contains oil deposits in the Samara oxbow, Western Bashkiria and the Kama River districts. This confirms the scientific prognosis of widespread gas and oil layers in Devonian strata, not only in the area between the Volga and the Urals, but also throughout the whole Russian platform, including its central part around Moscow.

★

A blast-furnace, equipped with up-to-date machinery, has been blown in at the New Tula Iron and Steel Works and has smelted the first lot of pig iron. The furnace is fully mechanized and is equipped with the latest controlling and measuring instruments. A turbine blast apparatus, gas cleaner, a pouring machine and a coke-delivery machine have also been installed. All the mechanisms and apparatus are of Soviet make. The New Tula blast furnace is one of 45 which are being put into operation under the postwar Five-Year Plan. The annual output of these furnaces will total 12,800,000 tons of pig iron.

Another — the fifth — open-hearth furnace has been rehabilitated at the Azov Steel Plant in Mariupol. The rehabilitated open-hearth furnace is one of the largest in the Soviet Union. It is provided with the latest equipment and is fully mechanized. This is one of the 165 open-hearth furnaces which are to be rehabilitated and built in the Five-Year Plan period.

Ten leading pits of the Artem Coal Trust in the Ukrainian SSR have saved three million rubles this year by improving production methods and lowering production costs of coal mining. The greater part of this sum will go to increase production. In addition, according to Soviet law, a part of the sum saved is transferred to the director's fund of an enterprise and almost all of it is used to improve the living conditions of the personnel. A sum of one million rubles has been transferred to the director's fund of the chiefs of the pits of the Artem Coal Trust. In the mining village of Pit No. 5-6 a new boulevard has been laid out, the park improved and new books bought for the library from this fund. A club for engineers and technicians is being opened and furnishings bought for the local kindergarten.

With the money saved, the Lenin Pit is furnishing an excellent hostel for its workers, purchasing upholstered furniture, beds and carpets.

Moreover, the trust is sending 120 workers to health resorts at the expense of the director's fund.

The Charjou-Kungrad Trunk Railway, now under construction, will be one of the largest in Soviet Central Asia. It will intersect the deserts of the Turkmen, Uzbek and Kazakh Soviet Republics and will provide the shortest route for them to the Volga, the Urals and other centers of the USSR. Rails and sleepers are already being laid on the track between Charjou and Novo-Urgench.

★

The network of cultural and educational institutions destroyed by the German occupationists in the Byelorussian Republic is not only being rehabilitated but expanded considerably. Houses of Culture have been opened in most of the district centers in the western regions of Byelorussia. In keeping with a recent decision of the Byelorussian Government, preparations have been made to open nearly 250 new Houses of Culture in the Brest, Grodno, Baranovichi, Molodechno, Minsk and Polotsk regions in the first half of 1948. Each of them will have a library and motion picture theater.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

July 19-August 1

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from July 19 to August 1 at the following times and frequencies, (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Tuesdays, July 19, 20, 26, 27—Economic affairs.

Wednesday, July 21—Special program on life in the Lithuanian, Latvian and Estonian Soviet Socialist Republics.

Thursdays, July 22, 29—Programs for farmers.

Fridays and Wednesday, July 23, 28, 30—Scientific and cultural programs.

Saturday, July 24—Special program on the 120th Anniversary of the birth of N. Chernyshevsky, great Russian revolutionary-democrat, philosopher and author.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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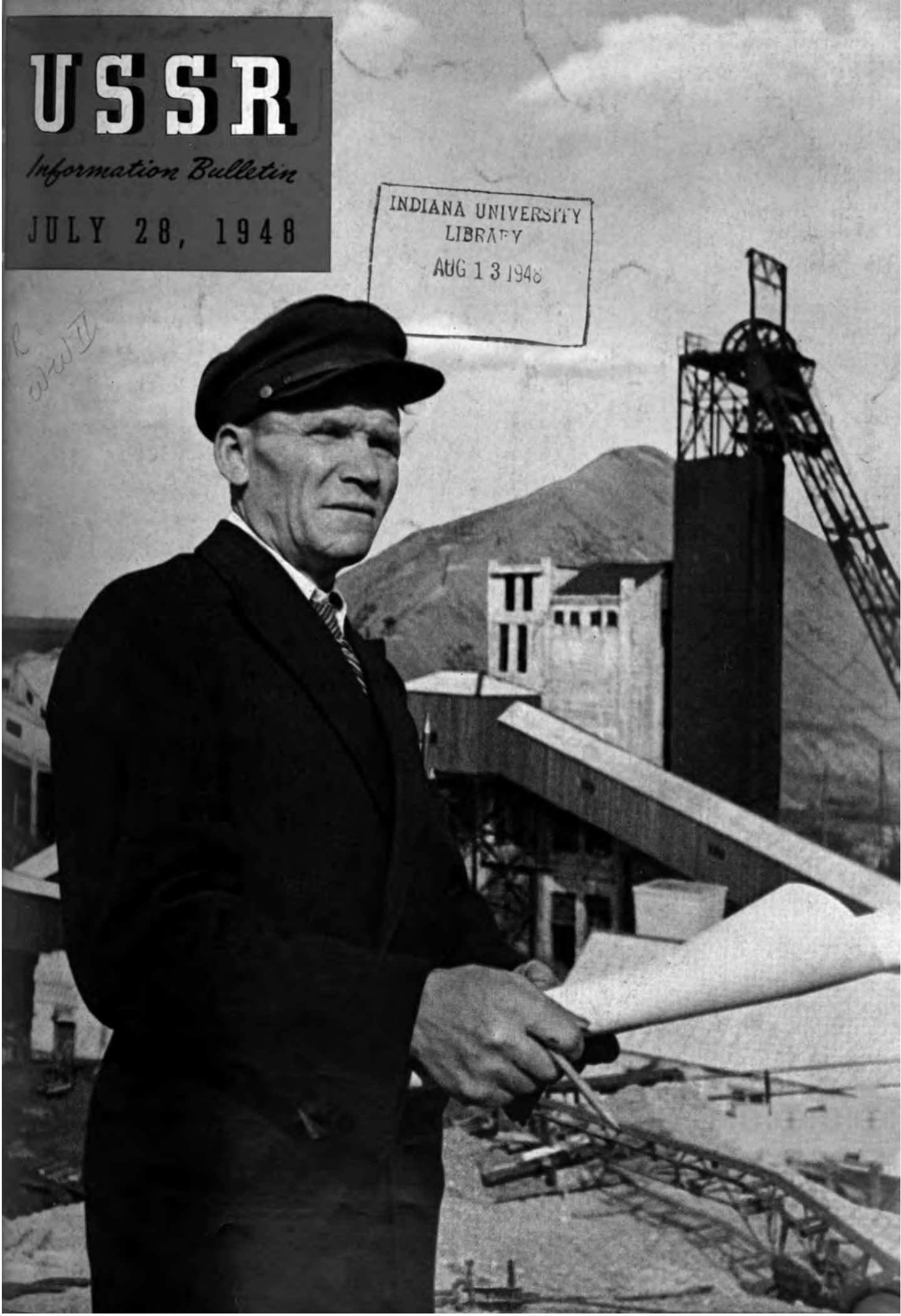

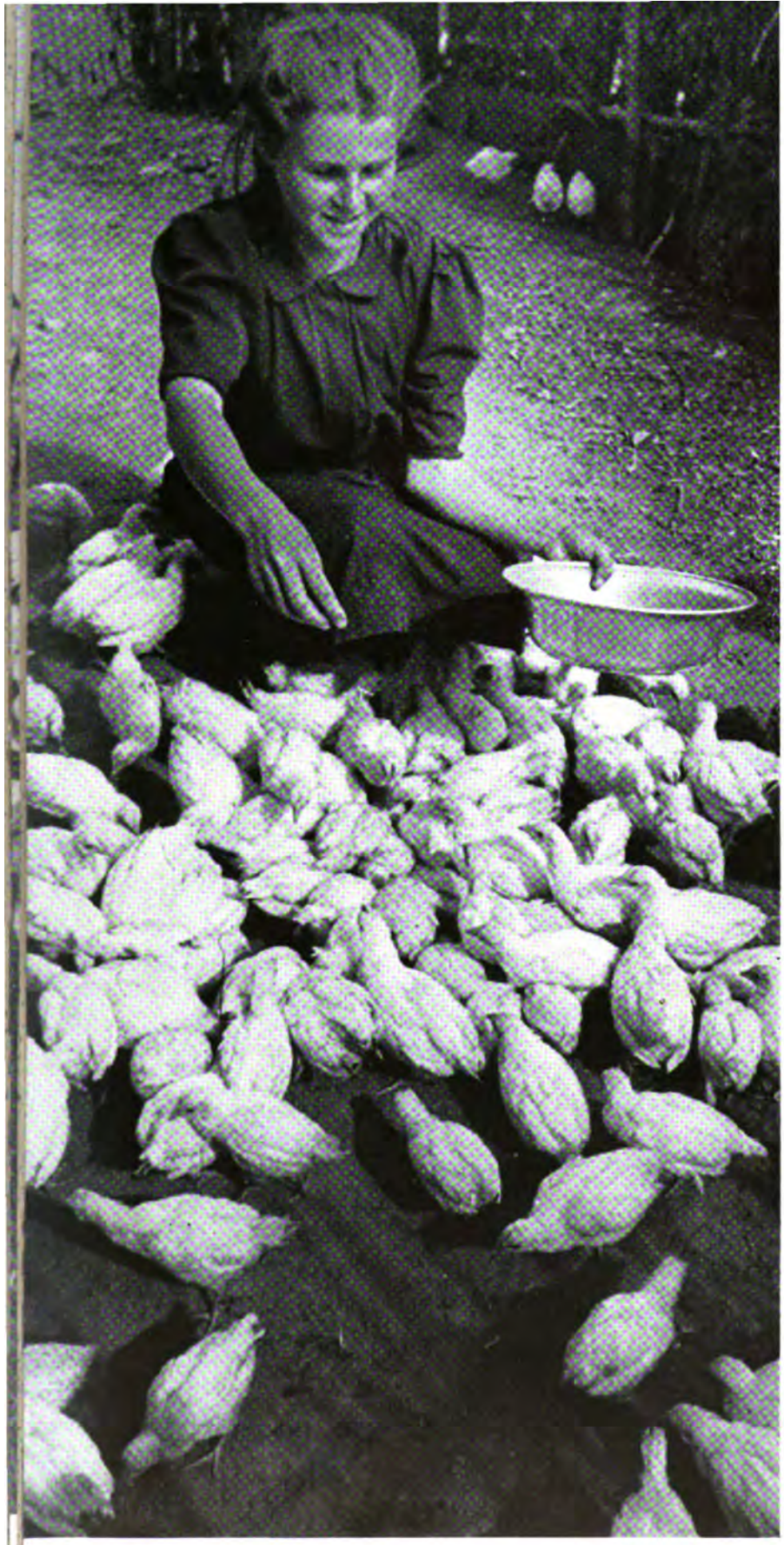

SUMMER ON A FARM. Nina Nikitina, who lives on a collective farm devastated by the Nazis and now restored, feeds the chicks. FRONT COVER. Nikolai Merkulov, a section superintendent of the restored Lidiyevka coal mine in the Ukraine. BACK COVER. University students on a summer field trip.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Soviet Government's Reply To USA Note on Berlin

Following is the text of the Note of the Soviet Government on the situation in Berlin, which was presented to the Government of the United States of America on July 14, in answer to the United States Note of July 6. Notes of similar content were sent on the same day to the Governments of Great Britain and France.

1. The Soviet Government has acquainted itself with the note of the Government of the United States of America of July 6 of this year in which the situation which has now arisen in Berlin is explained by the measures taken by the Soviet side.

The Soviet Government cannot agree with this statement of the Government of the United States and believes that the present situation in Berlin has arisen as a result of the violation by the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France of the agreed decisions adopted by the Four Powers in relation to Germany and Berlin, expressed in the carrying out of a separate currency reform, the introduction of special currency notes for the Western sectors of Berlin and the policy of dismembering Germany.

The Soviet Government repeatedly warned the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France of the responsibility which they were incurring by taking the path of violation of the agreed decisions with respect to Germany, previously adopted by the Four Powers.

The decisions adopted at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, as well as the agreement of the Four Powers on control machinery in Germany, set as their aim the demilitarization and democratization of Germany, the undermining of the very basis of German militarism and the prevention of the revival of Germany as an aggressive Power, and hence the conversion of Germany into a peace-loving and democratic State.

These agreements stipulate Germany's obligation to pay reparations and thus, even if only partially, to compensate for the damage done to the countries which suffered from German aggression. In accordance with these agreements, the Governments of the Four Powers accepted responsibility for administering Germany and undertook to determine jointly the status of Germany or of any areas, including Berlin, which are part of German territory, and to conclude a peace treaty with Germany, which must be signed by a government of democratic Germany adequate for the purpose.

These highly important agreements of the Four Powers in relation to Germany have been violated by the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France. Measures for the demilitarization of Germany have not been completed, and such an important center of German war industry as the Ruhr Region has been removed from the control of the Four Powers. Fulfillment of the decision on reparations from the Western Zones of Occupation of Germany has been disrupted by the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France. By the separate actions of the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France, the quadripartite control machinery in Germany has been destroyed, as a result of which the Control Council has ceased to function.

Since the London Conference of Three Powers, with the participation of the Benelux countries, measures are being carried out by the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France aimed at splitting and dismembering Germany, including the preparation now taking place for the appointment of a separate government for the Western Zones of Germany, and the separate currency reform carried out on June 18 of this year for the Western Zones of Occupation.

Inasmuch as the situation which has arisen in Berlin, as in the whole of Germany, is a direct consequence of the systematic violation of the decisions of the Potsdam Conference by the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France, as also of the agreement of the Four Powers on control machinery in Germany, the Soviet Government must reject as altogether unfounded the declaration of the Government of the United States to the effect that the measures for restricting transport communications between Berlin and the Western Zones of Occupation of Germany, introduced by the Soviet Command to protect the economy of the Soviet Zone from disorganization, allegedly constitute a violation of existing agreements relating to the administration of Berlin.

2. The Government of the United States declares that it occupies its sector in Berlin by a right deriving from the defeat and surrender of Germany, referring in this connection to the agreement among the Four Powers in relation to Germany and Berlin.

This only goes to confirm that the exercise of the above-mentioned right in regard to Berlin is bound up with the obligatory fulfillment by the Powers occupying Germany of the quadripartite agreements concluded among them in relation to Germany as a whole. In accordance with these agreements, Berlin was envisaged as the seat of the supreme authority of the Four Powers occupying Germany, and agreement was reached on the administration of "Greater Berlin" under the direction of the Control Council.

Thus, the agreement on quadripartite administration of Berlin constitutes an inseparable, component part of the agreement on quadripartite administration of Germany as a whole. When the USA, Great Britain and France, by their separate actions in the Western Zones of Germany, destroyed the system of quadripartite administration of Germany and began to create in Frankfurt-on-Main a capital for a government of Western Germany, they thereby undermined also the legal basis on which rested their right to participate in the administration of Berlin.

The Government of the United States points out in its note that its right to stay in Berlin is also based on the fact that the United States withdrew its troops from certain areas of the Soviet Zone of Occupation which they had entered during the

period of military operations in Germany, and that, had it foreseen the situation which has arisen in Berlin, it would not have withdrawn its troops from these areas.

However, the Government of the United States knows very well that, by withdrawing its troops to the confines of the American Zone as established in the Four-Power Agreement on the zones of occupation in Germany, it merely fulfilled the obligations it had undertaken, and the fulfillment of which alone could give the United States the right to take her troops to Berlin.

Perusal of President Truman's letter to Premier Stalin of June 14, 1945, and Premier Stalin's letter in reply of June 16, 1945, which are mentioned in the note of the Government of the United States of America, confirms that, owing to the agreement then reached, the troops of the USA, Great Britain and France obtained the possibility of entering both Berlin—the capital of Germany—and Vienna—the capital of Austria—which, as is known, were captured only by the troops of the Soviet Army.

It is also known that the above-mentioned agreements on Berlin and Vienna were only a part of the agreements on Germany and Austria, on the fulfillment of which the Soviet Government continues to insist.

3. The Government of the United States declares that the temporary measures introduced by the Soviet Command, for restricting transport communications between Berlin and the Western Zones, have created difficulties in the supply of the Berlin population of the Western sectors. It cannot, however, be denied that these difficulties were caused by the actions of the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France, and above all by their separate actions in introducing a new currency in the Western Zones of Germany and a special currency in the Western sectors of Berlin.

Berlin is in the center of the Soviet Zone and is part of that Zone. The interests of the Berlin population do not admit of a situation where there has been introduced into Berlin, or even only into the Western sectors of Berlin, a special currency which is not in circulation in the Soviet Zone.

Meanwhile, the introduction of a separate currency reform in the Western Zones of Germany placed Berlin, and with it the entire Soviet Zone of Occupation, in a position where the entire mass of currency notes invalidated in the Western Zones threatened to pour into Berlin and into the Soviet Occupation Zone of Germany.

The Soviet Command was compelled, therefore, to adopt urgent measures to safeguard the interests of the German population as well as the economy of the Soviet Zone of Occupation and the area of "Greater Berlin." The danger of disruption of the normal economic activity of the Soviet Zone of Occupation and Berlin has not been averted even yet, since the USA, Great Britain and France continue to maintain their own special currency in Berlin.

At the same time, the Soviet Command has constantly manifested, and continues to manifest, concern for the well-being of the Berlin population and for ensuring it normal supplies of everything necessary, and is striving for the speediest elimination of the difficulties which have recently arisen in this matter.

Moreover, if necessary, the Soviet Government will not object to ensuring sufficient supplies for the whole of "Greater Berlin" by its own means.

As regards the declaration of the Government of the United States that it will not be induced by threats, pressure or other actions to abandon its right to participate in the occupation of Berlin, the Soviet Government does not intend to enter into a discussion of this declaration, for it has no need of a policy of pressure, since by violation of the agreed decisions on the administration of Berlin, the above-mentioned Governments are themselves rendering null and void their right to participation in the occupation of Berlin.

4. The Government of the United States, in its note of July 6, expresses readiness to begin negotiations among the four allied occupying Powers for discussion of the situation which has arisen in Berlin, but passes over in silence the question of Germany as a whole.

While not objecting to negotiations, the Soviet Government, however, deems it necessary to declare that it cannot link the start of these negotiations with the fulfillment of any preliminary conditions and that, secondly, quadripartite negotiations could only be effective if they were not confined to the question of the administration of Berlin, since this question cannot be separated from the general question of quadripartite control in relation to Germany.

Land Reform in Germany

THE latest issue of the Soviet journal *Ogonek* contains an article on land reform in the Soviet Occupation Zone of Germany. Of all the democratic changes which have been carried out in the Soviet Occupation Zone of Germany, the journal writes, the biggest is the land reform. Before the Second World War, landowner-peasant relations were conspicuous for their crying injustice. Some 34,000 German landowners owned nearly 40,000,000 acres of land—about 40 per cent of all the land area of the country.

The land was owned by the Prussian Junkers, the mainstay of militarism and aggression. The Hohenzollern family owned 470,000 acres—Graf von Arnim, 193,000. At the same time, almost half the peasant farms of Germany were miserable plots varying in size between an eighth of an acre and an acre and a quarter. There were over 2,800,000 such dwarf holdings.

The Soviet military administration put an end to this situation. At the moment of German capitulation, there were 3,949 landlords' farms with an area of from 500 to 1,250 acres each; 2,024 with an area of from 1,250 to 2,500 acres, and 1,179 with an area of over 2,500 acres. Now all this land belongs to hundreds of thousands of peasants.

In Saxony, for example, 2,000 Junkers owned 818,000 acres of land. Now this land is used by former landless agricultural workers and small peasants. Some 92,000 peasants have received agricultural implements and draft cattle, in addition to land.

Six Months of Plenty

By Y. Usherenko
Soviet Information Bureau Commentator

More than half a year has passed since the abolition of rationing of food and consumer goods. At the same time that this most important economic and political measure was instituted, the Soviet Government carried through a currency reform which sharply increased the purchasing power of the ruble.

Rationing of food and consumer goods had been in existence in the Soviet Union for more than six years. It had been introduced during the first months of the war against Hitlerite Germany and undoubtedly played a beneficial role. During the war, the rationing system enabled the socialist State to spend its food and industrial resources economically and to guarantee the uninterrupted supply of articles that were of prime necessity to the working people.

At the beginning of 1946, after Stalin's famous speech to his constituency in the Stalin District of Moscow, the Soviet Government began intensive preparations for the abolition of rationing. It was impossible to effect it in 1946—for in that year Soviet agriculture suffered a severe drought.

The abolition of rationing took place at the end of 1947, the second year of the postwar Five-Year Plan; and it has played a tremendous role in the restoration and development of the Soviet national economy. It is generally known that the grain harvest and industrial production reached the prewar level in 1947. The result was that at the end of last year the socialist State had at its disposal an immense volume of food and industrial goods which enabled it to take steps to abolish rationing.

Unlike the inhabitants of the overwhelming majority of European countries, Soviet people are now able to buy food and other products daily without any coupons, without any restrictions. This circumstance has not merely favorably affected the amenities of life of the working people of the USSR. The abolition of rationing, and the currency reform have also had a favorable effect on the whole national economy and the productivity of labor of the workers and collective farmers. And it has even more greatly enhanced the personal interest of workers in the results of their labor, and their efforts to raise production.

FOOD STORE. Since rationing ended, food and other commodities are plentiful. This shop is in Moscow.

The abolition of rationing and the transition to unrestricted buying was signalized by another most important measure taken by the Soviet Government in order to effect a further rise in the buying capacity of the people, a further advance in their living standard. That measure was the reform of currency. And the currency reform was effected in such a way as not to reduce the money wages of factory and office workers, the stipends of students, the pensions of invalids and the aged, the money incomes of collective farmers.

Uniform state retail prices were introduced in the USSR simultaneously with the abolition of rationing. Following its unswerving policy of reducing the prices of goods that the people need, the Soviet Government twice during the past half year sharply lowered prices of food products and consumer goods. According to the estimates of the State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, the Soviet peoples, as a result of the price reductions of December, 1947, saved 57,000,000,000 rubles. To convey an idea of the significance of this sum, it will suffice to mention that the peoples of the USSR pay only 31,000,000,000 rubles in taxes during the year—that includes income, agri-

cultural and other taxes. And here is another figure for comparison: 57,000,000,000 rubles is almost as much as has been allocated this year for capital construction under the State Budget of the USSR.

Moreover, it must not be forgotten that Soviet people buy part of the products they consume on the collective farm market where prices are not controlled. As a result of competition with state prices, prices on the collective farm market fell sharply during the past six months and in a number of districts and regions are even lower than the state retail prices.

As a result of the fall in prices and the rise in the purchasing power of the ruble and of the growth of money wages, real wages of Soviet factory and office workers during the first quarter of 1948 increased by 51 per cent as compared with the same period of 1947.

A decided improvement has taken place in the work of Soviet trading organizations since the abolition of the rationing system. Salesmen are striving to give the best service to consumers. Along with existing department stores, specialized stores have been opened in towns throughout the Soviet Union for the sale of certain kinds of food and industrial goods. Thousands of new restaurants, dining halls, cafes and refreshment rooms have been opened. State trading organizations serve the seasonal needs of working people who for the summer go to the country.

The USSR is the first country in Europe to abolish rationing of food and industrial goods, despite the fact that the Soviet Union suffered more than all other countries from the war.

This is a result of the fact that the USSR, at an ever-growing pace, is successfully restoring and developing its national economy. The living standard of the broadest masses of the working people is steadily rising—for the most progressive social order in the world, the socialist order, holds undivided sway. The advantages of this order, which were strikingly expressed before and during the Second World War, are telling with particular force now, after the war. The land of socialism is continuously prospering, is confidently marching onward to communism.

Private Property in the USSR

By J. Brandenburgsky

On several occasions I have heard the most absurd notions expressed about the USSR—that it is allegedly prohibited, for instance, to purchase an automobile, a valuable picture, or any other item for personal use.

This, of course, is sheer nonsense—personal property has always existed and continues to exist in the USSR. Along with the socialist system of economy, which is the dominating form of economy in the USSR, Soviet law permits the existence of small private shops and farms based on one's personal labor. Exploitation of other people's labor is illegal. The collective farmers, as a rule, have small personal plots of land for their personal use, as well as their own homes, their own livestock, poultry and implements.

All the incomes from labor—wages and salaries; the earnings of the writer, artist, actor, sculptor, and other representatives of the free-lance professions; private homes, household articles and objects of personal use and comfort—all these constitute personal property, and the citizens who own it are free to dispose of it at their own discretion.

The right to personal property and the right to inherit property are protected by law.

Property may be inherited on the basis of a testament, or, in the absence of a testament, on the basis of the pertinent law. Legal heirs are: children of the deceased (including adopted children), the wife (or husband), who are not able-bodied, parents and other incapacitated persons who depended upon the deceased for support for at least a year prior to his death.

If such heirs are lacking, or if they refuse the inheritance for one reason or another, the inheritance is given to the parents of the deceased, even if they are able-bodied persons, or, if the parents are no longer alive, to the brothers and sisters of the deceased.

The inheritance, in the absence of a will, is divided equally among all the recognized heirs.

The testator may bequeath all his property or a part of it to one or several heirs—to the children only, or to the children and wife (or husband). For example, Vlasov, who lived on Gogol Boulevard in Moscow with his mother, wife and two daughters (one 16 and the other 21 years of age) left a testament bequeathing all his property to his children. This testament disinherited Vlasov's mother and wife, who had property of their own sufficient for their needs.

The testator may also, if he so desires, bequeath all or a part of his property to the State or to some public organization for a specific purpose.

Nevertheless, the Soviet law does impose certain restrictions upon the testator. The Soviet law prohibits the testator from disinheriting such heirs as have not yet come of age, or who lack the capacity to work, of the share of the inheritance to which they would have been entitled if he had died intestate. There was, for example, the case of Nikolai Ivanovich Petrovsky, who bequeathed all his property, savings, furniture, etc., to his wife, apparently assuming that she would support and educate their twelve-year-old son. This testament was disqualified as invalid, for the testator had no right to deprive a minor of his legal share of the inheritance.

This restriction of the testator's will is of course fully justified and does not in the least contradict the fact that the right of a citizen of the USSR to dispose of his property at his death is protected by law.

If at the time when the testament is made, no persons are living who would be entitled by law to inherit the property, the testator has the right to bequeath his property to any person, institution or organization.

All this proves that the Soviet law recognizes personal property and strictly safeguards the freedom of citizens to dispose of this property at their own discretion, within limits based upon public concern for the welfare of children and of the family.

Church Dignitaries Mark Anniversary Of Russian Orthodox Church

A CELEBRATION in honor of the 500th anniversary of the autocephaly (independence) of the Russian Orthodox Church, attended by representatives of the overwhelming majority of Russian Orthodox Churches throughout the world, took place in Moscow from July 8 to 18, 1948.

Autocephaly of the Russian Orthodox Church was achieved when it separated from the Byzantine Church in 1448; in that year, Russian Metropolitan Jonas was appointed the head of the Church by an assembly of the Russian clergy. Before that time, the Russian Metropolitan had been appointed by the Byzantine Church; since then the Church has had the right to independent church self-government.

CLERGY. At the solemn service at Moscow Cathedral (left to right) Metropolitan Stefan, head of the Bulgarian Church, Patriarch Justinian of Romania, Bishop Paisius of the Albanian Church, and Georg VI, Catholicos Patriarch of All the Armenians.

SOLEMN SERVICE. Patriarch Alexius (center) is assisted by Metropolitan Benjamin of Riga (right) and Archbishop Philip of Astrakhan.

Representatives of the Church from all over the world, invited to Moscow for the occasion by Patriarch Alexius of Moscow and All Russia, numbered among them Georgian Catholicos Patriarch Kalistrat, Serbian Patriarch Gavriel, Romanian Patriarch Justinian and Bulgarian Exarch Metropolitan Stefan. The Orthodox Churches of Constantinople, Antioch, Albania and Poland also sent delegations to the celebration. Representatives of the Moscow Patriarch and his Exarchs in Western and Central Europe, Czechoslovakia, and America, heads of Russian parishes in Bulgaria and Yugoslavia, and heads of Russian Orthodox Church missions in China and Holland attended the celebrations. And on the invitation of Patriarch Alexius, Catholicos Patriarch of all the Armenians, Georg VI, also attended.

The celebrations began on July 8 with a service of prayer in Moscow's Yelokhovsky Patriarchal Cathedral. Before the service, Patriarch Alexius briefly addressed the guests, the Moscow clergy and the congregation, pointing out the significance of this date in the history of the Russian Orthodox Church; he spoke of its age-old traditions and in particular of its supreme devotion to the service of its country. Then the Patriarch welcomed the guests who had come from afar.

After the prayer service, which lasted more than an hour, the Moscow Patriarch retired to his residence, where a reception for the delegations and the Moscow clergy was held.

Later the same day, the celebrations were opened officially in the Sokolniki Cathedral in Moscow. In the opening address, the Moscow Patriarch expressed his satisfaction at seeing the overwhelming majority of the Orthodox Churches of the world represented

at the celebrations; he laid emphasis on the strength of the spiritual communion that united these churches in the struggle against the enemies of orthodoxy.

Following the Patriarch's address, Georgi Karpov, Chairman of the Committee for the Affairs of the Russian Orthodox Church of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, greeted the Patriarch of Moscow and All Russia and his guests on behalf of the Soviet Government.

"The Soviet Government," Karpov declared, "which was informed through Patriarch Alexius of the desire of the Russian Orthodox Church to invite the representatives of other Orthodox Churches to the jubilee celebrations, was well-disposed to this and provided every opportunity for communion between the Orthodox Churches."

Then, with the permission of the Moscow Patriarch, the heads of the delegations spoke, congratulating and greeting the Russian Orthodox Church on the 500th anniversary of its autocephaly. Among those who spoke were the Exarch of Constantinople (Ecumenical) the Patriarch Metropolitan Germanos, Metropolitan Alexander, representative of the Patriarch of Antioch, the Georgian Catholicos Patriarch Kalistrat, the Serbian Patriarch Gavriel, Romanian Patriarch Justinian, Bulgarian Exarch Metropolitan Stefan, Archbishop Timofei, representing the Polish Orthodox Church, Bishop Paisius, head of the Albanian Orthodox Church, and the Catholicos Patriarch of all the Armenians, Georg VI.

Following the speeches by members of the delegations, Nikolai Muraviev, a lecturer at the Moscow Theological Academy, read a paper on the 500th anniversary of the autocephaly of the Russian Orthodox Church.

The celebrations continued for ten days. Special services of prayer, attended by all the delegations from abroad, were held in Moscow.

During their stay, the guests of the Moscow Patriarch visited places of historic interest in Moscow and saw many of the sights for which the Soviet capital is remarkable. On July 16, they heard a concert of religious music.

And on July 18, the closing day of the celebrations, a solemn liturgy was sung in the Monastery of Troitse Sergievo Abbey, near Moscow.

How Soviet Farmers Live

By A. Danilov

THE members of the Ogorodnyi Gigant collective farm live in the village of Kolomenskoye. Neat little houses with brightly painted window-frames line the main thoroughfare of the village, Bo'shaya Ulitsa (Grand Street). These houses are no less pleasant inside than they are attractive outside. All of them have electricity, and every farmer has his own radio. The farmers and their children, old and young alike, enjoy the broadcasts from Moscow.

The farmers of the Ogorodnyi Gigant farm live a prosperous life, and on the basis of the socialist principle—"from each according to his ability; to each according to his work"—their collective economy is continually expanding and the incomes of the members increasing.

What a great contrast there is between the happy life of the Kolomenskoye peasants today and the dismal past!

This is what Peter Karasev, a fifty-eight-year-old collective farmer, told me.

"I did not join the collective farm as soon as it was formed, but when I had thought matters over and joined, my life immediately changed for the better. I now live in complete security."

In the past Peter Karasev was a downtrodden farmhand, now he is a prosperous collective farmer. He has a nicely-furnished three-room house, with modern conveniences.

And this is how all the collective farmers live.

Kolomenskoye has changed completely during the years of Soviet power. It has become transformed from an impoverished, ugly little village, into a flourishing and cultured one. It has a hospital with 90 beds; the collective farm has a nursery that accommodates 40 children; and an elementary school with an enrollment of five hundred pupils. The Ogorodnyi Gigant farm has, with its own funds, built a fine club that has an auditorium seating three hundred persons, an attractive lounge, a library and reading room.

The collective farm club conducts extensive cultural and educational work among the villagers. The latest films are shown in the auditorium. The lectures for the collective farmers held every Thursday attract large audiences. Two recent lectures were on the origin of man, and the stages in the development of plants. A special lecture for young people was given on the topic of friendship and comradeship.

Moscow theater troupes frequently perform at the club. In the past three months they have presented *Late Love, A Glass of Water, Deep are the Roots, A Man from the Other World, Darling,* and other plays.

The performances of the club's amateur circles always attract large audiences. Active participants in the work of these circles are former serviceman Vakhtang Tushmalov, a Georgian, now manager of the club, and Maria Alexeyeva, the Young Communist League organizer.

The Collective Farm Board and its chairman, Grigori Sapchuk, devote considerable attention to the work of the club, for it is the favorite recreation place of the villagers.

The chief cultural center of the village is the library. It has more than five thousand books, including the classics of Marxism and Leninism, Russian classic literature, fiction, books and pamphlets on farming, scientific and technical literature. The library has some six hundred regular subscribers, and from 40 to 50 people come here each day. The Collective Farm Board constantly allocates funds for the purchase of additional books.

At the reading room of the library, discussions and readers' conferences are frequent. The participants of the conferences share their impressions of particular books and express their opinions on problems of interest to them. These are very lively and interesting affairs. They are reported in the collective farm wall newspaper, *Krasnyi Luch,* that reflects every side of the life of the Ogorodnyi Gigant collective farm.

Anglo-German Negotiations On the Eve of the War

By Professor V. Khvostov

In the three preceding issues of the USSR Information Bulletin, Boris Izakov, Soviet journalist, commented on the first of two published volumes of "Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War"—texts of Nazi Government documents captured by Soviet troops in Berlin. In this article, Professor V. Khvostov comments on the second volume.

THE Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR is continuing the publication of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* the first volume of which appeared in April, 1948. Now the second volume has come out. It bears the subheading *Dirksen's Archive (1938-39).*

In the preface to the book we read that among the German archives that fell into the hands of the Soviet Army was that of Herbert von Dirksen, former German Ambassador in Moscow, Tokyo and London. Most fully represented in Dirksen's archive are the papers relating to the period of his ambassadorship in London. And these papers, published in Volume II of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* are of notable interest.

The Dirksen documents throw light on the policy of the British Government in 1938-1939, i.e., on the eve of the war.

They explain one of the reasons why, despite all the efforts of the Soviet Government, the negotiations it then conducted with Britain concerning a treaty of mutual assistance against Germany proved unsuccessful, with the result that the Soviet Government had to accept the German proposal to conclude a pact of nonaggression, and thus to paralyze Neville Chamberlain's efforts to bring about an Anglo-German deal and to isolate the Soviet Union.

Among the documents now published, special interest attaches to Dirksen's survey of Anglo-German relations during his ambassadorship in London (i.e., from May, 1938 to September, 1939).

In his lengthy survey, Dirksen reveals first of all the general trend of British policy during those years. He traces the entire history of the Anglo-German negotiations. Chamberlain's first attempt to strike a deal with Hitler Germany was the mission of Lord Halifax, the record of whose talks with Hitler was published in the first volume, which also included a record of Hitler's subsequent talks with the British Ambassador in Berlin, Henderson.*

Those talks led to no results only because Hitler did not want to bind himself by any new commitments to Britain. When this became clear to the British Government it deemed it necessary to frighten Hitler a bit with the possibility of British intervention in the event of German aggression against Czechoslovakia. Statements to this effect were made by the British Ambassador in Berlin in May, 1938. But the purpose of the threat was not really to defend Czechoslovakia. Its purpose was only to make Hitler more tractable, to make him feel that a deal with Britain would be useful to him. For some time the British Government did achieve that aim. The trip to London of Henlein, the chief of Hitler's party in Czechoslovakia, and the several visits paid there by Hitler's adjutant, Captain Wiedemann, bear witness to this.

From the summer of 1938 the British Government continued to make attempts to come to terms with German fascism. Sounding followed sounding. The two volumes of documents published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR enable us to trace these soundings, beginning with the summer of 1938 and continuing to August, 1939. It is already known from the first volume that Ashton-Gwatkin, a member of Runciman's mission, tried through Henlein to sound out the possibility of direct negotiations between British Government representatives and Hitler personally, with a view to concluding a broad Anglo-German agreement—not only in regard to the Czechoslovak question. In the above-mentioned survey, published in the second volume, Dirksen reports that in the latter part of July, 1938, Chamberlain himself made a similar attempt through him personally. Dirksen states in his survey that "the general tendency of British policy in regard to the Czechoslovak question was becoming ever more clearly defined in the course of the summer: the British Government . . . strove to find a way out which would satisfy Germany's demands. It was obviously prepared to bring strong pressure to bear on the Czechs." As we know, this policy led the British Government to betray Czechoslovakia at the Munich Conference on September 29, 1938.

In the same survey Dirksen tells about extremely important economic talks that the British started to conduct with Germany soon after the conclusion of the Munich deal, in the winter of 1938-1939. During those talks an important agreement was reached between German and British coal operators for a division of the world market between them, and it was agreed to organize talks at Dusseldorf between the leading monopolists of both countries concerning a more general agreement for co-operation in the world market.

The economic talks, which went on from December, 1938, to March, 1939, testify to the constant efforts of the British Government to come to terms with the Hitlerites. But these efforts reached their decisive phase in the summer of 1939. This time the British, in order to make sure of success, decided to precede the talks by a preparatory maneuver, the aim of

* *USSR Information Bulletin:* No. 11, June 16, 1948, p. 339; No. 13, July 14, 1948, p. 413. *Falsificators of History (an historical note),* text of a communique issued by the Soviet Information Bureau, Moscow, February 1948: pp. 17, 18, 19, 20.

which was to compel Hitler to feel a need for a deal with the British. The maneuver consisted of giving Poland, Romania, Greece and Turkey "guarantees" and, what was the main thing, in starting negotiations with the Soviet Union for the conclusion of a pact of mutual assistance against an aggressor. The Dirksen documents show that the British Government's real aim in starting negotiations with the Soviet Union and in its "guarantees" to Poland, Romania and other countries, was to exert pressure upon Hitler, to make him feel that he needed British friendship.

On August 3, 1939, Dirksen reported to the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs: "The impression has prevailed here that the contacts with other states established in the past few months are but a reserve means for a real reconciliation with Germany, and that these contacts will lapse as soon as the only important aim, the only aim worth the effort—an agreement with Germany—is actually achieved." From Dirksen's documents it is obvious how much Britain's "guarantees" were worth. It transpires that the British assured the German Ambassador and other German official representatives that they were prepared to betray Poland, whom they had just "guaranteed," to withdraw the "guarantees" given her and let her "settle" the Danzig question while facing Germany all alone, as soon as agreement had been reached between Germany and Britain. These shameful proposals were made to the German Ambassador and other official representatives of Hitler Germany by the closest adviser and right-hand man of the British Prime Minister, who told them that they could receive confirmation of those proposals from the Prime Minister in person.

Dirksen records some statements of his British interlocutors. He writes, for example, that, "as Sir Horace Wilson explained," the underlying idea of the British proposals for the conclusion of an Anglo-German agreement was "to raise and solve questions of such magnitude, that the deadlocked problems of Danzig and Poland would recede to the background and could then be settled between Germany and Poland directly." "Britain would also discontinue her negotiations for a pact with the Soviet Union." Dirksen's documents confirm that assurances to this effect were repeatedly made on Chamberlain's behalf. "Wilson," writes Dirksen, "assured me even more explicitly than he assured Wohltat that, once an Anglo-German entente had been concluded, Britain's policy of guarantees would in fact be liquidated." "Poland would be left, so to speak, alone, face to face with Germany."

Dirksen does not report the details of the first round of the Anglo-German negotiations in the summer of 1939. But we learn from his documents that that round took place in June, and that there participated in the negotiations, on behalf of Germany, the above-mentioned Wohltat, a close friend of Goering. Then, after a brief interval, the negotiations were resumed in July, when Wohltat came to London again. The official purpose of his visit was to take part in whaling talks. During that conference Wohltat saw Chamberlain's closest adviser, Horace Wilson. This personage is described by Dirksen as Chamberlain's right-hand man in all questions of foreign policy. Dirksen took it for granted that when Wilson said something it was the same as if Chamberlain had said it. In his talks with Wohltat, Wilson proposed the conclusion of a broad political and economic agreement between Germany and Britain and "made it perfectly clear that Chamberlain approves this program."

After that, on July 20, Wohltat met the British Minister of Overseas Trade, Robert Hudson, who laid before him a project for the division of spheres of influence on a world-wide scale. Among the spheres to be so divided was "Russia" too. This may seem incredible, but it is a fact. This sort of division of our country was what a representative of the British Prime Minister offered an official Hitlerite representative on July 20, 1939.

After his talk with Hudson, Wohltat again met Wilson. The latter now concretized the program of the proposed adjustment. He offered a pact of nonaggression, and also a pact of nonintervention, which was to include a delimitation of spheres of influence between Britain and Germany. In addition, Wilson suggested a series of economic agreements for the division of world markets, etc. During the course of the conversation he made it clear that Eastern and Southeastern Europe would be recognized as belonging in Germany's sphere of influence. Wilson made no bones about declaring that, if such agreements were reached, Britain would be prepared to sell out Poland, leaving her to settle the Danzig question with Germany alone.

Although no reply came from Berlin to these proposals, and although rumors of Hudson's conversation with Wohltat got into the press, the British went on with their soundings. On July 29, Charles Roden Buxton, a member of the Labor Party, visited Kordt, Counsellor in the German Embassy, and laid before him ideas almost identical with those which Wilson had developed to Wohltat. Dirksen says that he had the impression that Buxton had either been sent by "official persons" or, at least had discussed with them the proposals he set forth in the conversation with Kordt.

A few days later, on August 3, 1939, Butler, Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, arranged for a meeting between Horace Wilson and the German Ambassador, Dirksen himself. The conversation was thus of an official nature. In that conversation Wilson repeated the offer to conclude a pact of non-aggression, and an agreement for the division of spheres of influence and on various economic matters, and confirmed Britain's intention to renounce her guarantee commitments toward Poland, Turkey, etc.

Finally, on August 9, the Foreign Secretary himself, Lord Halifax, speaking in more general terms, confirmed in a conversation with Dirksen the desirability of an Anglo-German deal.

Nevertheless, the deal did not materialize. The reason was that the Germans did not accept the offers. Berlin did not deign to give an answer to any of London's advances. The Hitlerites did not even deem it useful for their Ambassador to remain in London. Dirksen, who left London around August 12, never returned there. Furthermore, when he arrived in Berlin, Ribbentrop, the Foreign Minister, did not even find it necessary to receive him. Dirksen was given permission to go to his estate at Groeditzberg, and

that was where he was when the war began.

It is obvious from the documents about the Anglo-German negotiations, now made public by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, that the British Government of that period expected to deceive the Soviet Government. It apparently hoped that the Soviet Government would be excessively credulous and would trust the good faith of the British partner. It imagined that the USSR would go on endlessly conducting the negotiations which the British were deliberately dragging out. It did not at all seek an agreement with the USSR. All it wanted, as A. A. Zhdanov quite exactly pointed out in *Pravda* on June 29, 1939, was "talks" about an agreement. The British Government needed those talks to frighten Hitler, to prevail upon him to conclude an agreement with Britain, and to isolate the Soviet Union.

Now we have documentary evidence that the British Government wanted no definite agreement with the USSR. Formerly we could only guess that this was so from the preposterousness of some of the British proposals, from the fact that the persons sent to Moscow for both the political and the military talks were officials of secondary rank, that they had no powers, etc. We now know more: that the British military mission which was sent to Moscow for talks with representatives of the Soviet Armed Forces, while not given powers, was, however, given something else that forms a necessary attribute of any government delegation—namely, instructions. And in those instructions (Par. 15) it was stated without beating about the bush that it appeared undesirable to the British Government to assume any definite obligation that might tie its hands. The Soviet Government saw through this double game and, naturally, had to accept Germany's proposal to conclude a Soviet-German pact. The decision to conclude a pact of nonaggression between the USSR and Germany was taken after the military talks with France and Britain had reached a deadlock.

The incendiaries of war did not succeed in lulling the vigilance of the Soviet Government. The essence of their policy was exposed by J. V. Stalin as early as at the Eighteenth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. Referring to the policy of the Munichites, J. V. Stalin said that it "reveals an eagerness, a desire, not to hinder the aggressors in their nefarious work: not to hinder Japan, say, from embroiling herself in a war with China, or, better still, with the Soviet Union; not to hinder Germany, say, from enmeshing herself in European affairs, from embroiling herself in a war with the Soviet Union; to allow all the belligerents to sink deeply in the mire of war, to encourage them surreptitiously in this; to allow them to weaken and exhaust one another, and then, when they have become weak enough, to appear on the scene with fresh strength, to appear, of course, 'in the interests of peace,' and to dictate conditions to the enfeebled belligerents.

"Cheap and easy!"

Stalin's analysis of the international situation served as a guiding star for Soviet diplomacy, and the latter found the means to paralyze the hostile policy of the British Government. The British Government strove to isolate the USSR by coming to terms with Germany. It figured that it could unleash a Soviet-German war and preserve for Britain the position of the bystander who reaps the benefits. That policy proved an ignominious failure.

A Fisherwoman Deputy

Among the 22 women elected to the Astrakhan Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies (in the RSFSR) we find the name of Pelageya Stepanovna Vasilenkova, a 50-year-old fisherwoman of Makovka village in the lower reaches of the Volga where it empties into the Caspian Sea. This is not surprising since there are many fisherwomen in those parts who have gained popularity by their excellent work.

Vasilenkova does not willingly speak about herself, and it was with some difficulty that she was persuaded to tell something about her life story.

"In my 12th year I started slaving for merchants," she recalled. "I was illiterate, and like everybody in the fishing villages, my family was living in poverty and want. Only after we united in fishing collectives, in artels [cooperatives], did we begin to lead a human life."

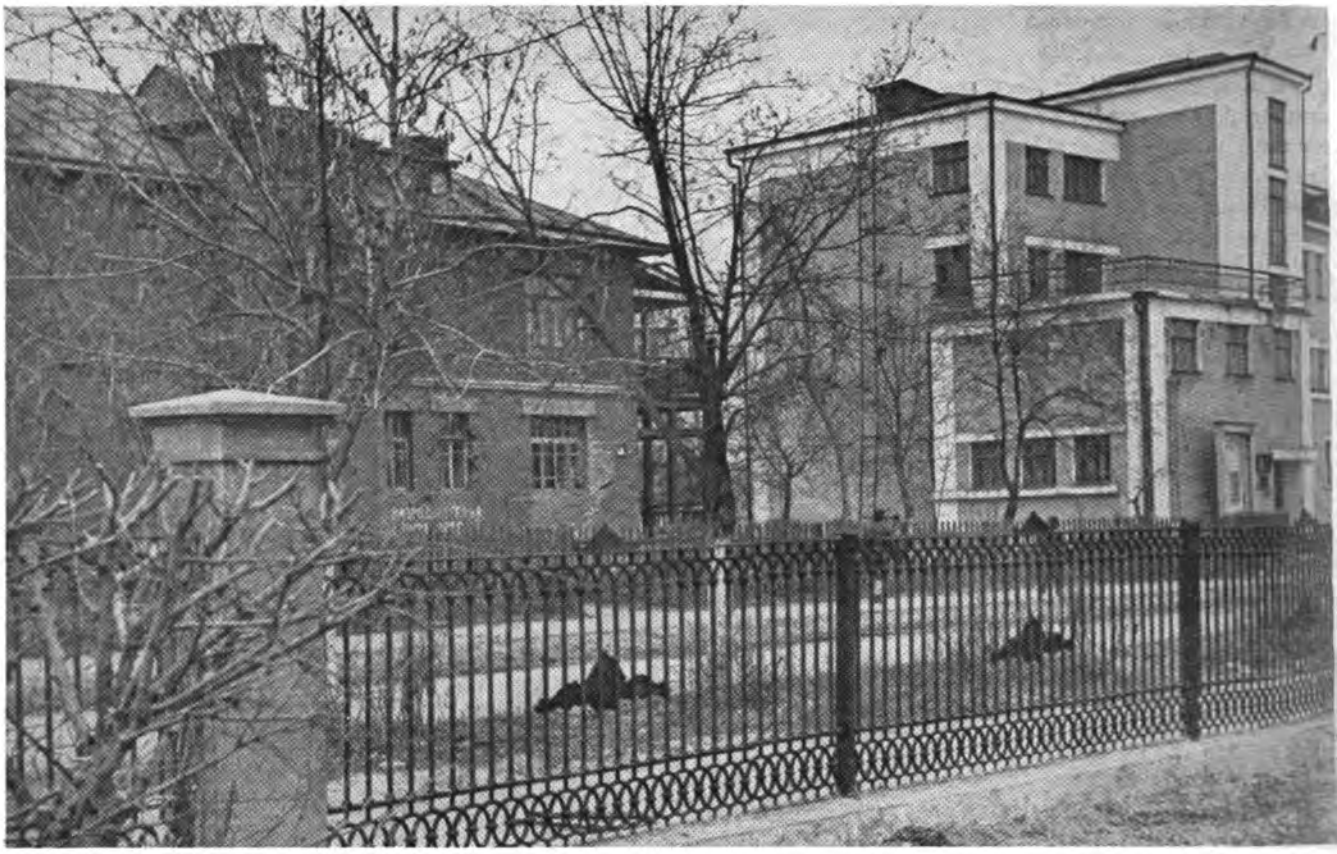
Vasilenkova's talent as an organizer was revealed in the fishing artel. There she organized a women's brigade to knit fishing nets. She directed its work for three years, and then decided to try her hand at fishing. Vasilenkova organized a women's fishing brigade, the first women's crew to go fishing on the Volga River and Caspian Sea. Such crews have now become quite usual in fishing artels, and fisherwomen now speak of this work as a matter of course, as an everyday affair.

The industry and organizational talent of Pelageya Vasilenkova were fully appreciated by the fishermen. Nine years ago they elected her chairman of the managing board of their artel. Since then she has served an unbroken term as the head of this cooperative. Under her administration the wealth of the artel has been steadily increasing, its economy expanding, and the catch has increased by 1.5 times since Vasilenkova was placed at the head of the artel.

From morning till night you will find Vasilenkova on fishing smacks, on rafts, on farms. The people find in this simple woman an energetic organizer and experienced leader.

This ordinary Soviet fisherwoman is very popular among her fellow villagers. She has won wide respect by her indefatigable public activity and her thoughtful consideration of her fellow workers and neighbors.

Pelageya Vasilenkova, a working woman of humble beginnings whose life has changed radically for the better in Soviet times, is not unusual. In the USSR, where women have equal opportunity with men in all fields, millions of women have shown great ability in government, the professions, industry and agriculture. Half a million women are deputies to local Soviets; thousands are members of Supreme Soviets of various republics; and 277 are members of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.



STALINGRAD TODAY. New houses and a small hotel have been built near the Stalingrad tractor plant on territory laid waste by the Nazis.

SEVASTOPOL. In the devastated cities, schools were among the first buildings restored. Secondary School No.

The Ruined Cities Are Reborn

By A. Palladin

LIKE the legendary phoenix of old, Stalingrad, the hero-city, the city of the Soviet people's glory in war and glory in peaceful labor, rises again from its ashes.

For 162 days the great battle raged on the streets and squares of the Volga stronghold, in the blocks of residential houses and the shops of factories. The fire of war destroyed this beautiful city. The Germans turned it into a heap of ruins with their savage bombardments and shellfire. When the din of battle had passed away, the people of Stalingrad saw that their city lay in ruins over all of its forty kilometers.* Ninety-six per cent of the dwelling space of the city was destroyed. All the public enterprises, the cultural and children's establishments had been razed. The factories, plants, the property of the railway, the river transport, the streetcar service, the communications—all had been completely ruined. The total damages sustained by the city were 9,000,000,000 rubles.

The ruins were still smoking when the inhabitants of Stalingrad began to reconstruct their city; and the whole Soviet nation held out a hand of aid to these heroic builders.

Five years ago the inhabitants wrote on the walls of the ruined houses: "We will rebuild you, Stalingrad!" The Stalingradites are keeping their word to the letter. They are rapidly reviving the municipal economy, and building the city anew. The entire vast territory of Stalingrad is one immense construction site. From the ashes there arise beautiful and comfortable residential houses. In a very short time about 900 thousand square meters** of dwelling space have been restored or built anew and put into use. More than 24 thousand individual homes for the working people have been put up, mostly with the help of credit from the State.

This year great attention is being directed toward reconstruction of the central districts of the city, and accelerating the rate of construction of residential houses. About 500 million rubles are to be expended on capital construction.

KIEV. The Ukrainian capital has been reconstructed to a considerable degree. A rebuilt downtown department store.

The city streetcar line, water main, telephone network and radiobroadcasting system have already been restored and are now being extended. During the past five years 79 schools have been put into operation (the Hitlerites destroyed one hundred school buildings in the city). During the Battle of Stalingrad 45 hospitals and dispensaries were destroyed. Now 35 such medical institutions have already been reopened. Theaters, clubs, dining halls, stores, public baths are rapidly being restored and built anew. The industry of the city is for the most part already restored. One of the large enterprises already in operation again is the tractor works. Its capacity will soon reach its prewar level.

Altogether, in five years, 2,103,000,000 rubles have been expended on the reconstruction of Stalingrad, of which 1,500,000,000 were spent on reconstruction of the city's industry. During these five years the plants and factories of the city have achieved over 2,037,000,000 rubles worth of production.

*One kilometer=.621 of a mile.

**One square meter=10.764 square feet.

MINSK. A reconstructed street in the capital of Soviet Byelorussia.

The revival of Stalingrad, the rapid rate of growth of the hero-city, is but one of the numerous examples of the self-denial which Soviet people are practicing in order to restore their economy from the devastation of the war and to develop it further. In the formerly occupied regions of the Russian Federation, in the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Moldavia, and the Karelo-Finnish SSR, the Soviet people are healing the wounds suffered in the war, reviving and rebuilding their cities and towns.

Of the 1,710 towns completely or partially ruined and burned by the German fascist vandals, every single one is now under reconstruction. The enthusiasm with which this reconstruction work is carried on is admirable alike in large industrial and cultural centers such as Leningrad, Sevastopol, Kiev, Minsk, Odessa, Smolensk, Novgorod, Pskov, Orel, Kharkov, Voronezh, Rostov-on-Don, Petrozavodsk, as well as in the smaller towns where the scale of work is, of course, much smaller. Everywhere the Soviet people are striving to rebuild the towns destroyed by the Germans as rapidly as possible, and in such a way as to make them more beautiful and more comfortable than ever.

The inhabitants of Sevastopol are sparing no effort to raise their Black Sea capital from its ruins in as short a time as possible. Most of the buildings in Savastopol were razed to the ground by the Germans; not one house was left unmolested in the center of the city; all the industrial and public enterprises were put out of commission.

Now Sevastopol is being rebuilt according to a general plan worked out by prominent Soviet architects and approved two years ago by the Government of the Russian SFSR. Sevastopol is being revived as a monumental city. It has always been distinguished for its unusual architecture and unmatched architectural ensembles. The area of Sevastopol will be one and one-half times as large as before the war.

There are still many ruins in the city, but month by month the number of restored and newly built buildings increases. Street after street is being rebuilt. Hundreds of thousands of square meters of dwelling space have already been put into use; new schools, medical institutions, kindergartens and public nurseries have been opened. Automobiles are again to be seen on the Primorsky, Istorichesky and Matrossky Boulevards.

A great deal of work has been done in the reconstruction of the Ukrainian capital. During the five years that have elapsed since Kiev was liberated, 450 thousand square meters of dwelling space have been built. This year about 200 thousand more square meters of dwelling space will be put into use. Of the 515 million rubles which comprise Kiev's budget for 1948, 211 millions are earmarked for the development of the municipal economy and 278 millions for social and cultural measures. New viaducts, parks, gardens are being built and new retail stores and kiosks are being opened. About five hundred enterprises have been revived and are already in operation in Kiev.

As the outlines of revived Minsk, the capital of Byelorussia, become more and more distinct, it becomes evident that the city is taking on an entirely new appearance. The reconstruction of Minsk is by no means just a literal repetition of what Minsk was before the war, but a considerable improvement on prewar Minsk.

The working people of Minsk had to rebuild their city completely, for the Hitlerites destroyed all the industrial enterprises, all the cultural establishments and almost all the dwellings of the city.

At present there are 75 industrial enterprises in operation in Minsk, producing, among other things, lathes, radio sets, and textiles. A newly built bicycle factory is producing bicycles. An automobile factory is being erected, and is already producing large trucks. Not far away the buildings of a colossal tractor works are being erected.

Since the end of the war 210 thousand square meters of dwelling space have been restored and built. The streetcar lines are being extended, and many bus lines have been put into operation. At present the city receives more electricity than before the war. As before, Minsk is a large center of science, culture and art. Eleven colleges and 17 technical schools have been rebuilt and reopened. An opera theater has been built, and the Byelorussian and Russian Drama Theaters are in operation.

Komsomolskaya Ulitsa will become one of the liveliest thoroughfares in the new Byelorussian capital. It will excel many streets of the largest cities in the world. It will be 60 meters* wide. Revived Minsk will be a garden city. There will be several times more trees per inhabitant here than in the largest cities of Europe.

The Soviet people are selflessly exerting all efforts to rebuild their ruined cities, to reconstruct and further develop their entire national economy.

*One meter = 3.28 feet.

A Rich Miner

By Y. Usherenko

You'd have thought it was a farm house. Beyond the open window lay a green meadow; flowering apricot trees stood in the golden evening light.

Grandmother, tiny of figure—but formidable—placed a huge tureen of soup on the dinner table. Her smile, as she turned to me, was benignity itself, salted with country irony. "Please excuse the simple meal," she said. "If only I'd known we were going to have a guest from Moscow. . . ."

The meal was begun with a glass of wine followed by macaroni-and-meat soup. Next, a wonderful roast. Finally, cheese pies of melting delicacy—and cherry jelly (better for the children).

I was not, however, being entertained by a farmer, as you might think. My host was a coal miner, Pavel Kryzhanovsky, one of the best pick hammer operators in the Donbas.

We had plenty in common to talk about besides the drive for more coal—for Pavel and I had served in neighboring outfits in the Ukraine and Poland during the war.

Everybody in Gorlovka knows and likes the family. Pavel's wife, Maria, is a native of the town. They met in school, grew up together, fell in love. Now they have two children—seven-year-old Valentine—lively and full of fun—and Vova, the baby, who, as Maria confessed, is a bit spoiled.

"Elizaveta Petrovna, the doctor at the polyclinic, keeps telling me I ought to send him to the day nursery," she said. "She thinks it would be better for the child, and for me—he wouldn't be so spoiled. But life would be dull without him around—that's why I keep him at home."

Vova, eighteen months old and cutting teeth, was as capricious as he could be, unwilling to let his mother so much as glance at the latest issue of "Crocodile," a Soviet humor magazine which was lying on the table.

Even before the war, Pavel Kryzhanovsky had a name in the Kalinin pit as a skilled innovator. But I want to tell you as much about his living conditions and his home life as about his prowess in the mine. I think it might interest my readers to know what kind of a house a typical Soviet miner lives in, how the housekeeping is managed, how much the family has to live on, and so on.

GOING DOWN. Kryzhanovsky (left) and others descend into the mine.

So to begin with, I'll show you around the house.

The front room, which is the biggest, is a dining room and living room combined.

Valentina shares one of the bedrooms with her grandmother—the old lady who prepared the dinner. And Vova shares his parents' room.

The family moved into the house last fall.

I asked about rent.

"We don't pay any," was Pavel's reply. "The house is my own—it cost me about 7,500 rubles. The pit management helped me by providing building materials and labor. Electricity and other municipal services cost a mere trifle—about 28 or 30 rubles a month."

There was another guest at dinner—Emelyan Latushkin, a miner from the same pit as Pavel. The meal took a long time, for we had a lot to talk about.

Afterwards, as we sat around the table, Maria told us how life had changed for the town, and for the family, in the past year—thanks to derationing and easier living conditions. "Besides," she added, "Pavel earns a lot more than he did last year."

Her husband pulled out his labor record book and showed me the statement of his earnings: February—10,829 rubles, 61 kopecks; March—10,895 rubles, 20 kopecks; April—9,868 rubles, 13 kopecks.

RICHES. Kryzhanovsky's pay voucher, showing his month's pay of 10,829 rubles 61 kopecks.

"What's the wage system at your pit?" I asked.

"All very clear and simple," was the reply. "The collective agreement concluded between management and the trade union committee in March laid down a basic wage of 40 rubles a shift for pick hammer operators. But when a miner has done 80 per cent of his quota, the system of progressive payment and premiums comes into force. That means I get double pay for each per cent of the quota that I do between 80 and 100 per cent, and triple for what I do above 100 per cent. With a system like this, miners make extremely good wages. Another thing —miners get extra pay for long service. For instance, I get 25 per cent extra pay in addition to my wages. This percentage is based on the number of years a miner has worked in the pit."

"But it's not only a matter of making more," Maria put in. "You must remember that nowadays we can buy more for the same money—we can buy everything we need, and as much as we want."

Since the abolition of rationing, more shops have been opened in the town. Maria gets the household provisions at Shop No. 8, even though it is the shop farthest from the house. "They take a lot of trouble to please their customers," she explained.

I asked her whether she ever did any shopping at the collective farm market.

"Oh yes," she replied. "We get three quarts of milk a day from the market, besides fresh cream cheese, sour cream, eggs and fat pork—if they're better than they've got in the shop."

"Just at present it's sometimes better to buy meat at the market," grandmother declared. "Veal is even cheaper there than in the shops."

"But butter, now," said Maria, "butter is a different matter. We always buy our butter at Shop No. 8. The quality is much better. We use nothing but butter for our cooking, and it's important to get the best."

"Pavel Ivanovich," I said, "do all the miners earn as much as you do?"

"Those who love their work make good money," he said emphatically. "There are no obstacles in anybody's way. Alexander Turenkov, one of our pick hammer operators whose name has been mentioned in the papers, makes more than I do. My buddy Grigory Shurayev made 6,100 rubles in February, 7,000 in March and 10,800 in April—more than I did. We work together—that's how I know how much he makes. But Emelyan Fyodorovich here," and Kryzhanovsky pointed to his other guest, Latushkin, "he was seriously ill last year, and he hasn't quite caught up yet."

Latushkin in turn pulled out his labor record book and read out his exact earnings for the past three months: "February—4,268 rubles, 66 kopecks; March—4,395 rubles, 76 kopecks; April—4,037 rubles, 72 kopecks. I'm earning less because I was laid up, as Pavel Ivanovich told you. Last summer, a fall of rock hurt my left leg so badly that I thought I was going to lose it. I was in the hospital for 43 days. But the doctors saved the leg, and then the trade union committee sent me to Slavyansk to take mud treatment, so I had another six weeks of rest.

"My illness cost the State a good deal. During the three months I was laid up, I received my average earnings in full. Then all the treatment, including the best specialists, was free—and the treatment in Slavyansk set the trade union committee back about

(Continued on page 458)

SHOPPING. Maria Kryzhanovskaya prefers this shop to others in the town.

READY FOR THE MOVIES. Maria smooths her hair as Pavel waits impatiently to go to the local cinema.

The Coal Miners of the USSR Raise Their Output

THE Moscow scientific and technical journal *Ugol (Coal)* has recently published data on labor productivity in the Soviet coal industry.

In the years since the establishment of Soviet power, the journal states in an editorial, labor productivity in coal mining in the USSR has increased by two and one-half to three times. In 1913, the monthly output of a miner amounted to only 12.5 tons,* whereas in 1940, with a shorter labor day, the figure was 30.5 tons, i.e., more than 360 tons a year. In output per coal miner, the Soviet Union surpassed a number of the principal capitalist countries as long ago as 1937. In that year, the productivity of a worker in the coal industry of the USSR amounted to 327 tons, whereas in England it was 311 and in France only 195 tons.

In the districts not subjected to military operations (Siberia, the Urals, etc.) labor productivity in coal mining continued to grow also during the years of the Second World War. This applies more especially to open working, which assumed great scope in the eastern part of the country. For instance, the annual output per worker in open cuts of the Urals increased from 700 tons of coal in 1940 to 1,043 tons in 1945.

A decisive role in this rapid growth of the labor productivity of Soviet miners was played by the greatly increased mechanization of coal mining. In respect to their level of mechanization, Soviet mines will not only stand comparison with the best mines in Europe and America, but even surpass them. These successes have been achieved as a result of the rapid development of machine-building in the Soviet Union. The Soviet machine-building industry is capable of producing the most intricate machines for all branches of production.

Since the end of the war, the Soviet State has continued to devote great attention to the technical equipment of the coal industry. Hewing of coal

STAKHANOVITES. Leading miners of the Karaganda mines.

is already 97.4 per cent mechanized; haulage, 90.4 per cent; and transportation, 83.4 per cent. Further improvement of the technology of production, and the perfection of mechanization of all processes of coal mining provide the basis for the further growth of labor productivity.

On the basis of the experience of many mines, the journal points out that complex mechanization of coal mining can be most successfully realized with the aid of coal mining combines, which simultaneously hew the coal and load it on a transporter. The average labor productivity on sectors equipped with coal combines is usually 25 per cent higher than on those in which only coal cutting machines are used.

A number of coal cutting combines have been designed in the Soviet Union, which have proved satisfactory in use.

Along with this, the journal poses the problem of effecting underground transportation of coal entirely by means of conveyors. For this purpose, several types of transporters with a capacity of two hundred tons of coal per hour are being produced in the Soviet Union. The next step is to design highly efficient transporters for long haulage workings.

The journal further points out that a matter of the greatest importance for raising the productivity of miners is the proper organization of labor in the pits, i.e., a more rational utilization of manpower and mechanisms, adoption of the most effective system of workings in each pit, and so on. The example of the best mines shows that labor productivity may be greatly augmented by the introduction of a strict timetable throughout the entire production cycle. This tends to improve the whole working regime in the pit and to reduce losses of working time to a minimum. In the Lidiyevka mine (in the Ukraine), for instance, as a result of the introduction of a timetable, labor productivity of miners rose by 15 per cent during the course of three months. In one of the sectors of the Dmitrov mine in the same district, still better results were achieved: here labor productivity increased by 37.8 per cent.

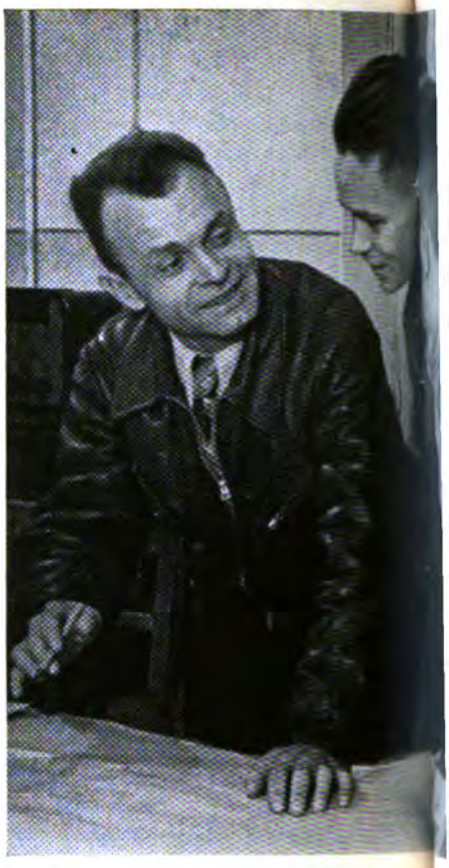
Lastly, the journal points out that the further rise in labor productivity depends upon the increased activities of the administration, the engineers, technicians and workers. The remarkable progress of the Soviet coal industry, as of all other branches of economy, would have been inconceivable without the conscientious attitude toward labor felt by the whole people, who are vitally interested in the progress of their socialist economy. Socialist emulation in labor is an expression of the activity and initiative of the Soviet people. In striving to repair the ravages of the war and to speed the development of the country's national economy, Soviet miners have, of their own accord, pledged to complete their post-war five-year plan in four years. A most important factor in the fulfillment of this pledge is the further rise of labor productivity.

* All tonnage in this article refers to metric tons. One metric ton = 2204.62 pounds.

Miners of the Donbas

The coal miners of the Donets Basin (Donbas) are in the front rank of the heroic coal miners of the Soviet Union. Despite the fact that the Nazi barbarians ravaged wide sections of the Donbas, leaving no town or settlement untouched, flooding hundreds of mines, and wrecking equipment, reconstruction is proceeding at a magnificent pace and the Donbas is producing more coal than any other section of the country. New, mechanized methods of mining, more efficient than those employed before the war, have been introduced at every restored mine in the Donbas. The miners themselves are playing a decisive role in the development of these new mechanized methods, by making suggestions and helping to plan innovations. In their letters to Stalin, they have promised that they will spare no effort until the mines have attained the prewar level of production. And in their friendly, but intensive competition with each other—socialist competition—they are ensuring that they will keep their promises to Stalin and the Soviet people.

HONORED MINER. Afanasi Gepalov has won fame and high pay through exceptional work. He telephones to the mine at its entrance.



HERE'S AN IDEA! Two young miners [illegible] organiz

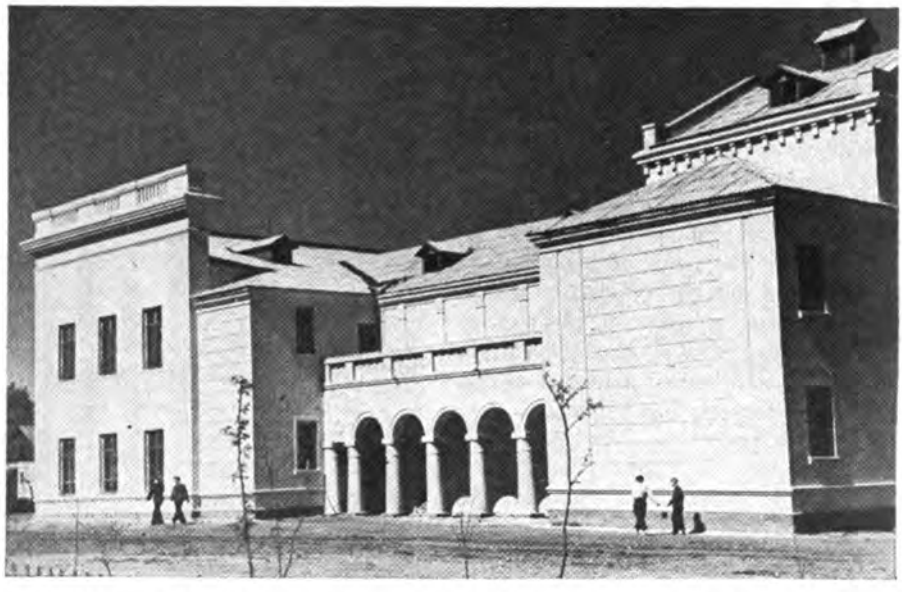
FAMILY. The Gepalovs live a pleasa[illegible] should be in

ıgineer confer with enthusiasm on the
: work.

mining town. Maya's kitten, she feels,
y family picture.

MINING TOWN. Houses in a miners' village in the Donbas.

WEDDING OF A MINER. The guests toast the bride and bridegroom.



HOUSE OF CULTURE. For the miners of a Donbas mine. Here there are books, lectures, recreation facilities.

AUTO FACTORY. ZIS-110 models coming from the final assembly department. This plant is in Moscow.

Moscow Workers Score New Victories

By M. Levin

PRODUCTION victory . . . This phrase may frequently be heard in the Soviet Union. Production victories, i.e., the successful completion of the production plan ahead of schedule by one or another enterprise, by an entire branch of industry, the industry of a big city, or of a district of the country, are welcomed by Soviet citizens as events of great significance. Tremendous satisfaction and jubilation was recently produced throughout the country by the news of a major victory scored on the production front: the industry of the city of Moscow and of Moscow Region completed the semi-annual plans for gross production ahead of the scheduled date.

The victory of the Muscovites provides an inspiring example for the employees of thousands of factories and mills who are taking part in the nationwide socialist emulation movement for the fulfillment of the 1948 plan by November 7—the Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. In fact, the Muscovites initiated this movement at the end of last May, when their appeal was met with wholehearted approval and widespread support throughout the country. The Muscovites have shown that they are true to their pledges. Many other groups of working people gained significant victories during the course of this emulation movement. Two examples illustrate this: during the first five months of the current year the output of coal in the western districts rose by 23.6 per cent; and the oil output in the eastern districts, by nearly 30 per cent over the figures for the corresponding period of last year.

A person lacking intimate knowledge of Soviet life may wonder why the working people of the USSR should attach so much significance to the successful realization of the production plans, why the Soviet workers should take the state of affairs in their factories so much to heart and be so keenly interested in making their factory the most advanced, why they should be so greatly interested in the fulfillment and even the overfulfillment of the production plans.

The worker in a capitalist country will of course reason as follows: "I've done my day's work, fulfilled my production quota, and that's enough for me. Why should I worry whether the factory will or will not cope with its orders in time? Let the boss worry about it. It's his factory and his headache."

The conditions prevailing in the Soviet Union have developed a different mental outlook, a different attitude toward labor. The Soviet worker is employed in a factory which is not owned by any individual capitalist, company, or monopoly. All the factories, mills, banks and railways are state property, the property of the people of the USSR. The people own all the means of production, and the worker in the Soviet Union labors not in order to swell someone else's profits, but in order to make his socialist state mightier and richer, to raise the living standards of all the working people, who are equal members of socialist society, which has no exploiters nor exploited.

Thus, the enthusiastic labor, a phenomenon entirely unknown in the capitalist countries, is a result of the high sense of social duty characteristic of the Soviet worker. He looks upon a production success not only and not as much from the viewpoint of his personal benefit, but particularly from the viewpoint of discharging an important social duty. That is why labor has won such high recognition in the USSR, where distinguished workers have been awarded government decorations, honored with the title of Hero of Socialist Labor and awarded Stalin Prizes. The man of labor is held in high esteem in the Soviet State.

The Soviet factories and mills are working in accordance with a single State Plan which takes into account the needs of the people and the State, and is designed to ensure the fullest satisfaction of these needs. As a result of the planned system of economy, the continuous growth of production in the USSR leads not to crises and unemployment, but to higher living standards for the working people, and consequently, for every Soviet man and woman.

This explains the interest of the Soviet worker in the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the plan of his particular enterprise, which constitutes a definite and necessary part of the general State Plan.

The radical change in the attitude toward labor, which under the Soviet system has become a matter of honor, glory, valor and heroism, has given rise to the Socialist emulation movement for the speediest fulfillment and overfulfillment of production plans, and to the Stakhanov movement. The Stakhanovites are the most advanced workers, who as a result of their thorough knowledge of the machines and production processes, and by using rationalized and improved methods of work, have succeeded in exceeding their production quotas to a considerable extent.

The production victory of the Muscovites should largely be credited to the wide scope attained by the Socialist emulation movement, which embraces 92 per cent of the workers in all the factories of Moscow and Moscow Region. This has enabled the overwhelming majority of the Moscow enterprises to achieve a considerable increase in output without additional capital investments. The planned figures were surpassed in the production of coal, peat, steel, copper, nonferrous rolled metals, tough alloys, electric engines, motors, railway cars, building materials, woolens, macaroni and confectionary products, soap and many other items.

It is particularly noteworthy that, while surpassing the production plans, the factories began the mass production of new items. The huge Stalin auto plant, for example, launched the mass production of a new type of truck, the "ZIS-150." The Ukhtomsky plant (near Moscow) turned out the first models of new agricultural machines. The Krasnaya Presnya plant began the production of highly efficient foundry equipment, the Kirov dynamo plant began the production of new, improved engines for city transport.

The distinguished Stakhanovites of Moscow's factories and mills are known throughout the country; many of these innovators in production are listed among the Stalin Prize Winners. The shoe worker, Vassili Matrosov, for example, gained fame as the initiator of mass training in Stakhanov methods of work; Alexander Yakushkin, a mechanic, set an example of how to eliminate waste in production; Anna Kuznetsova, a young worker of the low-power automobile plant, initiated a movement for attaining the 1950 quotas ahead of schedule; the foreman Nikolai Rossiisky raised the efficiency of the entire section in his charge to Stakhanovite standards. These innovators have thousands of followers in Moscow and throughout the country who likewise have noteworthy achievements to their credit.

Many men and women of labor were raised to fame by the movement for the fulfillment of the 1948 plan ahead of schedule. A. Markov, a turner of the Krasny Proletari machine tool plant, designed special devices for fastening the items; this, and careful selection of the cutters, enabled him to cover a surface of 400 to 500 meters a minute, instead of the ordinary 150 to 180 meters, and to turn out systematically five times his production quota in one shift. Speed methods of machining metal are extensively employed at present in Moscow factories. Alexander Smirnov, a turner of the Ilyich plant, responsible for many rationalizations, succeeded in machining eight tubes without pausing to sharpen the cutter, whereas formerly it was necessary to sharpen it two or three times for one tube. A change in the design of some of the lathes proposed by a group of workers and engineers in the Borets plant accelerated the speed of the operations nearly three times. I could mention hundreds of such examples.

The Muscovites have initiated a valuable innovation: groups of rationalizers and inventors which include designers, technologists, foremen and Stakhanovite workers. This collective work has proved highly effective in speeding the realization of one or another valuable invention, technical improvement or rationalization. It also stimulates the initiative of the workers, engineers and technicians.

Last, but not least, much credit for the successes achieved by the Muscovites is due to progressive Soviet science. Representatives of scientific institutions and colleges are assisting the factories and mills right at the point of production.

The example of the Muscovites indicates that the all-out effort of the working people who are participating in the country-wide socialist emulation movement will be crowned with a great production victory, that they will complete the 1948 production plan in time for the celebration of the Thirty-first Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. And this will guarantee the successful realization of the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years.

TEXTILE MACHINE. Made in Moscow. The capital has a considerable machine-building industry.

Trade Union Contracts In the USSR

From an Article by Karl Vodrachek
Member of the Central Council of Soviet Trade Unions

COLLECTIVE agreements are concluded in all Soviet enterprises and industries between management on the one hand and the trade union committees on the other. In the Soviet Union, where the means of production belong to the people, as personified by the State, there is not and cannot be any antagonism of interests between labor and management. Both management and labor are composed of working people who are the masters of their country, working people who are therefore equally interested in the development of their country's national economy and the rise of the standard of living and culture of the entire Soviet people. And it is precisely upon this—the development of the Soviet national economy and the rise of the people's standard of living and culture—that all collective agreements in the Soviet Union are based.

To impart an idea of the scope of collective agreements in the Soviet Union, we propose to describe in some detail the agreement entered into recently by management and labor at the Ordjonikidze machine-building plant in the Urals—a huge enterprise appropriately called "a factory for the production of factories." Hundreds of heavy-industry factories throughout the Soviet Union are equipped with machines built at the Ordjonikidze plant.

In this collective agreement, several clauses specifically embrace management's obligation to provide the workers with safe, healthful and clean working conditions. The Trade Union Committee will make sure that these clauses —and the entire contract, for that matter—are carried out promptly and to the letter. And in the current year, management is spending 1,662,000 rubles of its own administrative funds—none of which accrue in any way from the workers' pay or the trade union funds—on safety guards for machines, on other safety devices, on the improvement and repair of ventilation installations and on the broadening of the disease-prevention work carried on by the plant's medical clinic. (The medical clinic dispenses all treatment that any worker might require aside from hospital or sanatorium care; this service, like all medical treatment in the Soviet Union, is free.) Although management provides the money, the spending of the money is closely supervised by the Trade Union Committee to see that it is properly spent.

According to the collective agreement, management must also expend 350 thousand rubles for the upkeep of the plant's overnight sanatorium.

The overnight sanatorium, an institution to be found in almost every big industrial plant in the USSR, exists solely for the purpose of providing care and treatment for ailing workers of the plant who do not require hospitalization, and may even be permitted to continue work, but who must have a period of medical care and observation. The workers who take cures at this sanatorium spend all of their nonworking hours there, usually for a period of one or two months. The sanatorium provides a wide variety of cultural activities for its patients.

The collective agreement calls on management to provide 1,200,000 rubles for the Trade Union Committee to spend on specially prepared, dietetic meals for ailing workers. These meals are served in the plant dining room.

The collective agreement lays down the exact conditions of payment for labor. There are eight wage categories —known in the Soviet Union as tariff categories—in the Ordjonikidze machine-building plant, each tariff based on the workers' skill and experience. These categories are based on the tariff-classification reference book, which is decided upon jointly by the Ministry of the Heavy Machine-Building Industry, (the Ministry under which this plant operates), and the Central Committee of the Trade Union of Machine-Building Workers.

FREE VACATION. E. Denezhkin, a student oil worker.

The piecework and premium system of pay is applied to those jobs in which it is possible to fix production quotas; this system provides extra pay for overfulfilling the production program—provided the quality of production is high. It should be noted, however, that here, as throughout the Soviet Union, the quota which is set for each category of workers in the plant is based not upon the most productive nor upon the least productive worker, but upon the average worker—upon the worker with average potentialities. Moreover, each worker is encouraged to take technical courses and join study groups in order to improve and add to his skills, so that he may increase his production, and so that he may enter a higher tariff category.

Nor do the Trade Union Committee and management scorn the worker whose production is below average. To the contrary, every effort is made to find out why his production is low; everything possible is done to help him raise it.

The highest paid workers are highly skilled workers whose work is heavy, highly skilled workers who work in the hot shops, as well, of course, as those whose skills are the most highly developed.

Engineers' and technicians' pay is also in accordance with the wage scheme decided upon jointly by the

Ministry and the Central Committee of the Union; moreover, they also work under the system of premiums.

Hundreds of workers are transferred to higher wage categories every year when they pass tests in which they demonstrate that they have raised their qualifications. To spur this trend, the collective agreement this year calls upon management and the Trade Union Committee to organize the technical training of workers on a mass scale. In all, under the terms of the agreement, over 1,200 new workers will be trained, and 3,560 workers will raise their qualifications in Stakhanov schools and courses and study groups in which they will acquire at least a minimum of technical knowledge. This of course provides tremendous impetus toward the fulfillment of the plant's program under the Five-Year Plan.

Moreover, the collective agreement, with the Five-Year Plan in mind, obligates management to take every step to effect greater mechanization and automatization of production processes, to draft plans for the improvement of the plant in general and its various shops in particular—plans involving the introduction of new production techniques, the introduction of Stakhanov methods of organization of labor and production. And the workers and engineers vigorously participate in the creative evolution of these plans, discussing them in conference, raising sharp criticisms and making suggestions for improvements—and engaging in socialist competition at work to ensure that the Ordjonikidze plant goes "over the top."

Needless to say, all of these measures are resulting in greater pay benefits for the workers and are resulting as well in the considerable lightening of their work.

By the terms of the collective agreement, management is spending over nine million rubles on the construction of dwelling houses for the workers. Included in this housing are several apartment houses which are to be ready for occupancy by the end of the year and whose total floor space is 12 thousand square meters.* Management has also undertaken to help 80 of its factory and office workers build their own cottages—the floor space of which will total more than 2,500 square meters. This help consists of buying the construction material at State prices—and furnishing it to the workers at the same price, and arranging long-term, no-interest loans to the workers in order to underwrite the cost of construction. (The workers pay nothing for the land: land cannot be bought or sold in the Soviet Union.) Along with this, management is constructing a new dormitory for the trades' schools students. Management will also spend two million rubles for major repairs of dwelling houses already occupied, creches, kindergartens, bathhouses, and laundries—all of which belong to the plant. And by October, all apartments and dormitories in which the plant's workers and engineers live are to be fully repaired and ready for winter.

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

FREE MEDICAL TREATMENT. Therapeutic section of the clinic of a Urals factory.

Many of the factory and office workers of the Ordjonikidze machine-building plant are cultivating their own gardens. During the current year, the Trade Union Committee has provided all of them with land, seed and seedlings. The Trade Union Committee has also undertaken the obligation of helping the factory and office workers acquire thoroughbred cattle and poultry. The Trade Union Committee is helping the workers raise their own food and keep their own livestock and poultry so that they may have the greatest possible abundance of good food at the lowest possible cost.

Much additional produce for the factory and office workers' dining halls, buffets and stores is supplied by an auxiliary farm, administered by management with the close collaboration of the Trade Union Committee—which controls the proper use of the farm's produce. The auxiliary farm covers an area of about 7,500 acres. Under the collective agreement, the farm's livestock, by January 1, 1949, will be increased to two thousand head of cattle, eight hundred hogs and 350 sheep and goats. The dining halls, buffets and stores of the plant this year will receive 7,900 tons of potatoes and other vegetables, 1,300 tons of milk, 130 tons of meat and 109 tons of honey.*

The collective agreement lays great stress on the organization of holiday facilities for and the promotion of the health of both manual and mental workers. And the Trade Union Committee, this year, is spending 845 thousand rubles out of the State Social Insurance Fund (which in the USSR is administered by the trade unions) for accommodations for the workers in rest homes and sanatoriums.

The collective agreement provides that management shall finance the opening of another kindergarten, which will accommodate one hundred children of the factory and office workers of the plant. And during the summer holidays, 2,800 school children will be accommodated in special country houses and Pioneer Camps. The plant also has a country house for children of preschool age, which management operates under trade union supervision.

The Trade Union Committee, which

* Metric tons in each case. One metric ton = 2204.62 pounds.

continually organizes educational work and amateur art activities and other cultural activities among the factory and office workers of the plant, will spend nearly 300 thousand rubles this year on the repair and improvement of equipment of the plant's Palace of Culture, and of the clubrooms in the shops and dormitories, and for the replenishment of the book fund of the library. As a matter of fact, by far the greater part of the trade union's funds are spent for cultural, educational and public purposes.

The material and cultural circumstances of the lives of the workers at the Ordjonikidze plant—which are based to a considerable extent on the implementation of the terms of the collective agreement—provide a tremendous incentive to the workers to overfulfill the plant's program under the postwar Five-Year Plan, and thereby to raise even higher their own standard of living and culture. And the Plan has set great responsibilities before the Ordjonikidze plant. For the Stalin Five-Year Plan provides for the rehabilitation and building of 5,900 industrial enterprises, many of which are to be supplied with machines from this plant. The fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan for the rehabilitation and further development of Soviet industry, thus, will depend to a certain extent upon the successful labor of the huge body of workers of the plant. Realizing this, the workers of the Ordjonikidze plant have decided to fulfill this year's plan and their part of the program of the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule and to increase the gross output by 13.5 per cent as compared with last year. Output per worker is to rise 9.8 per cent during the year, and net cost of production is to fall by 15.9 per cent during the same period. All of these obligations are recorded in the collective agreement.

Fulfillment of the obligations is effectively forwarded by socialist competition, which will lay the foundation for the completion of the Five-Year Plan in four years—and this socialist competition is nationwide. In competing with each other, the workers are mastering the new techniques more effectively, rationalizing their work even more than in the past, and ever more rapidly raising the productivity of their labor. Organization of socialist competition in the plant, comprehensive popularization of its results and of the advanced methods of labor of Stakhanovites, regular convening of production conferences—these, in brief, are the obligations which the Trade Union Committee has accepted under the collective agreement.

Nikita Ivonin, Chairman of the Trade Union Committee in the Ordjonikidze plant, when asked how the union checks on the fulfillment of the terms of the agreement, replied:

"Seeing that the terms of the agreement are carried out is the prime duty of the trade union. A checkup is made daily. Once every three months, the Trade Union Committee organizes a mass checkup in which hundreds of active trade unionists participate. Commissions of the Trade Union Committee, jointly with representatives of management, check on the execution of every section of the collective agreement. Then the results of the checkup are discussed at a sitting of the Committee, after which the director of the plant and I report at meetings of workers on the carrying-out of the obligations. Differences arising between management and the trade union regarding one clause or another of the collective agreement are settled by the Central Committee of our union and the Ministry of the Heavy Machine-Building Industry.

"Soviet workers well understand the political and economic significance of the collective agreement. This is shown by the fact that nearly 90 per cent of the factory and office workers took part in the discussions of the mutual obligations in the collective agreement between management and the Trade Union Committee of this plant. They introduced proposals, amendments and addenda to the draft of the agreement, all of which were directed to the improvement of production and of the cultural and living conditions of the workers of the plant."

All-out work toward the fulfillment of the mutual obligations of management and labor under the collective agreement is now proceeding full blast. The workers of the plant are doing everything to complete the program of this, the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, and to complete the entire Five-Year Plan for the plant ahead of schedule.

The collective agreements entered into by management and labor throughout the Soviet Union follow in general the lines of the Ordjonikidze plant agreement. Thus, management, in the main, is responsible for the basic material welfare of the workers—wages, housing, health, safe working conditions. Labor dedicates much of its trade union funds to the cultural, educational needs of the workers, and lays great stress on vigorously fulfilling the Stalin Five-Year Plan. And, since here, labor and management collectively own the means of production, the thorough execution of collective agreements is ensured.

KINDERGARTEN. At a Moscow steel works. All sizable factories have such kindergartens.

AGE AND CHILDHOOD. Semyon Lyapuntsev, oldest member of the Lenin farm, is a favorite with the children. He served in the Russo-Japanese War, and won a medal for work done during the Second World War.

Intelligentsia of a Collective Farm

By M. Dolgopolov

In order to become acquainted with the intelligentsia of a collective farm, I recently visited the Lenin collective farm in Tambov Region, Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

This collective farm had an unusual origin.

In 1920, some American newspapers published Lenin's appeal to emigres from old Russia to return to their native land and help form labor communes. Among those that answered Lenin's appeal was a small group of Ukrainians and Byelorussians whom tsarist destitution had driven abroad to America. Resinking their roots in Soviet soil, they detrained in Tambov Region and set up an agricultural commune.

It is these men and women, who, reclaiming their native heritage, laid the foundation for this thriving enterprise that has made and is making such a worth-while contribution to its country's welfare.

The Lenin collective farm has a membership of 711 persons. Some of them work in the fields and reap rich harvests; others are engaged in animal husbandry; still others work in the numerous subsidiary enterprises of the collective farm. And at the head of each section of collective farm production we find a qualified master of work who has not only gone through an important practical school, but has acquired a special technical education. Let's take a look at some of them.

Pavel Fokin, head of the collective farm administration, is not quite 45 years of age. He was graduated from a zootechnical institute in 1933 and began working in the dairy of the collective farm. The knowledge he had gained in the institute enabled Fokin to organize selective animal breeding in the collective farm. His principal aim was to create a new breed of more productive milch cows, and his work has been crowned with success.

Fokin displayed his organizing abilities while he was still working in the dairy. Thirteen years ago the collective farmers elected him chairman of the collective farm administration. Under the direction of this educated agricultural specialist, the collective farm has been growing and gaining strength year by year.

Son of a peasant, Pavel Fokin is very popular not only in his own village, but in the whole of Kirsanov District where the Lenin collective farm is situated. At the last election of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR the peasants chose Fokin to represent them in the parliament of the Russian Federation.

The first assistant of the chairman in all matters connected with field work is Dmitri Zinovyev, the agronomist of the collective farm. He, too, is a graduate of an agricultural institute. Zinovyev applies all the knowledge he acquired in the institute, directing the field work on the basis of advanced science and technique, and introducing the methods of the foremost masters of agriculture in the work of brigades and groups of collective farmers. Educated in Soviet times, Zinovyev makes no secret of his know-

ledge, but untiringly imparts it to the collective farmers. He conducts agrotechnical circles, delivers popular lectures on the latest achievements of agrotechnique and progressive methods of agriculture and means of obtaining large harvests. Keen and energetic, Zinovyev systematically continues his self-education. He subscribes to many special journals, reads new literature on questions of agriculture and carries on a lively correspondence with scientific research institutions and experimental stations. Everything new, everything progressive is of interest to the collective farm argronomist. He takes advantage of the achievements of neighboring collective farms, and in his turn imparts to them the successful methods used on his own collective farm.

The agronomist keeps a watchful eye on all sections of the farm. He may be seen now in the granaries where selected seeds are kept, now in the collective farm laboratory where the grain is tested, now on the fields where the fate of the harvest is decided.

The collective farmers pay great heed to Zinovyev's suggestions; he is given their wholehearted support. The peasants are aware of his serious approach to his work and they profoundly believe in his undertakings. They had an excellent opportunity to convince themselves of his worth in 1946 when, in that year of drought, the collective farm, largely as a result of the agronomist's efforts, harvested on an average a ton of grain per hectare.* In 1947 the farm harvested an average of two tons on an area of 1,160 hectares.

ANOTHER interesting figure in the Lenin collective farm is engineer Nikolai Vatrushev, a local peasant, initiator of extensive electrification and irrigation in the farm. There was a small power station here ten years ago, but the farm's growing production required even more electricity. It became necessary to build a new power station. Specialists from Tambov, the regional center, prepared a project for the power station. Vatrushev directed the construction. Vatrushev was graduated from the Moscow Institute of Transport Engineers before the war. At the outbreak of hostilities he joined the Army and on the battle fronts built bridges, constructed ferries and restored railway tracks. The methods of fast construction he learned during the war were applied in building the power station in his collective farm; the construction was completed long before the fixed date.

Engineer Vatrushev is now preparing a plan for irrigating eight hundred hectares of the collective farm fields.

Vatrushev is not the only engineer in the Lenin collective farm. The machine shop where all sorts of machines are repaired and tools and various machine parts are made is managed by Vassili Polosukhin, a mechanical engineer. Peter Skoroubsky, a building engineer, is in charge of the construction of farm buildings and various services. Giovanni Fanfaroni Flavio, son of an Italian emigrant, who lives in the Lenin collective farm, acquired a higher technical education in his new motherland. Flavio prepared a thesis for a scientific degree and recently left for Chelyabinsk to defend it.

* One hectare=2.471 acres.

EXPERTS. Martha Krieger, of the Lenin farm (right) has been awarded the Order of Lenin for her work in animal husbandry. Darya Sudorgina assists her.

TO complete the story of the intelligentsia of the Lenin collective farm, something must be said about the teachers of the local elementary school. There are 16 of them. The staff of 16 teachers is headed by the director of the school, Vassili Blagoveshchensky, a man with a higher education and an experienced teacher of the youth. Katherine Shishkova, Tatiana Provatorova and Maria Zheludkova, daughters of rank-and-file collective farmers, acquired a higher education and returned to their native village where they now teach in the very school which they attended in their childhood.

Teachers, engineers and medical workers carry on scientific and educational activities among their fellow villagers. In the local club hall, which accommodates four hundred persons, they deliver lectures on the origin of life on earth, on the solar system, on the history of the development of human society, on the latest achievements of Soviet science.

MANY facilities for recreation are offered to the collective farmers, including, of course, the collective farm's intelligentsia. Sound films are shown twice a week in the collective farm club, where plays are also performed and concerts given from time to time by artists from various cities. The collective farm library contains more than four thousand volumes. Amateur dramatic and musical circles and a big choir are active.

On Sundays and holidays the rural intelligentsia and many peasants and their families take a bus trip to Kirsanov, a city about 18 kilometers * from the collective farm village. In Kirsanov they visit the dramatic theater, the cinema, the clubs. Most of the village intellectuals spend their annual vacations in Tambov, the regional capital, in Moscow or in health resorts.

* One kilometer=.621 of a mile.

CO-OPERATIVE STORE. A farmer and his wife inspect a sewing machine.

Soviet Rural Stores

By S. Gurovich, M.Sc.

THERE is no village in the Soviet Union without a retail trading enterprise. Small villages have shops where all the principal goods of prime necessity may be purchased. Villages with large populations have several trading enterprises including stores with a considerable assortment of industrial commodities. In some of the big villages we find trading enterprises approaching the type of department stores. Soviet rural trading also includes a wide network of public catering enterprises—tea-houses, dining-halls, village restaurants.

In the USSR, all retail trading in rural areas is in the hands of consumers' co-operatives. On the eve of the Second World War the trading network of Soviet consumers' co-operatives consisted of 227,680 enterprises including more than 28,000 specialized village stores, 17,500 dining-halls, tea-houses, restaurants, and 22,835 bakeries.

The German fascist invaders inflicted heavy losses on co-operative economy. They looted and destroyed more than 50 thousand co-operative enterprises. These are now being successfully rehabilitated, and their prewar dimensions and trading turnover have already been surpassed in many places.

Village consumers' co-operatives are constantly striving to meet the needs of rural consumers and are attentively studying their demands. They place orders with industry in accordance with these demands. The relations between co-operatives and industry are regulated by contracts. By means of such contracts, rural co-operatives greatly influence production.

Rural trading, however, possesses also a very considerable production basis of its own: the co-operatives have scores of thousands of small factories producing all kinds of goods in use by the peasants; also clothing and shoe workshops, factories for processing agricultural raw material, etc.

Consumers' co-operatives carry on considerable purchasing in rural areas. Part of the purchased products, in their original or reworked form, are sold in towns where the co-operatives have their food stores. The urban stores of consumers' co-operatives compete with the state trading enterprises, which tends to improve the work of both.

Commodities purchased by co-operatives from state industry are sold by the co-operative stores at state prices, the co-operatives receiving a commission from state industry. Commodities produced by the co-operatives themselves are sold at prices fixed by regional unions of consumers' co-operatives. These prices usually are on a level with the prices in state trading.

Soviet consumers' co-operatives are voluntary mass public organizations based on principles of broad democracy. The primary unit of this organization is the village consumers' society. There are nearly 30 thousand of these primary co-operatives in the USSR. They have a total of more than 35 million members, i.e., shareholders. The activities of the village consumers' society are regulated by the rules adopted at a general meeting of all its members. The general membership meeting decides all principal questions, elects the administrative board of the society, its chairman and an auditing commission. All of them are elected for a term of two years. They are accountable to the general membership meeting of the society, at which they regularly report on their activities. If the managing board or auditing commission works unsatisfactorily, the members may be recalled and others are then elected to replace them.

Only inhabitants of rural areas belong to the consumers' societies. Every member of the society pays an entrance fee on joining and a share

contribution, both of which are fixed by the rules of the society. It is from these amounts that the society's own capital is formed. As a result of successful business activities, the funds of the society increase as profits are made. Part of the profits, upon the decision of a general membership meeting, is distributed among the members of the society, and the rest is spent for purposes decided upon by the general meeting, including increasing the funds of the society.

The working capital of consumers' co-operatives is also augmented by short-term credits granted by the State Bank of the USSR. These credits are extensively utilized by co-operative organizations for the acquisition of seasonal stocks of goods, also for other trading, purchasing and production purposes in accordance with the annual and quarterly plans approved by the general membership meeting.

Within each district, the consumers' societies are united by the District Association of Consumers' Societies. These associations help the societies in establishing business relations with other trading, purchasing and production organizations; they instruct their functionaries and make sure that the rules are strictly observed, and also they periodically check the business activities of the societies.

Consumers' societies have the right to purchase the goods they need from any suppliers. Among these a prominent place is held by the district association, which is the principal village wholesale trading organization.

BUYING A SAMOVAR. Village shoppers in the local household goods co-operative store.

In regions and territories, the work of consumers' co-operatives is directed by regional and territorial unions of co-operative societies. These unions have their wholesale trading centers which supply goods to the district associations and village consumers' societies.

There are central unions of consumers' societies in all Soviet republics with the exception of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. These central unions direct the consumers' co-operative organizations in their respective republics. The consumers' co-operatives in the USSR as a whole are directed by the All-Union center—The Central Union of Consumers' Societies (known for short as Centrosoyuz) which also directs the work of the territorial and regional unions of consumers' co-operatives on the territory of the RSFSR.

Centrosoyuz has been in existence for nearly 50 years. But it became a powerful trading and purchasing organization, serving the interests of the people, only in Soviet times. It plans and controls the activities of consumers' co-operatives and concludes general agreements with industry for the supply of goods to co-operative organizations. Centrosoyuz itself also supplies various commodities to co-operative organizations, having a special trading association for this purpose.

Nearly 900 thousand persons are now employed in consumers' co-operative organizations. There are three higher educational establishments in the USSR for training highly qualified co-operative workers: trading experts, accountants, economists, planning workers. In addition, the consumers' co-operative unions themselves have 50 co-operative high schools and more than one hundred co-operative trading schools. The consumers' co-operative unions in every republic, territory and region have, moreover, courses for raising the qualifications of local co-operative employees.

The Soviet State is actively assisting consumers' co-operation in every way and is facilitating its development. The State has instituted a number of privileges and exemptions in regard to credits and taxation for consumers' co-operatives.

SPRING SHOPPING. A farm woman buys cotton cloth for summer dresses.

Living Water

By Tatiana Tess

THE Stavropol plain, a broad fertile land in the south of Russia, is poorly watered. The Kuban, a full river swollen with the melting snows of the mountains, intersects only part of the plain. Gleaming in the sunlight, yellow and turbid from the heavy rains, its surface is broken by waves as it surges rapidly on.

But most of the rivers in the region live only in the springtime, when they flow noisily between banks overrun with fragrant lush grass. For when summer is at its height, the sun blazes down on dry, cracked riverbeds; the rivers have dried; and the water of the springs and small lakes is harsh and briny.

In the villages, the soft rain water has great value, and is collected in special reservoirs which sometimes are kept locked.

The soils in this region are rich and fertile—Stavropol wheat is famed all over the country—but in the dry summers the fields suffer. And then there is the wind—anyone who has felt the scorching breath of this wind that seems to have been blown from a red-hot oven, remembers it all his life.

Water in this region until recently was only a dream, and songs and legends arose around it.

Now, with the building of the Nevinnomisk Canal, one of the big hydrotechnical projects created by the Soviet people, the dreams of old have come true.

The canal connects the Kuban with the Yegorlyk, which formerly was dessicated in the summer months.

A huge dam has been thrown across the Kuban. It is surmounted by a tremendous statue of Stalin; and in the sunlight the heavy folds of his army overcoat seem to blow with the wind.

The heavy gates have to be closed with the help of powerful gantries on the bridge at the head of the canal; the waters of the Kuban are cut off and part of them are directed into the canal, whose sides have none of the unexpected turns and bends to be found in nature —they are geometrically proportioned, subordinated to scientific laws.

The canal crosses the waterless Stavropol plains for fifty kilometers,* and the waters of the Kuban flow this distance and then into the bed of the River Yegorlyk.

* One kilometer = .621 of a mile.

TUNNEL. The water of the canal passes through this tunnel in order to flow beneath a hill.

TRANSFORMER. The fitting in progress.

The canal encounters many obstacles on its way. The first is the bed of the stream, known as Barsuchka, which runs athwart the canal. Then, water collides with water. And how have Soviet engineers solved this problem? The canal water "dives" under the Barsuchka into a specially constructed tunnel, from which it emerges again on the surface. The flow of the water is even until it approaches the Svistukha water-power station, named after Svistukha Hill which rises in the vicinity.

Here the water has to be forced. The huge wooden pipes through which it is forced with great pressure, resemble the ribs of a skeleton of some colossal prehistoric animal.

Cables are being put up on the bare steppe; electricians are at work on the stations; fitters are completing the installation of a transformer.

Now at last, after the noisy, dizzying fall, after the mad struggle and pressure in the pipes, the water comes to rest in the machine room, and flows calmly between new banks. Soon, however, Nedremannaya Hill blocks the way, and the water must dive again into a tunnel.

The concrete tunnel is still empty; an oval entrance is seen, black against the white slopes shining in the sunlight; one may look deep into its moist darkness.

The dim vaulting dwindles away into the remote distance. The tunnel

is fairly long, about six kilometers. Far down in the depths a single lamp glimmers like a guiding star.

Soon the water bursts in under these spacious vaults, filling the tunnel almost to the roof, booming below the ground, then at last appears on the surface again in the sunlight where the wind stirs the green grass.

When the water was released for the first trial in the canal, people came out of the villages and down to the canal embankment. The children shouted "Hurrah for the water!" and fascinated, watched the glittering current. The age-old dream had been realized—this was their unfailing wellspring of water, pure and living.

What will the Nevinnomisk Canal do for the country?

It will bring water to the plateau in the Yegorlyk neighborhood, and water to all the adjoining lands. The Yegorlyk, which disappeared in the summertime, will become a yearlong river and all the settlements along its banks will have a plentiful supply of water. In this way, about ten thousand hectares* of land will be irrigated. The turbines of the Svistukha power station will supply electricity to several districts. Furthermore, it will now be possible to build several power stations on the Yegorlyk itself and to form new reservoirs and lakes along its course.

This is not all. The Nevinnomisk Canal is only the first section of a long waterway—only the prologue to further construction. The decision has already been made to build the second part of the Kuban-Yegorlyk irrigation system. This project includes a series of hydrotechnical structures, the right and left Yegorlyk canals, an irrigation system, and a power station with a capacity of 15 thousand kilowatts. One hundred five thousand hectares of land will be irrigated. Work has already begun on this second section of the canal.

Thus, the legend of the living water, for which the earth had been thirsting for centuries, has come true. Soviet builders have found the fundamental solution of the old problem of drought and the waterless, fertile soil of the Stavropol country.

And this project is only one of many irrigation projects being constructed, into which our people are throwing their energies.

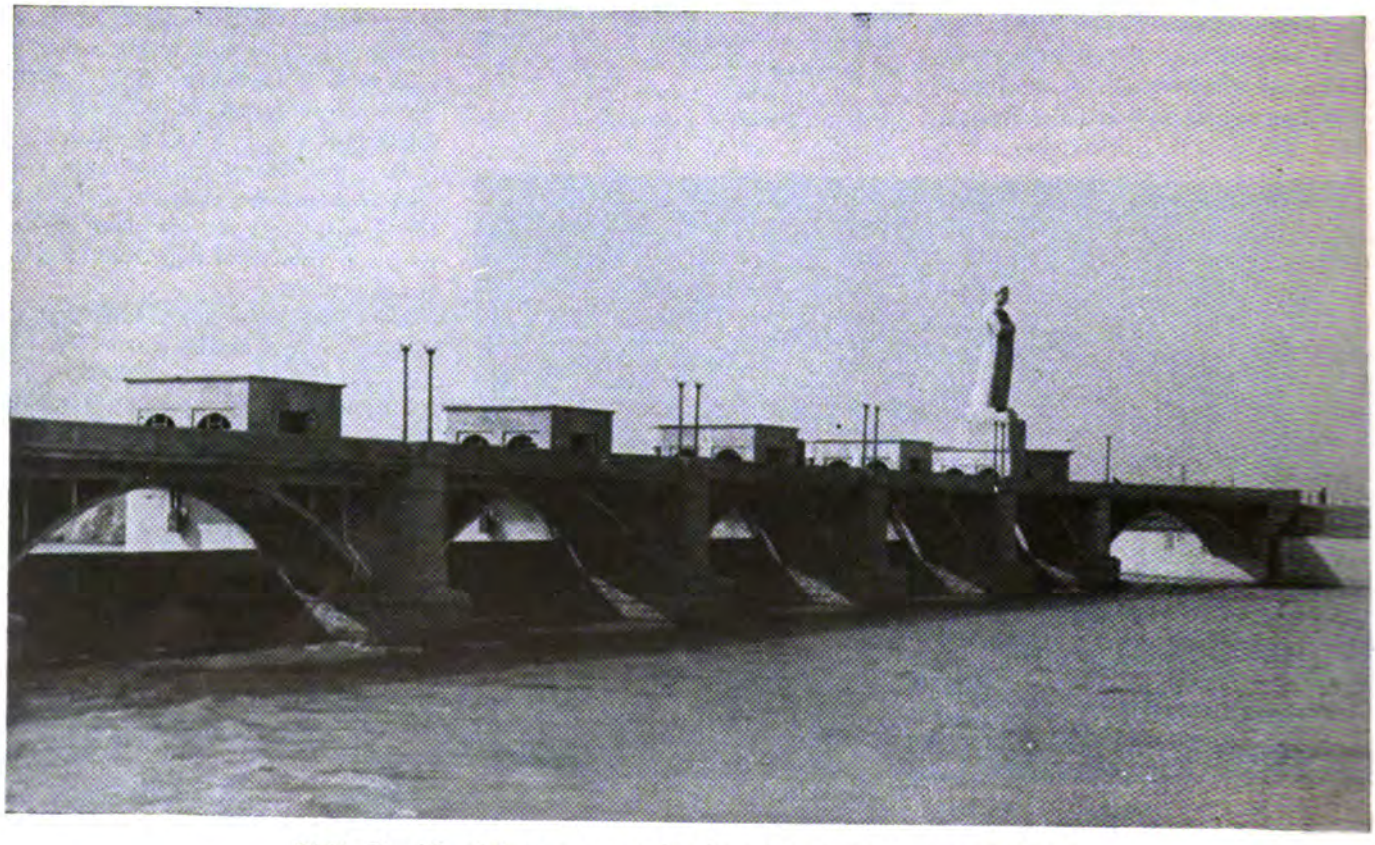
There is, for instance, the Kara-Kum Canal, which will carry the waters of the Amu-Darya across Turkmenia. Once this mighty river roared across Turkmenia into the Caspian Sea. Thousands of years ago, however, it began to change its course, finally making its way north into the Aral Sea, leaving much of Turkmenia a desert. Now, however, because of Soviet engineering genius, some of the waters of the Amu-Darya will again flow across Turkmenia, and soon its deserts will give birth to fields of grain.

Another large irrigation project is now under way in the Mugan and Salyan saline steppes, which stretch for scores of miles in the Azerbaijan Republic. Deep canals have been dug here to the lower level of the salt waters in the soil, and now the land is being irrigated with fresh water. As a result, thousands of acres of potentially fertile land will be revived.

In Uzbekistan, the Farkhad hydroelectric station, which is being constructed on the Syr-Darya river in Uzbekistan, will make possible the watering of the Hungry Steppe, which the Uzbek people have dreamed for centuries of transforming into fertile land.

The entire Soviet people are planning and working toward that foreseeable day when their dry and desert lands will be revitalized, when all the Soviet land will bloom.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.



DAM. The life-giving water at the dam. The statue is one of Stalin.

The Dog Fight

By Boris Polevoi

When Alexei Maresyev ("Meresyev" in Polevoi's novel), Soviet fighter pilot, bailed out in Nazi-held territory, both legs were badly injured in the fall. Later, in a Soviet hospital, they were amputated. Despite the handicap, he became a fighter pilot again—using artificial limbs! The following, the second excerpt from Polevoi's Stalin Prize novel—"The Tale of a Real Man"—to appear in the "USSR Information Bulletin," describes one of Meresyev's first combat flights after his return to duty.

ALEXEI MERESYEV and an unknown German ace from the famous Richthofen Division were going into a frontal attack. An attack of this type in the air lasts no longer than an instant, less than the time the quickest of us takes to light a cigarette. But an instant like this demands from the pilot as high a nervous tension, and is as severe a test of his spiritual forces as would suffice for a whole day's fighting in a battle on the ground.

Imagine two fighter planes rushing head on toward each other at top speed. The enemy plane looms larger every moment. An instantaneous glimpse is caught of its every detail, the plane surfaces, the glint of the whirling propeller, the black dots of the guns. Another instant and the planes will crash and be blown to bits and it will be impossible to distinguish machine and men. This is the instant that tests not only the pilot's will but all his spiritual forces. The man who is fainthearted, who cannot stand this terrific nervous strain, who does not feel that he has it in him to die for freedom, will instinctively pull the control stick toward him and evade the deadly hurricane bearing down upon him, and the next moment his plane will shoot downward, ripped open, or with a wing smashed off. He is done for. Experienced pilots know all this, and only the bravest venture on a head on attack.

The enemies were rushing to meet each other.

Alexei realized that the pilot attacking him was not one of the young fellows, mere boys, called up in what was known as the Goering contingent, given a short course in flying and thrown into battle to fill the gap resulting in the German air force after huge losses on the Eastern Front. The ace from the "Richthofen" who was flying to meet him probably had his many victories recorded in airplane silhouettes on his plane. He would make no slip, he would not evade, nor try to get away from the fight.

"Hold tight, Richthofen!" Alexei ground out through his teeth, and, biting his lip until the blood came, held himself taut, fixed his eyes on his target and forced himself not to close his eyes to the enemy plane bearing down upon him.

His concentration was so intense that he almost imagined he could see beyond the bright semicircle of the propeller to the transparent shield of the enemy's cockpit and through it the eyes that were watching him. Only the eyes, burning with savage hatred. It was a vision evoked by nervous strain, but he saw the eyes plainly. "It's all over!" he thought, tensing every muscle to the utmost. All over! Staring ahead, he flew to meet the growing whirlwind. The German wasn't going to turn aside either! It was all over!

He was prepared for instantaneous death. Then suddenly, somewhere, it might be no further off than his outstretched hand, the German gave way, climbed, and when Alexei caught the lightning flash of the blue belly in the sunlight, he pressed all the switches at once and ripped it open with three streams of flame. At the same moment, he looped and, as the earth swam over his head, saw against it the enemy plane flying slowly and helplessly. A wild exultation seized him and he shouted: "Olya!" forgetting everything in the world, and spiralled dizzily, accompanying the German on his last flight to the ground, rusty-red with weeds, following the enemy plane until it struck earth and went up in a column of black smoke.

Only then did Meresyev's nervous tension slacken, his petrified muscles relax; and he felt a great weariness. His glance fell on the dial of the gas meter. The indicator was quivering very close to zero.

His gasoline would only last another three minutes, four at the very most. It would take him at least ten to get to the airdrome. If only he didn't have to waste time climbing. That business of "seeing the Focke off" to the very ground had done it—he must have been crazy! "Fool! Kid!" he said to himself.

He thought rapidly, his head clear as is always the case in moments of danger with people who are cool and courageous. First of all he had to climb as high as he could. Not spiralling, though: he had to do his climbing while pushing ahead to the airdrome. All right.

Steering in the direction of the airdrome and watching the earth recede and gradually vanish into the mists on the horizon, he continued his calculations. No use depending on the gas now, even if the meter was a bit off—there still wouldn't be enough. Should he land somewhere? Where? He went over the whole of the short route in his own mind: leafy woods with marshy fringes, hilly fields in the zone of the permanent fortifications, fields crisscrossed and plowed with shell holes, webbed with barbed wire entanglements.

No, to land here was death.

Should he bail out? He could. Even now. He had only to open the hood, veer, push the stick away from him, jump, and that was all! But what about the plane, this wonderful, swift, agile bird? Its fighting qualities had saved his life three times this day. Was he to desert it, smash it, fling it away in a heap of aluminum scrap? He would have to make a report on it. But this was nothing remarkable. In a case like this, he was supposed to bail out. At this moment he saw the plane as a beautiful and strong, magnanimous and devoted living creature; to abandon it would be the basest treachery on his part. And then—to think of returning from his first military flights without his plane, to have to hang about in the reserve waiting for an-

(*Continued on page 458*)

STUDENT ACTORS. Performers for the theaters of the national republics of the USSR are trained at the State Institute of Theatric Art. A group of students with People's Artist of the USSR Mikhail Tarkhanov, who directs their training.

A School of the Stage

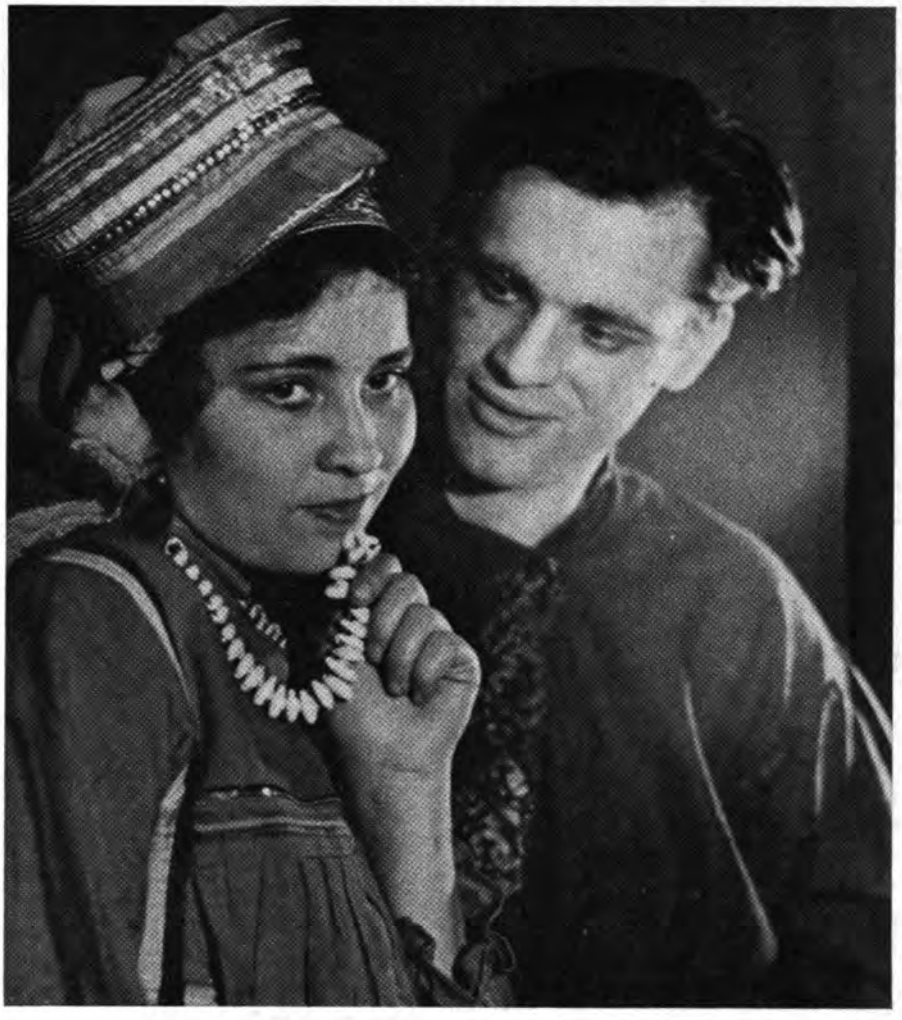
LITHUANIANS. Alden Kuistaide and Zelchus Leonardas of the Lithuanian studio of the school.

MORDOVIANS. Nina Klochneva and Victor Zhivayev.

FIRST YEAR STUDENT. Ludmila Sokolova.

"THE DESERTED." Magdalena Lukashevich.

TATAR STUDENT. Rosalia Shamil plays a deer.



NATIONAL DANCE. Eudokia Bazhanova and Fyodor Chekanov of the Mordovian studio.

AT A MUSEUM. The students study costume, design and art. Here, N. Tarabukhin lectures to them on art.

(Continued from page 455)

other, to be out of action again at a critical time like this, when victory was coming to fruition at the front. To think of hanging about, doing nothing just now. . . .

"Not on your life!" Alexei exclaimed aloud, flatly refusing an imaginary suggestion.

He was going to fly as long as the engine went, and then—then, he would see.

So he flew onward, at a height of three and then four thousand meters, watching the country below in the hope of seeing even a small clearing. A vague blue blur on the horizon indicated the woods behind which lay the airdrome. It was about 15 kilometers away. The hand of the gas meter no longer quivered—it had settled on the limit. But the engine was still working.

What was it working on? A bit higher, higher. . . . That was it!

Suddenly the even humming that the pilot's ear does not notice any more than a healthy man notices the beating of his heart, altered its tone. Alexei caught it at once. The woods were very distinct now; they must be about seven kilometers off, and he was three or four kilometers above them. It wasn't much. But the working of the engine had undergone a sinister change. The pilot felt it through his whole being, as though he himself, not the engine, was gasping for breath. Then suddenly, its ghastly "chikh-chikh" went through him like a stab of pain.

Wait—! It was going all right again. It was really! Still going! And here were the woods; he could look down on the tops of the birches, a green, curling foam shimmering in the sunlight. The woods. Now it was out of the question to land anywhere but at his own airdrome. The way was cut off. On, on!

Chikh, chikh, chikh! . . .

That sound again. How long would it last? The woods were down there. The road cut through the sand, neat and level as the parting in the regimental commander's hair. About three kilometers remained to the airdrome — away behind that jagged fringe of the woods which he fancied he could see already.

Chikh, chikh. . . . Then silence, a silence so deep that he could hear the humming of the wind. So this was the end, was it? Meresyev felt himself growing cold. Should he bail out? Not yet, he'd wait just a moment. . . . He steered the plane so that it listed as if sliding down an airy hill slope, and strove to slant it as much as possible without letting it overturn and spiral. How sinister this dead silence was in the air! So still that he could hear the faint cracking of the cooling engine, the throbbing in his temples and the noise in his ears from the sudden descent. And how quickly the earth was rising up to strike, drawn to the plane as if by a powerful magnet.

Jump now? Too late! The woods were rushing up to meet him and in that swift tumult their tossing crowns merged in zones of solid green. Surely he had seen something like this before—somewhere. Where? Ah, yes, it was that time in the spring, when the awful disaster had happened. . . . Yes, the green zones had surged up under the wings then, too. A last effort, pull the stick to you. . . . Was it the end now?

. . . Down on the airdrome people had appeared, strolling about the field. And just at that moment, silent as a shadow save for the shirring rustle of wheels on the treetops, a plane sprang out from the fringe of the woods. Like a ghost it floated overhead and as if drawn down irresistibly by the earth, landed on all three points on the grass. There was a hollow sound, a crunch of gravel and a rustle of grass—this was queer, because pilots never hear these sounds for the roar of the working engine. It all happened so unexpectedly that nobody could understand exactly what had happened at first, though actually the whole thing was ordinary enough—a plane had landed, that same eleventh plane that they all had been so eagerly awaiting.

"Here he is!" Someone roared in a voice so unnatural and wild that it startled them all into action.

The plane had finished its run, had come to a halt with a screech of brakes on the very edge of the airdrome in front of the wall of slender white trunks and curling foliage of young silver birches, lit by the orange rays of the setting sun.

No one climbed out of the cockpit. Men ran up to the plane as hard as they could, breathless, feeling a presentiment of disaster. The commander of the regiment reached it first, sprang lightly onto the wing and, raising the hood, looked into the cockpit. Alexei Meresyev was sitting there without his helmet, his face pale as a cloud, a smile on his bloodless, greenish lips.

Rich Miner

(Continued from page 440)

three thousand rubles. So you won't be surprised when I say I feel I've got to work better than ever.

"But I still can't keep up with Pavel Ivanovich or Shurayev. My leg aches sometimes, particularly in bad weather. I think I'll go to Slavyansk again this year for some more treatment. The pit committee has promised to send me again. And when I get back, Pavel Ivanovich here had better hurry up!"

After dinner the talk turned to life in Moscow. Maria wanted to know about the new films. *Tale of Siberia* had been playing in Gorlovka.

"Yes, such extravagance! She made me take her twice, and the tickets are so expensive—best seats are two rubles," laughed her husband.

"That means, Pavel Ivanovich, that you could just about buy all the seats in the theater with one day's pay," I said.

"Right. I average 400 rubles a day, and there are 210 seats in the movie at the House of Culture. On Sunday, Maria, let's go see *For Those at Sea*, and I'll invite all the neighbors," said Pavel, evidently relishing the idea.

Our conversation ended with a long discussion of international affairs. That same day there had been a meeting in the pit in protest against the shooting of Greek patriots by the Athens Government. Pavel Ivanovich questioned me eagerly about the situation in Greece and the operations of the Democratic Army, and made a note of various magazines and papers I mentioned, in which he could get more information on the same subject.

About midnight I took my leave.

But from the road I turned to look back longingly at the house among the glimmering white apricot trees where my Donbas miner friend lives in such sweet country quiet.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE postwar upswing of the Soviet economy, and the currency reform, abolition of rationing and reduction of prices of consumer goods in particular, have brought about an increase in the savings of the Soviet people, and have brought about a great influx of deposits into savings banks. To meet this situation, the Ministry of Finance of the USSR has opened over three hundred new savings bank branches this year. Among these are 16 in the Smolensk and Voronezh Regions, 10 in the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic, and 11 in the Zaporozhye Region. In view of the steady growth of savings deposits, the Ministry is preparing to open an additional 1,500 savings banks.

★

The first coal planer is being employed in Mine No. 1 of the Stalino Coal Trust in the Donbas. This powerful Soviet-designed machine performs two of the most arduous mining processes—coal hewing and hauling; moreover, it drastically reduces the waste of coal. Under identical geological conditions, 15 miners can turn out 120 tons of coal in one shift when the planer is used, while 35 to 40 miners are required to do the same work in the same time if ordinary methods are used.

★

Moscow sculptors and architects are working on the decoration of the new stations and vestibules of Moscow's Great Circle subway line which is now under construction. On the walls of the Kaluzhskaya Station will be portrayed the defense of Moscow. The main hall of the station will be ornamented with sculptured portraits of Muscovites—veterans of the Second World War who were awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. These portraits will be the work of the well-known Soviet sculptor, Motovilov. I. Rabinovich, another Soviet sculptor, is working on 14 marble basreliefs which will ornament the new Gorky Park of Culture and Rest subway station.

Before the war, the Askania-Nova Preserve in the Kherson Region was known the world over. Big herds of exceedingly rare animals lived in the Preserve under natural conditions. The cages in this gigantic zoological park were so huge that the animals did not feel any lack of freedom. The German invaders wrecked and looted the Preserve. Only a few specimens of some of the species of animals remained when the Germans were driven out. The number of animals in the Preserve is now being increased successfully. Offspring of ostriches, peacocks, pheasants, antelope, mufflins, reindeer and other animals have been obtained since the war ended. All the zoos of the Soviet Union are assisting in the rehabilitation of the Askania-Nova Preserve. Scores of different species of animals are being shipped to the Preserve in the current year. The Moscow Zoo has already sent a large group of beasts and birds, including black Australian swans and a wild Przhevalsky horse. The Preserve is exceedingly valuable from a national economic point of view, because it serves as a laboratory in which considerable scientific research is conducted on the acclimatization, hybridization and domestication of wild animals.

Surgeon Sergei Yudin, a leading expert on the surgery of cancer-stricken stomachs and on serious ulcer operations, has been awarded a Stalin Prize for the second time. This year, he earned the Stalin Prize for his new method of restorative surgery which makes possible the use of an artificial esophagus. Professor Yudin has treated more than two hundred patients—adults and children—by this method with excellent results. Patients who for many months had to be fed artificially have been enabled to eat normally. For the artificial esophagus, Professor Yudin uses parts of the small intestines.

Professor Yudin is also famous for his research in the field of stomach surgery.

During the war, while Assistant to the Chief Surgeon of the Soviet Army, he evolved new methods for treating gunshot wounds and gas gangrene. Professor Yudin is an honorary member of many medical societies and academies abroad.

★

A second water works, one of the largest in the Soviet Union, is being built in Baku, capital of Azerbaijan. It will supply the population of the city with about 50 million gallons of water a day.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

August 2-August 15

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from August 2 to August 15 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Tuesdays, August 2, 3, 9, 10—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays and Fridays, August 4, 6, 11, 13—Scientific and cultural programs.

Thursday, August 5—Program for farmers.

Thursday, August 12—Trade unions.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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MOSCOW AIRPORT. Aviation Day was celebrated in the Soviet Union on July 25. FRONT COVER. A farm woman of Soviet Georgia gathering tangerines. BACK COVER. One of the many rest homes where Soviet working people spend their vacations at small expense.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Report on Fulfillment of State Plan In Second Quarter of 1948

Following is the summary of the fulfillment, during the second quarter of the year, of the State Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the USSR for 1948.

THE work of industry, agriculture and transport, and the volume of capital construction and retail trade in the second quarter of 1948 are characterized by the following data:

I

Fulfillment of Production Plan by Industry

The production plan for gross industrial output in the second quarter of 1948 was carried out by the Ministries as follows:

Ministry	*Percentage of fulfillment of quarterly plan for the second quarter of 1948*
Iron and Steel Industry	111
Nonferrous Metals Industry	110
Coal Industry of the Western Areas	103
Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas	100
Oil Industry of the Southern and Western Areas	107
Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas	110
Power Stations	103
Chemical Industry	115
Electrical Industry	114
Communications Equipment Industry	108
Heavy Machine-building Industry	106
Automobile and Tractor Industry	111
Machine-tool Industry	108
Machine and Instrument-making Industry	112
Building and Road-building Machinery Industry	116
Transport Machinery Industry	112
Agricultural Machinery Industry	105
Building Materials Industry	114
Timber Industry	121
Pulp and Paper Industry	115
Rubber Industry	115
Textile Industry	102
Light Industry	107
Fish Industry of the Western Areas	103
Fish Industry of the Eastern Areas	76
Meat and Dairy Industry	101
Food Industry	111
Gustatory Products Industry	104
Ministries of local industry and local fuel industry in the Union republics	104

The production plan for gross output of the industry of the USSR as a whole during the second quarter of 1948 was fulfilled by 106 per cent. The target figure set in the annual plan for 1948 as regards gross production of

Soviet Authorities Supply Berlin with Food

IN ACCORDANCE with a decree issued July 19, 1948, by the Council of Ministers of the USSR, the entire city of Berlin, since August 1, has been furnished with wheat and other food sufficient to supply every citizen of Berlin the same amount of food he had been supplied according to existing rations.

The decree states: "In view of the request of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, the Council of Ministers of the USSR has decided to put at the disposal of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany 100 thousand tons* of wheat and a corresponding quantity of other foodstuffs from the state reserves of the USSR for the supply of Berlin, including its Western Sectors."

In connection with this measure, all newspapers published in the Soviet Sector of Berlin recently carried a communique issued by the Information Bureau of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany.

The Soviet Government's reply on July 14 to the notes of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France concerning the situation in Berlin, the communique stated, clearly demonstrated that the Soviet Command has invariably concerned itself with the welfare of the Berlin population and has always ensured it normal supplies of everything necessary, and is now striving to eliminate as speedily as possible the difficulties which have recently arisen in this matter. The note pointed out that the Soviet Government has no objection to ensuring, by its own means, adequate supplies for the whole population of Greater Berlin.

The Information Bureau of the Soviet Military Administration has been authorized to state, the communique continued, that, desiring to alleviate the plight of the population of Berlin, brought about by the separatist and splitting activities of the occupation authorities of the Western Powers, the Soviet Government has instructed the Soviet Military Administration in Berlin to ensure the possibility of the whole Berlin population being supplied with everything necessary in accordance with the existing rations.

With this end in view, the communique declared, the Soviet Government has decided to set aside for the initial period—from reserves of the USSR—and to bring to Germany and place at the disposal of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, 100 thousand tons of wheat and a corresponding quantity of other foodstuffs for supplying the whole population of Berlin. Simultaneously, the Soviet military authorities in Germany have taken the necessary steps toward purchasing foodstuffs in Poland, Czechoslovakia and other countries in order to supply the Berlin population.

Every resident of Berlin, regardless of the part of the city in which he resides, will be given ample opportunity to obtain bread and other foodstuffs on his ration cards, in accordance with established rations, from stores situated in the Soviet Sector and with the currency in circulation in the Soviet Zone of Occupation of Germany.

* Metric tons. One metric ton = 2,204.62 pounds.

industry during the first half year was exceeded by five per cent.

The Ministries of the Electrical Industry, Light Industry, Gustatory Products and the Fish Industry of the Western Areas, despite the fact that they fulfilled their program for gross output as a whole, did not fulfill it in a number of important items.

The Ministry of the Iron and Steel Industry did not fulfill the quarterly production plan for special steel and semifinished axles for railway cars; the Ministry of the Agricultural Machinery Industry, for self-propelled combines and tractor-drawn seed drills; the Ministry of the Electrical Industry for electric locomotives and generators up to one hundred kilowatts; the Ministry of the Transport Machinery Industry for steam turbines and dump cars; the Ministry of the Automobile and Tractor Industry, for passenger cars; and the Ministry of the Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas, for natural gas.

II

Increase in Industrial Production

Production of the most important items of industrial output registered the following changes in the second quarter of 1948 as compared with the second quarter of 1947:

	Second quarter of 1948 in per cent of second quarter of 1947
Pig iron	118
Steel	121
Rolled metal	123
Railway rails	112
Iron tubing	138
Copper	107
Zinc	147
Lead	110
Coal	113
Oil	115
Gasoline	116
Kerosene	117
Natural gas	109
Electric power	116
Trunk line locomotives	169
Trolleybusses	136
Trucks	141
Passenger automobiles	233
Autobusses	153
Ball bearings	131
Metallurgical equipment	182
Electric motors, 100 kw. and under	155
Electric motors, over 100 kw.	171
Special and multiple metal-cutting machine tools	154
Ring-spinning frames	269
Looms	201
Agricultural machines	231
Tractors	214
Tractor-drawn plows	201
Tractor-drawn seed drills	183
Tractor-drawn cultivators	121
Threshers	217
Caustic soda	120
Calcined soda	141
Mineral fertilizers (superphosphate, nitrates and potash)	125
Synthetic dyes	126
Synthetic rubber	163
Automobile tires	132
Haulage of timber	124
Paper	111
Cement	122
Slate	131
Window glass	124
Soft roofings	110
Cotton textiles	112
Woolen textiles	129
Leather footwear	118

STEEL. The iron and steel industry overfulfilled its quota, producing 111 per cent of the scheduled metal.

Rubber footwear	135
Hosiery	138
Animal fats	142
Vegetable oils	141
Fish	114
Soap	140
Alcohol	169

Gross output of industry as a whole in the second quarter of 1948 increased by 24 per cent as compared with the second quarter of 1947.

During the second quarter of 1948 a considerable quantity of industrial production, including that of iron and steel and nonferrous metals, steam coal, oil products, machines and equipment, mineral fertilizers, dyes, timber and other building materials, paper, textiles, rubber footwear, animal fats and vegetable oil, exceeded the plan.

The plan for reduction of production costs during the second quarter of 1948 was overfulfilled. The total amount saved above the plan, accruing from the reduction of the cost of industrial production, amounted to 1,500,000,000 rubles during the first half of 1948.

III

Agriculture

In the sphere of agriculture, the spring sowing was successfully executed. The spring grain sowing plan was fulfilled.

According to preliminary data, the cultivated area under all crops increased this year by more than 11 million hectares* in comparison with 1947.

The plan for the sowing of the most valuable grain crop, spring wheat, was overfulfilled and the spring wheat area in the collective and state farms increased according to preliminary data by 5,500,000 hectares in comparison with last year.

Cultivation of the crops and preparations for harvesting have proceeded this year better than last year.

The harvest is proceeding in the South. The Ukraine, the Moldavian SSR, the Crimea and the North Caucasus have raised a good grain crop which is considerably in excess of last year's crop.

In most of the central and western areas of the country, the condition of the crops is good or satisfactory. In the eastern and northern areas of the USSR, the crops are developing normally.

In most districts of the Volga area, dry and hot weather began in the early spring, subsequently developing into a summer drought with hot, dry winds during the first 10 days and the last 10 days of June.

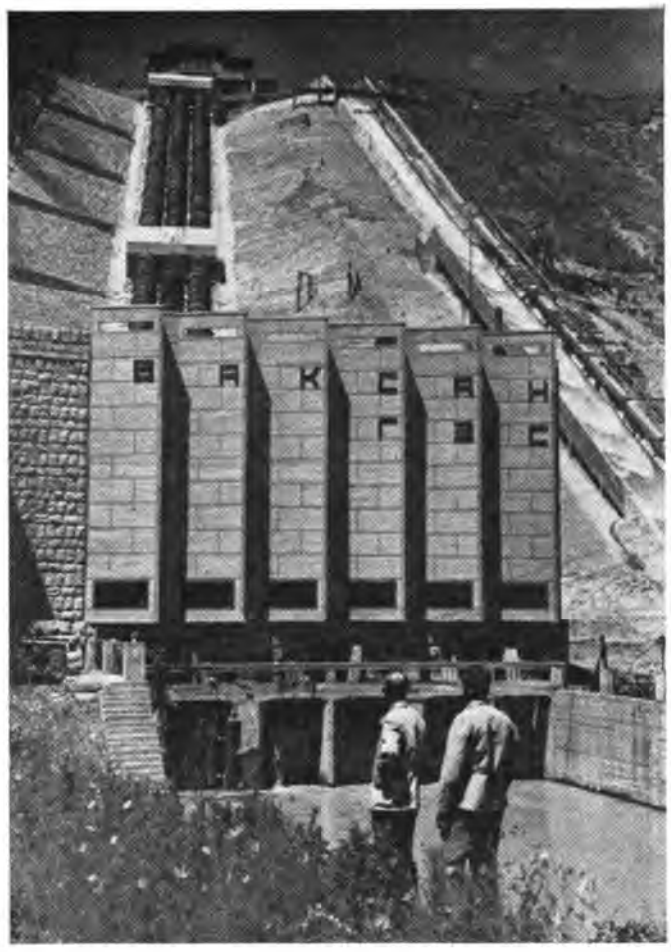
IV

Cargo Carriage by Rail, River and Marine Transport

During the second quarter of 1948 the average daily carloadings on the railways amounted to 114 per cent of the figure for the second quarter of 1947. The average daily loadings of coal increased by six per cent; coke, by 12 per cent; oil, by 11 per cent; ore, by 18 per cent; iron and steel, by 12 per cent; grain, by 69 per cent; flour, by 88 per cent; timber, by 28 per cent; and cement, by 18 per cent. The general plan for average daily carloadings on the railways was fulfilled by 99 per cent in the second quarter.

Cargo carriage on the riverways increased in the second quarter of 1948 by 27 per cent as compared with the total

*One hectare=2.471 acres.



POWER AND OIL. These industries, too, exceeded their quotas. Baksan hydroelectric station (above) and oil derricks in Baku Bay.

for the second quarter of 1947, the quarterly plan being fulfilled by 97 per cent.

Marine transport increased cargo carriage by 12 per cent as compared with the second quarter of 1947, although it fell two per cent short of the cargo carriage plan for the second quarter.

V

Increase in Capital Construction in the National Economy

The volume of all capital work during the first half of 1948 amounted throughout the national economy to 126 per cent of the first half of 1947, including 124 per cent in the coal industry, 128 per cent in the iron and steel and nonferrous metals industries, 113 per cent at electric power stations, 111 per cent in the engineering industry, 124 per cent in the food and light industries, 126 per cent in transport, and 142 per cent in housing.

The pace of capital construction was accelerated during the second quarter of 1948, the increase in volume in comparison with the figures for the corresponding quarters of 1947 amounting to 19 per cent in the first quarter and 32 per cent in the second quarter.

By concentrating manpower, material and financial means primarily on the most important construction jobs, more plant was put into operation in a number of branches of industry in the second quarter of 1948, although the time limits planned for the launching of production capacities are still not fully observed.

In spite of the fact that they increased the volume of construction and installation work in comparison with the second quarter of last year, the Ministry of Fuel Industry Construction, the Ministry of Heavy Industry Construction and the Central Administration under the Council of Ministers of the USSR in charge of the construction of engineering enterprises did not fulfill their quarterly plans.

VI

Expansion of Trade

Soviet trade continued to expand during the second quarter of 1948. In connection with the second price reduction effected in the state stores in April, and the reduction of prices on the collective farm market in comparison with those of the corresponding quarter of last year, the purchasing power of the ruble continued to rise in the second quarter.

TEXTILES. Increases were shown in consumer goods production.

Sales of food and manufactured goods by the state and co-operative retail network increased considerably during the second quarter of 1948. The sale of bread increased in comparison with sales during the second quarter of 1947 by 50 per cent; sugar, by 83 per cent; meat products, by 29 per cent; vegetable oils, by 14 per cent; confectionery products, by 29 per cent; cotton textiles, by 38 per cent; silks, by 34 per cent; leather footwear, by 31 per cent, and sales of rubber footwear more than doubled.

VII

Increase in the Number of Workers and Other Employees and the Growth of the Productivity of Labor

The total number of workers and other employees engaged in the national economy increased in the second quarter of 1948 by more than 2,200,000 as compared with the second quarter of 1947.

The productivity of the labor of workers in industry increased in the second quarter of this year by 14 per cent as compared with the second quarter of last year, including increases of 21 per cent in the engineering industry, 17 per cent in the iron and steel industry, and 11 per cent in the coal industry.

The wage fund for the whole of the national economy increased in the second quarter of 1948 by eight per cent as compared with the second quarter of 1947.

During the second quarter of this year, 400 thousand young skilled workers completed their studies at industrial training schools and were employed in industry and at construction sites.

VIII

Restoration of Economy in the Areas Occupied During the War

Gross production of industry in the areas that were occupied by the enemy during the war increased by 41 per cent in the second quarter of 1948 as compared with production during the second quarter of 1947, the output of pig iron mounting 39 per cent; steel, 51 per cent; rolled metal, 55 per cent; electric power, 34 per cent; cement, 27 per cent; and coal in the Donbas, 20 per cent.

Centralized capital investments amounting to 7,700,000,000 rubles were made in these areas during the first half of 1948; 1,300,000 square meters* of housing floor space in towns and 63 thousand dwelling houses in rural localities were built or restored.

IX

The socialist competition now under way on a sweeping scale among the workers, collective farmers and the intelligentsia at plants, construction sites, collective farms, machine-and-tractor stations and state farms, and the successes achieved in regard to the overfulfillment of the plans for the first and second quarters of 1948 show that all branches of the national economy are in a position not only to fulfill but also to overfulfill the plan for 1948—the third, decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

STATE PLANNING COMMISSION OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF THE USSR

* One square meter=10.764 square feet.

Pravda's Comment on the Report Of State Plan Fulfillment

COMMENTING on the report of the State Planning Commission of the USSR on the results achieved in the second quarter of the current year as related to the tasks set before the country by the National Economic Plan for 1948, a *Pravda* editorial of July 19 notes that these results point primarily to the steady advance of the socialist economy in the postwar period.

"The report of the State Planning Commission of the USSR," says *Pravda*, "shows that in this third decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the Soviet country has achieved a far higher level of development in all branches of the national economy than was achieved in the second quarter of last year. The gross output of industry rose by 24 per cent over the figure for the second quarter of last year; the average daily freight loading on railways rose by 14 per cent; and the volume of capital construction in the national economy during the first half of the present year topped the level attained during the first half of last year by 26 per cent.

"The production curve in heavy industry—the foundation of the national economy in the USSR—is continuously rising. The output of metals, coal, oil, electric power, chemicals, machinery and equipment, timber and construction materials in the second quarter of 1948 represents a substantial increase over production during the second quarter of 1947. The high pace of development in heavy industry provides the conditions necessary for the further progress of the socialist economy, for accelerating the pace of national economic restoration and development in the USSR.

"The rapid growth of the light, textile and food industries continued during the second quarter. The second quarter also witnessed a substantial increase in the output of fabrics, shoes, butter, fish, and other consumers' goods. There was a further rise in the volume of Soviet trade, with a considerable increase in the sales of food and manufactured goods. The second of the series of price reductions, effected in

FOOD INDUSTRY. Much emphasis is laid on production in this field.

April, 1948, [the first reduction was effected in December, 1947, simultaneously with a currency reform] and the decline of prices on the collective farm market, raised the purchasing power of the ruble still higher during the second quarter of the year. The growth of production of consumers' goods, the greater volume of trade and the rise in the purchasing power of the ruble are facts reflecting the constant concern of the Party and Government for raising the living standards of the Soviet people.

"Noteworthy successes have been achieved by Soviet socialist agriculture. More than 11 million hectares* have been added to the cultivated areas this year; these include the addition of 5,500,000 hectares to spring wheat plantings of the collective and state farms. Improved cultivation and better preparations for harvesting are features of the current season. Grain harvesting is in progress in the south—in the Ukraine, in the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic, in the Crimea and the north Caucasus—where the grain yield is far higher than last year. A factor largely responsible for this success is the universality of socialist competition in the countryside, the active participation of millions of men and women collective farmers in this movement. . . .

"The concentration of investments, materials and labor on urgent construction quickened the pace of capital construction in the first half of the year, with the result that greater production capacities and housing space were made available for use. This has created one of the most important preconditions for a still greater advancement of the national economy. . . .

"Labor productivity in industry has risen during the second quarter of 1948 by 14 per cent over the figure for the corresponding quarter of last year. This, combined with the advance in technical and economic standards, has enabled industry to bring the cost of production below the planned objectives and to raise industrial accumulations.* A rigid saving program enforced in the national economy, and the accelerated rise of socialist accumulations with the resulting decline in the cost of production in industry, made it possible to effect a saving of 1,500,000,000 rubles above the planned figure.

"The achievements of the first half of 1948," concludes *Pravda*, "furnish the basis not only for the realization, but for the surpassing of the program in this third, decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan."

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

* The word "accumulations", used in this sense, is a Soviet term indicating that part of the earnings of socialist industry which is used for industrial expansion and capital construction by the given enterprise.

Moscow's Aviation Day Celebration

WHEN Moscow celebrated Aviation Day on July 25, huge crowds flocked to the Chkalov Airfield in Tushino, near Moscow, the traditional place for the air parade and festival.

From early morning, electric trains arrived at Tushino station in an endless stream. Automobile, trolleybus and autobus traffic was extremely heavy on all the highways leading to the airfield. Thousands arrived from Moscow suburbs on steamers and boats via the Moscow River and the Moscow Canal.

By 4 P.M. more than 500 thousand spectators had gathered at the field. A storm of applause swept over the field as Stalin entered the government stand. At the same moment, 96 sports planes appeared on the horizon. Their formation spelled out the words, "Glory to Stalin." The opening of the display was simultaneously announced by a salute of 20 artillery salvoes.

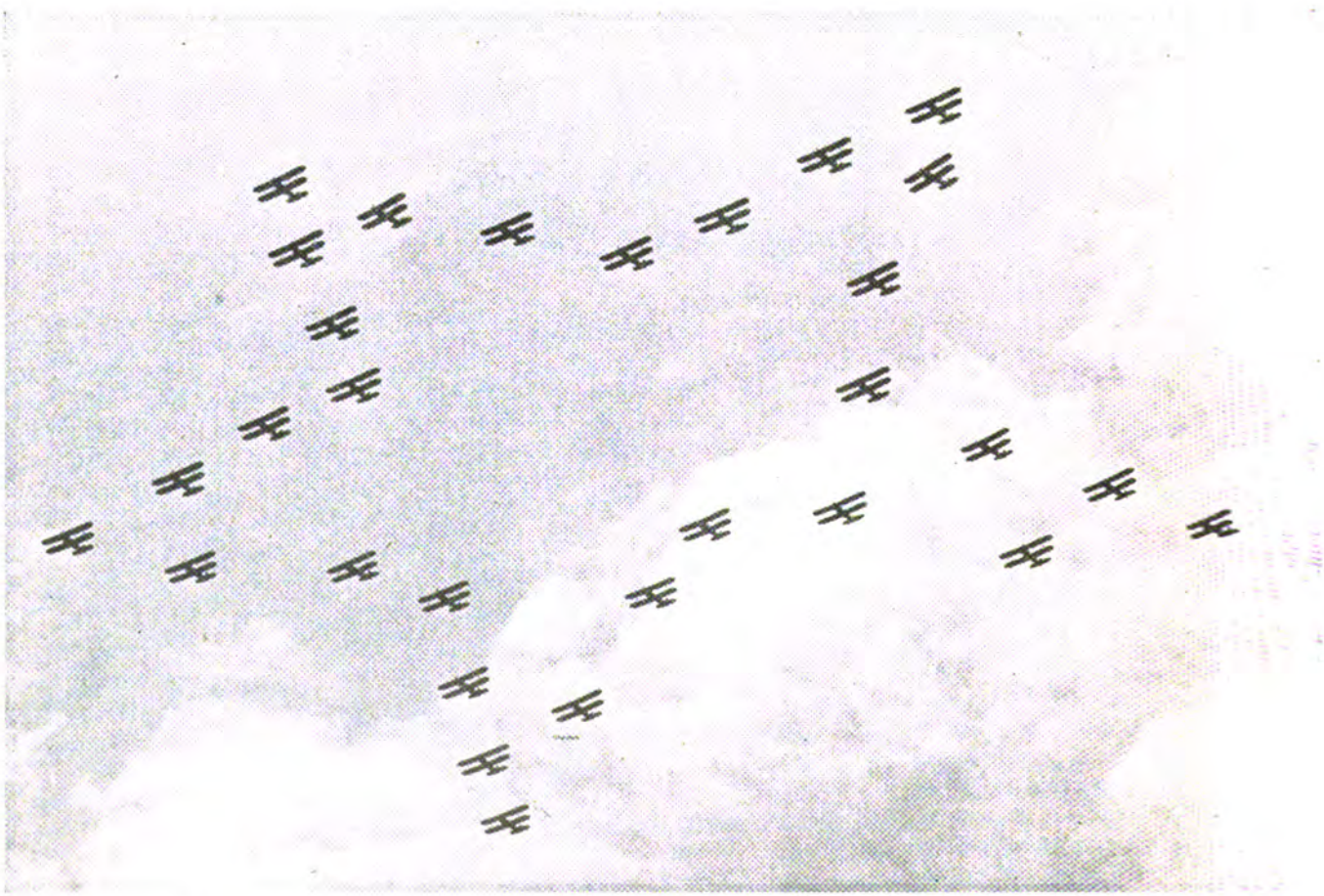
On the other side of the airfield, three Polikarpov-2 planes appeared. Suddenly a 33-foot red flag fluttered from the leading plane and two blue pennants from the planes on either side. No flier in the world had hitherto tried to unfurl such huge flags during flight. It was considered technically impossible.

Vinokurov and Zakhudalin, pilots of the Central Air Club, flew in sports planes one on top of the other, so to speak, one machine flying normally and the other upside down. Next, trainees of the Air Club, Margarita Ratsenskaya, Zoya Postnikova, Anna Shmelkova, Anna Bodryagina and Maria Drigo gave a performance of stunt flying in sports planes.

Group piloting in training planes was demonstrated, the light machines swooping earthward and then soaring skyward again, demonstrating a great variety of air stunts. These planes were piloted by workers, students, engineers, doctors, teachers, all of whom have realized one of mankind's most cherished dreams—the conquest of the air.

These amateur pilots belong to a society which has a membership of millions—the Society for the Promotion of Aviation in the USSR. Each of the men and women pilots who belongs to this organization is contributing his share toward the creation of the Soviet Union's mighty air fleet, and to the defense of his country's borders. And these pilots amazed the spectators with their ability to loop the loop, with their ability to perform other intricate figures of stunt flying.

Following the training planes, the gliders gave a demonstration. Then a truck drove to the center of the field. From its platform a helicopter ascended, circled over the field and then gently and precisely landed on the truck.



SOVIET STAR. Planes flying in formation form an interesting part of the air show.

Military fliers appeared in the second part of the festival. A fighter plane flew over the field at a terrific speed, performing intricate stunts. Next, nine fighter planes demonstrated group piloting.

Then a Soviet jet-propelled plane flashed over the field. The first jet plane was followed by another, and then came a quintet of jet-propelled aircraft flying abreast in strict formation, disappearing almost vertically in the sky. No one had previously tried group stunt flying in jet-propelled planes, but Soviet airmen have mastered this technique, which requires the utmost concentration of will, fearlessness, skill and exact calculation, measured to a fraction of a second.

For a short while, the aerial arena remained vacant—a short intermission before the mock aerial battle. The battle in the air was followed by a parade of new military planes, led by 15 bombers of Tupolev's design. Next came 27 machines of a different type, also designed by Tupolev. They were followed by wings and squadrons of different types of aircraft.

The third part of the festival belonged to the parachute jumpers, who demonstrated their skill singly, and in groups, and then wound up with a performance by hundreds of parachutists, bailing out from transport planes in parachutes which were all the colors of the rainbow.

The festival ended with a display of the latest transport planes. First came a Tupolev aircraft carrying 75 passengers; this model is designed for long-distance nonstop flights. Following these were high-speed Ilyushin express planes, which are used for flying on most of the Soviet air lines. They fly from Moscow to Khabarovsk, a distance of almost six thousand miles, in a single day.

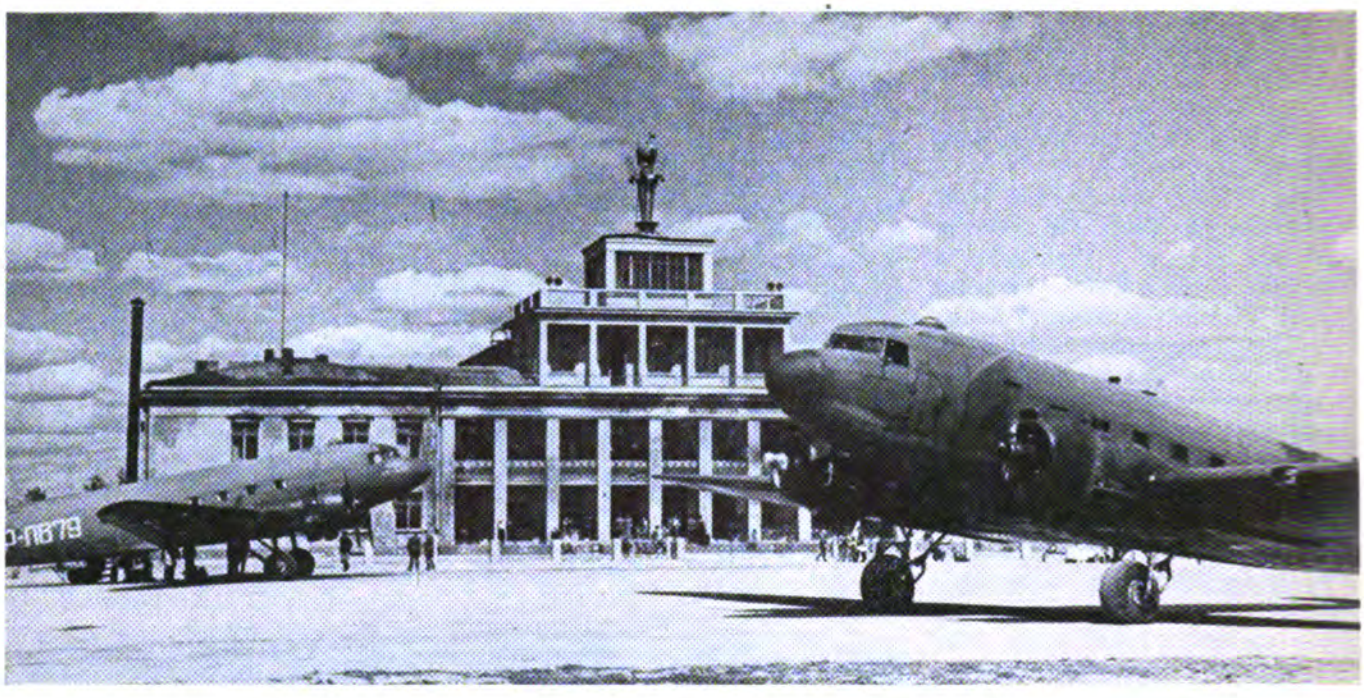
The great part played by aviation in the transport system of the Soviet Union, where great distances make passenger and freight airlines most practical, was reflected in the interest shown by the spectators in this section of the air show. Travel by plane, and shipment by air are constantly increasing.

"Aerial trains" — fast transport planes towing gliders of the latest design—concluded the air festival, which was a striking demonstration of the power of Soviet aviation and the unsurpassed skill of Soviet airmen.

THE CROWD ARRIVES. Cars were parked for miles around the field.

BUFFET. Stands like this form an important adjunct to the holiday.

SPECTATORS. Thousands watched the show.



TRANSPORT. Here, at the Moscow airport, arrive passengers from all parts of the world.

Civil Aviation in the USSR

By F. Zakharov

Official of the Central Civil Air Fleet Administration

THE Soviet Union has created a powerful aircraft industry during the Stalin Five-Year Plans; and this has facilitated the ever-growing employment of aviation in the most diverse fields.

In a country as vast as the USSR, civil aviation assumes special importance. The network of air lines is growing constantly. On the eve of the Second World War, in 1940, their total length amounted to 137 thousand kilometers.* During the first two postwar years, all prewar air lines were restored and new ones opened. In 1950, their total length will be 175 thousand kilometers.

After the war's end the Soviet aircraft industry regeared itself to peace and has greatly increased the production of civilian planes. Original machines of Soviet design have been added to the planes serving the country's air lines. Soviet aviation's share in transporting the country's freight and passengers has risen substantially.

The total volume of transportation by air, as early as 1946—the first year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—had exceeded the level of 1940; and it is continuing to rise steadily. Traffic on such air lines as Moscow-Kiev, Moscow-Tbilisi, Moscow-Baku, Moscow-Tashkent, Moscow to Alma-Ata and Moscow-Novosibirsk has multiplied several times.

Economic development of the Volga area, the Urals, Siberia and the Far East brought about the need for closer ties among these areas. Civil aviation is filling in the breach and new air lines, such as Sverdlovsk-Ufa-Kuibyshev, Leningrad - Gorky - Sverdlovsk, Kuibyshev-Gorky and others have been established.

Soviet civil aviation delivers large quantities of freight to construction sites—machine tools, various parts for machines, precision instruments and electrical equipment. In the Far East, Central Asia and the Far North, planes are frequently used for carrying supplies for industrial establishments and food for the population to areas difficult of access.

Plane service is popular among factory and office workers who travel to health resorts during their vacations. A sharp rise in passenger service has been noted on the air lines to the Black Sea coast. During the postwar years, hundreds of thousands of vacationers have been carried by planes to sanatoriums and rest homes. Health resort lines are equipped with fast, comfortable Soviet-made craft which provide passengers a maximum of convenience, and effect a great saving of time. In addition to air lines linking Moscow with the health-building centers of the Caucasus and the Crimea, direct air traffic has been established between these regions and some of the largest cities, such as Leningrad, Sverdlovsk, Baku, Kiev, Kuibyshev, and Minsk.

A dense network of local air lines has also been established. These connect the capitals of the constituent and autonomous republics, and regional centers, with outlying districts. Alma-Ata, capital of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic, for example, has direct air communication with that Republic's regional centers; Tashkent, capital of the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic is linked by air with Nukus, Urgench, Bukhara, Samarkand and other cities.

Much has been done for the promo-

(Continued on page 488)

* One kilometer=.621 of a mile.

A Pioneer of Aerodynamics

By Ivan Konfederatov, M.Sc.

THE airplane turns. The sunrays run along the row of seats, over the faces of the passengers, climb the wall of the cabin at the end of the long passage and light up a small portrait in a narrow frame. An ordinary Russian face; grey hair and beard, keen, slightly narrowed eyes, the characteristic curve of the eyebrows; on the chest—two Orders of Lenin and the gold star of a Hero of Socialist Labor. Under the portrait, an inscription: *Sergei Alexeyevich Chaplygin. 1869-1942.*

All we can see is the gleaming edge of the wing, and far below the dwindling earth. But Chaplygin, sitting at his desk, saw with the eye of his analytical mind a complicated picture of air currents and vortices beyond the edge of wings like this. And not only did he see them, but he confined them in a well-ordered system of formulas, developing the theory of the wing of a plane!

This was long ago. In 1896, when the world did not yet know of aviation in its present meaning, Chaplygin, in his work, *On Gas Currents*, submitted to the Moscow Mathematical Society, made a fundamental study of gas dynamics, which today still serves as the basis for all works on super-speed flights.

Chaplygin's talented theoretical researches greatly outstripped the practical development of aviation. Considerably later, individual designers, groping blindly, guided by their engineering instinct, began to build their machines.

By applying his mind to a separate sphere of gas dynamics—the theory of the wing—Chaplygin filled the gap between the general theories of gas dynamics and the practice of aircraft construction.

In October, 1910, at a sitting of the scientific-technical committee of the Moscow Society of Aeronauts, Chaplygin reported on his work, *The Results of Theoretical Research into the Movement of Aircraft.* In this work, he first submitted a qualitative conception of the theory of the wing of the end span, first drew a clear picture of the air vortices rushing from the ends of the wings of an aircraft, and gave a mathematical analysis of the forces supporting an airplane in the air. Thus the foundations were laid for his *The Vortex Theory of the Lifting Force.*

In the autumn of 1914, N. Zhukovsky, the father of Russian aviation, read a paper to the Mathematical Society on *The Vortex Theory of the Lifting Force* of Chaplygin's wing, presenting it in the same form in which it was published by L. Prandtl's school in Germany in 1918 under the title of the *Theory of Inductive Resistance.* Under this name it became known in aviation literature without any reference to the name of Chaplygin who, however, was the founder of this theory, which played a decisive role in the development of aviation.

Chaplygin's theory is not only important because it presented the first computed formulas for aircraft construction, but also because it is an excellent example of the method of creative research inherent in representatives of Russian scientific thought. Russian scientific thought has always been distinguished by its capacity for scientific prevision, its capacity for mentally generalizing the conception of the studied phenomenon, for selecting the fundamental problem and solving it profoundly and in principle, demanding only experimental confirmation of the correctness of the solution and the addition of certain practical details.

In perfecting A. Lodygin's invention of the incandescent electric lamp, Edison, with exceptional persistence, tested some thousand different materials until he accidentally found charred bamboo fiber. In perfecting the steam turbine, Parsons built one after another, and gradually, by means of small changes, achieved more nearly perfect models, finding the correct solution gropingly, or in his own words, "with his fingerends."

Chaplygin did not seek for the solution of the problem of the lifting force of a wing by groping among endless experiments. He generalized the theory of the wing of a plane in the form of a blade which he drew on a page of his manuscript, *The Vortex Theory of the Lifting Force.* With inspired sight, he saw on his blade what nobody else saw, observed beyond the wing of an airplane in flight the air current, and the direction of the acting forces, and the vortices rushing from the edges of the blade, and the direction of rotation of these vortices—the whole of the complicated picture of the movement of a real wing. Chaplygin drew this picture on his blade, confined it within the strict limits of mathematical coordinates, determined the acting factors and their ratio, found the relationship between them, and expressed it in a mathematical formula.

In this way the theory was formed. Subsequent experiments and the practical work of aircraft construction confirmed it brilliantly.

Since the end of the war, the Soviet people have begun peaceful constructive work. Designer Sergei Ilyushin, who during the war created the unexcelled IL-2 "flying tank", has built a new, comfortable passenger plane, the IL-12, and in the cabin of one of these giant aircraft somebody's loving hand placed the portrait of the founder of the theory of the wing, S. Chaplygin.

Aviation is now entering upon the period of super-speed flights. The transition to high speeds is not accompanied by a simple quantitative change in the magnitudes determining the process of movement. When a speed equal to the speed of sound is reached, a sharp qualitative change take place in the process. The theory of movement at less-than-sonic speed becomes useless, a new theory is needed, the theory of movement at supersonic speed.

The principles of this theory were outlined by Chaplygin in his work *On Gas Currents,* written in 1896. Outstripping its time by half a century, this work established the laws of gas dynamics at great speeds, the practical application of which has only now become possible. Further developed by Chaplygin's pupils, it serves as the basis for the study of the problem of super-speed flights.

The achievements of Soviet aviation in the sphere of less-than-sonic and supersonic speeds are based on the advanced scientific theory of Russian scientists, which has flourished in the fertile soil of socialist society.

RECESS. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR between sessions.

They Make the Laws

If you should enter St. George Hall in the Grand Kremlin Palace in Moscow during a recess of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, you would very likely be greeted with an electric buzz of excited conversation—the sound of more than a thousand men and women eagerly discussing a new legislative measure that had been introduced in the session which recessed only a moment ago. And if you should thread your way through this assemblage—men and women in ordinary business attire, in military uniform, in the native costumes of the farthest corners of the Soviet Union, and in the country dress of the collective farms—if you should stop here and there and engage a random few of the deputies in conversation and if they should tell you something of their lives, one fact would stand out clearly: the men and women who comprise the supreme state power of the Soviet land are the blood and bone of the Soviet people . . . the mirror and invincible will of the Soviet people.

You might meet, for example, a friendly, vigorous woman named Alexandra Porozova, a deputy from Gorky Region.

In her native Region along the upper reaches of the Volga—a Region renowned for its excellent flax and fine flax growers—Porozova is the leader of a field team on the Avangard collective farm. It is widely known that few flax growers in the entire Soviet Union can "hold a candle" to Porozova—for it is she who cultivates the best flax and reaps the richest of crops; it is Porozova who brought fame to the Avangard collective farm. And collective farmers from far and wide journey there to study her flax-growing techniques.

Clustered around another deputy, handsome in an Air Forces uniform, you would find a large group of people, drawn by his powerful personality. This deputy is Major of the Guards Ivan Kozhedub, a fighter pilot. During the Second World War he shot down 62 Nazi planes and was thrice decorated as a Hero of the Soviet Union.

Then there would be Rustam Rustamov, a people's deputy from Azerbaijan.

Thirty-seven years old and a master driller in the Baku oil fields, hearty and robust Rustamov is a man who is always seeking the new and the daring, a man who is constantly introducing new methods of work, constantly experimenting and innovating in order to rationalize the work of the drillers and enable them to raise production. For his important contributions to the Soviet oil industry, Rustamov has been honored as a Hero of Socialist Labor.

You could hardly miss seeing Pavel Bazhov, a deputy from Sverdlovsk Region. Shrewd, bearded old Pavel Bazhov is a folk writer of the Soviet people. He wrote the first stories ever written about the working people of the Urals. Sixty-eight years of age, Bazhov was an unknown teacher of the Russian language before the October Revolution. The Revolution—in which he fought actively—awakened the sleeping genius which lay within him; now the entire Soviet people honor him. Bazhov's best-loved work is a volume of short stories called *The Malachite Casket.*

Ksenia Sarsania is a deputy from Zugdidi District in the Georgian Republic. A collective farmer, she devised a new method of cultivating the tea plant—an innovation which has resulted in the reaping of record-breaking crops. For this she was awarded the Stalin Prize.

You might encounter Gid Shibzukhov, tanned and practical, a master farmer and chairman of a prosperous collective farm in the Kabardinian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic.

Another deputy you might meet is a quiet-spoken man who is one of the most famous of Stakhanovite milling-machine operators—I. Gudov of Moscow.

Plump, motherly Anna Kudryavtseva, a teacher, is a deputy from Alexandrovsk, Sakhalin Island. She has been awarded the Soviet Union's highest

FARMER. Gid Shibzukhov, a deputy to the Soviet of Nationalities, is a farm chairman.

honor—the Order of Lenin—in tribute to her humane and brilliant guidance of a generation of students.

There is Trofim Lysenko, President of the All-Union Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences—a deputy to the Supreme Soviet and its vice-chairman. Lysenko's name is a household word in the Soviet Union, and every collective farmer is intimately acquainted with his work. It was Lysenko who devised and developed vernalization, who originated a method of combating the degeneration of potatoes in the south of Russia, who achieved the transformation of winter crops into spring crops, and spring crops into winter crops.

Another deputy you might meet in St. George Hall is Sidor Kovpak, twice Hero of the Soviet Union. He was a leader of Ukrainian partisans, who, operating far behind German lines, opened an inner front against the invaders. One of the best-known deputies is Praskovya Angelina. The daughter of poor peasants, she has become in Soviet times one of the country's outstanding figures in agriculture. The Soviet Union's first woman tractor driver and the initiator of the movement which drew thousands of women into this work, Angelina has been honored as a Hero of Socialist Labor, has twice been awarded the Order of Lenin—the Soviet Union's highest award—and is a Stalin Prize winner.

And there are many more—Kipras Petrauskas, People's Artist of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic and "father of Lithuanian opera"; Pavlo Tychina, the well-known Ukrainian poet; Elfrida Pakul, Latvian opera singer, called "the nightingale"; Nikolai Volkov, a Yakut miner; Valentina Kuznetsova, a locomotive driver from Kaluga; Vassa Serditova, lumberjack from the Komi Autonomous SSR; Danute Staneliene, a machine gunner during the recent war—she is a deputy from the Lithuanian SSR; Karo Alabyan, famous Armenian architect; S. Makarov, an inventor of coal mining machinery; Olga Podvysotskaya, colleague of the great physiologist, Pavlov, and head of the clinic of the Pavlov Medical Institute in Leningrad; Sara Dautova, a tractor driver from the Tatar Autonomous SSR—all deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

These men and women are a cross section of those 1,339 Soviet citizens who direct the affairs of the Soviet State. It is they to whom the administrative arm of Soviet government—i.e., the Council of Ministers, appointed by the Supreme Soviet and headed by Deputy Stalin—is directly accountable. It is theirs that is the final word in all matters of foreign and domestic policy.

SESSION. Sidor Kovpak, the famed guerrilla leader (left) and Praskovya Angelina, noted woman agricultural leader. The deputy on the right is a steel worker.

The Supreme Soviet consists of two Chambers—the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities. The former represents the common interests of all the people of the USSR, regardless of nationality; the latter gives expression to the specific interests of the various peoples. Both Chambers are elected directly by the people. The Soviet of the Union is elected according to election areas—one deputy to each 300 thousand citizens. The Soviet of Nationalities is elected in the following manner: 25 deputies from each Union Republic; 11 from each Autonomous Republic; five from each Autonomous Region, and one from each National Area. The two Chambers are equal: each has an equal right to introduce legislation, and no measure of any kind becomes law unless both approve it by a majority vote. The Constitution may be amended by vote of two-thirds of both Chambers. The terms of the deputies are four years, and sessions of the Supreme Soviet are convened twice a year. When the Supreme Soviet is not in session, the Council of Ministers is accountable to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. The Presidium—the "collective presidency" of the Soviet Union—is elected from, and in turn is accountable to, the Supreme Soviet.

And the deputies are directly accountable to the people: each deputy must report to his electors on his work and on the work of the Supreme Soviet—and any deputy may be recalled at any time upon decision of a majority of his electors.

Of the 1,339 deputies to the Supreme Soviet, 511 are workers, 349 are peasants, and hundreds are office employees and intellectuals. Of the deputies, 277 are women. The deputies include 1,085 who are members or candidate-members of the All-Union Communist Party. Among the deputies are 116 Heroes of the Soviet Union, 52 Heroes of Socialist Labor, 35 Stalin Prize Winners; 982 deputies have been decorated by their Government.

Inseparably a part of the mainstream of Soviet life, these men and women make Soviet democracy a reality—these men and women who helped lead the people to victory over fascism and who are leading the people in the glorious conquest of prosperity and happiness.

THE men and women whose faces you see on these pages are deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—in them resides the highest power of the Soviet Union. Workers, collective farmers, teachers, scientists, writers, men and women of the armed forces. They come from every corner of their giant land. They represent all of the many nationalities and speak all of the myriad tongues to be found among the Soviet people. These men and women *are* the Soviet people.

Most of the 1,339 deputies earn their livings in industry or agriculture: 511 are workers, 349 are peasants. All are leaders—workers and peasants who daily set unprecedented production records, teachers who rear the Soviet youth, scientists who devise new means of banishing disease. All are men and women who constantly struggle to improve the welfare of their fellow men. Without exception, they played leading roles on the home front and on the battle fronts during the war against fascism. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet, these men and women are now leading their people toward an even greater victory—the conquest of prosperity and happiness.

FIGHTER PILOT. Ivan Kozhedub is three times a Hero of the Soviet Union.

DEPUTIES. Buryat-Mongolian deputies chat in St. George Hall of the Grand Kremlin Palace during a recess of the Supreme Soviet.

CONCENTRATION. Deputy Danute Staneliene of Lithuania.

COLLECTIVE FARMER. Ksenia Sarsania, (right) a deputy from Georgia, instructs three farmers in the cultivation of the tea plant.

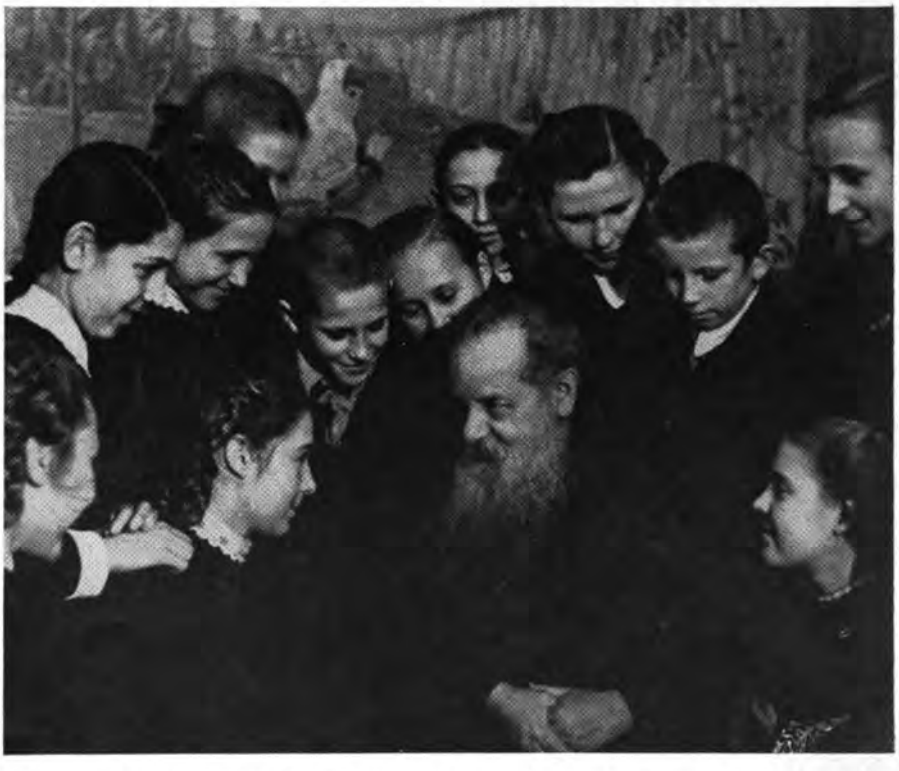
TALKING IT OVER. Deputy S. Makarov (right), an inventor, discusses a new type of mining machinery with a designing engineer.

AT HOME. Dr. Olga Podvysotskaya is famous for scientific achievement.

TEACHER. Deputy Anna Kudryavtseva, of far-off Sakhalin Island.

OIL WORKER. Rustam Rustamov (left), a deputy from Azerbaijan.

FLAX GROWER. Deputy Alexandra Porozova of Gorky Region is famous throughout the Soviet Union for the excellent results she has achieved.



NOW, BEFORE THE REVOLUTION . . . Deputy Pavel Bazhov, one of the Soviet Union's best-loved writers, tells Sverdlovsk school children of the past.

ESTONIAN FESTIVAL. The native folk culture is flourishing.

Eight Years of Progress In the Baltic States

From an article in "Pravda"

THE Soviet Baltic Republics—Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia—recently celebrated a great national holiday. Eight years ago, on July 21, 1940, the peoples of these Republics proclaimed Soviet power in their Republics. From that day a new era began in their history, an era of the speedy development of their productive forces, of the all-round blossoming of their culture and statehood.

The so-called independent existence of the Baltic bourgeois republics lasted for a period of 20 years. They were years of retarded industry, when enterprises were closed down one after another and more and more workers were condemned to join the mass army of unemployed. They were years of the impoverishment and ruin of the small-holders, many of whom had their farms sold by public auction.

Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia became the backyards of the capitalist West, remote colonies of German, British and American capitalists, who lorded it over these countries with the utter shamelessness peculiar to colonizers.

Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia became pawns on the chessboard of the great Powers, moved in a manner and direction not decided by themselves. They had neither wills of their own, nor their own policy. Their national resources were drained away, passing into the bottomless pockets of world capitalist monopolies.

During these difficult times, the hopes of the peoples of Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia were directed toward their friend and brother, the great Russian people, with whom they were bound by the ties of a common struggle, lasting many years, against tsarist despotism and feudalism. The workers of Riga, Tallinn and other Baltic cities kept as sacred relics the fighting banners of 1905 and 1917 under which they had fought on the barricades of the revolution, side by side with the Russian workers.

The imperialists of the Entente had severed the Baltic countries by force from the Soviet Union and had drowned the workers' movement in blood. But neither the imperialists of the great Powers nor their lackeys and puppets from among the local bourgeoisie could extinguish the sacred flame of love of freedom among the people or eradicate their striving for fraternal unity with the peoples of the USSR.

Eight years ago this striving was successful. The Baltic peoples became

LATVIA. Arms of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic.

ESTONIA. Arms of the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic.

LITHUANIA. Arms of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic.

members of a great and mighty family of peoples, which would permit no one to wrong them or to act counter to their national interests. The entire strength, the entire industrial might, the entire wealth of cultural treasures of the Soviet Union came to the assistance of the Baltic peoples.

The treacherous aggression of Hitlerite Germany interrupted the splendid process of construction of the new socialist life. But once more aid and salvation came from the East. The Soviet people and its Army routed the German invaders and returned to the Baltic peoples their freedom and independence.

In rehabilitating their economy and eliminating the evil aftermath of the war, Latvians, Lithuanians and Estonians have seen and understood the great strength of the Soviet regime, the power of the friendship, based on principles formulated by Lenin and Stalin, of the peoples of the USSR.

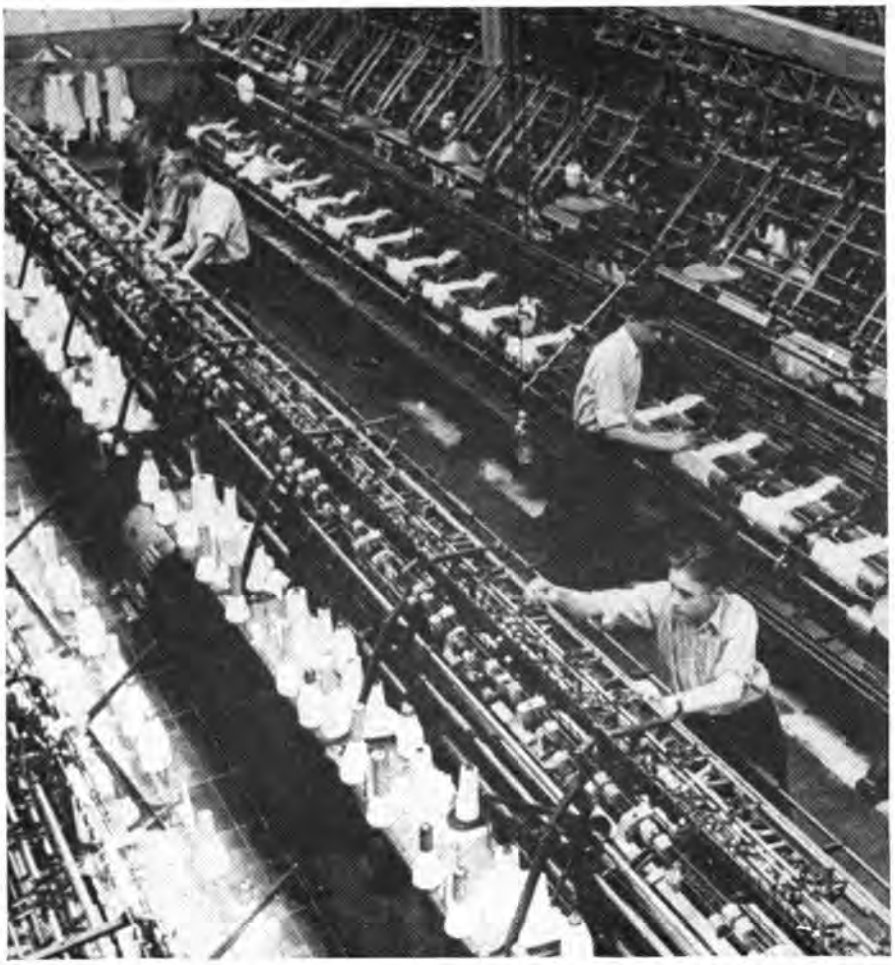
After the First World War, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia were unable for 20 years to put their economy on its feet. The loans which the great Powers foisted on them were not aid but fetters on the productive forces, did not raise the economy but dragged it down and back, did not lead to the strengthening of economic independence but to its loss.

After the Second World War, in less than three years, the economy of the Baltic Soviet Republics stood firmly on its feet, although the Republics had sustained ten times as much damage as during the First World War. The peoples of the USSR did not leave their brothers in their misery; they helped them with all their industrial might, with all the resources at the disposal of planned, socialist economy.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party, the Soviet Government, and Stalin himself are, with patriotic warmth, concerned for the economic and cultural needs of the Baltic Republics. Aid from all areas of the Soviet Union flows steadily: machines and other equipment from Moscow and Leningrad, metal from the Urals and Siberia, cotton from Central Asia, bread and other agricultural produce from the Kuban and the Ukraine, tractors from Stalingrad.

The industry of the Baltic Republics was able to make manifold and rapid

(Continued on page 479)



FACTORY SCENE. This is one of the shops of the Kotten hosiery mill in Kaunas, Lithuania, a factory which was destroyed by the Nazis.

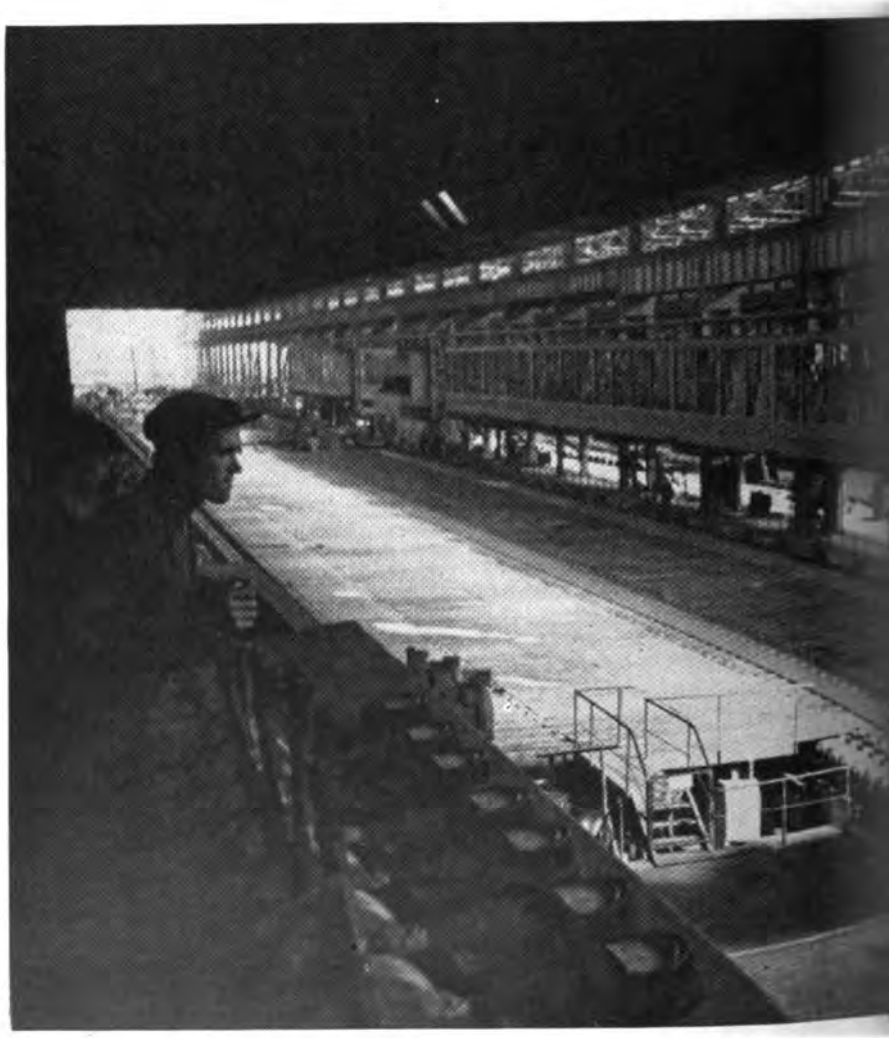
RECONSTRUCTION IN LATVIA. Despite the devastation wrought by the Nazis, Latvian reconstruction is proceeding apace. This is a newly built apartment house in Riga.

Soviet News in Pictures

HARVEST. Threshing in the Kuban. The crop is rich this year in the USSR.

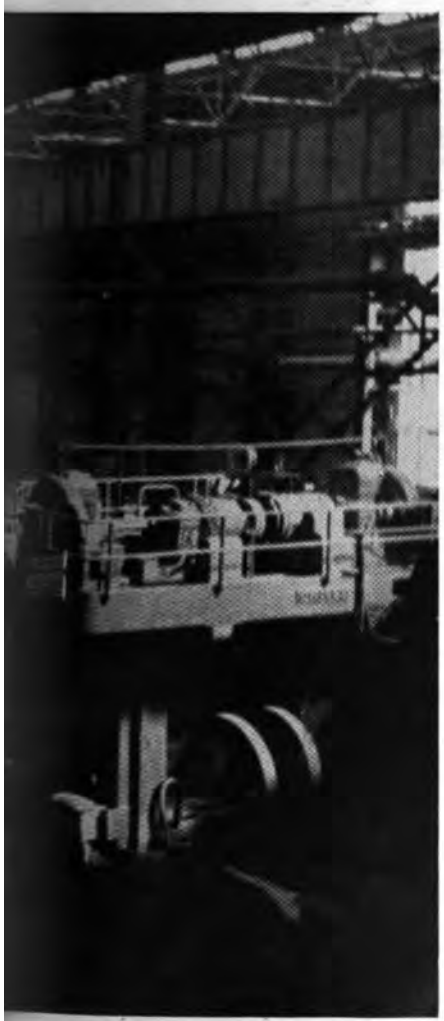
SCULPTURE. Lina Po, the blind sculptress, recently exhibited this "Girl with a Scarf."

STALIN PRIZE WINNERS. Professor Xenafont Kocheshkov (left) won the prize Strakhov, Corresponding Member of the Academy, for geological survey of met in flour-milling.



RESTORED STEEL MILL. Inside the sheet mill at Zaporazhstal. The machin

n metallo-organic compounds; Nikolai
fessor Y. N. Kuprits, for work of value



rolled from a central switchboard.

AMERICAN ARCHBISHOP. Archbishop Makarius of New York, officiating at a Moscow service during the celebration of the 500th anniversary of the autocephaly of the Russian Orthodox Church.

PATRIARCH. Alexius, Patriarch of the Church, welcomes the guests.

INSPECTION. A group of Soviet peasants discussing their new grain crop in the fields.

Competing for Bumper Crops

By Valeria Gerasimova
Soviet Writer

THE landscape of central Russia is simple and picturesque with its even sweep of fields, sparkling birch groves and luscious meadows abounding in purplish bluebells, succulent clover and golden buttercups. No wonder these ancient Russian lands drew the attention of Russia's great writers —Turgenev, Tolstoy, Chekhov. That which most frequently caught their penetrating gaze, filled them with pain and anguish, was the depressing contrast between the poetry of the land and the degraded state of man, laboring on this land.

But on a midsummer day I saw, walking among these fields and meadows, so often praised in song—past the wall of rising winter wheat, past the silvery oats and the velvety green clover, the happy descendants of Chekhov's "Muzhiks," moving in a procession with the dignity which befits the real masters of the land. There was solemnity in this procession. The men and women were dressed in their holiday best although it was not a holiday. People walked on, examining the fields with a businesslike air, now and again snapping off one or another stalk of grain, exchanging opinions in low voices.

They were members of a commission come to survey the results of the sowing. They were to decide which of the two competing collective farms, the "Novy Byt," from the Borisovo village or the "Zavet Iliycha," from the Lavrovo village, had won the two-way competition. The question as to who had won the socialist competition within the Lavrovo collective farm: brigade leaders Filkov or Savinov; team leaders Plekhanova or Lukyanova, Maslennikova or Gorbunkova, was to be settled at the same time.

Everyone was anxious and tried to disguise it.

"Your oats are fine," Ivan Budkin, chairman of the Borisovo collective farm told the Lavrovo farmers.

"Yes, but your wheat is better," replied Mikhail Kondratiev, chairman of the collective farm in Lavrovo.

Budkin and Kondratiev are different in many ways. Mikhail Kondratiev, who is in his sixties, is a little old man, pleasant to look at, with a body and carriage unusually graceful for his age. His keen, kind, brown eyes with their youthful glint harmonize pleasantly with the gray of his well-trimmed beard. The features of his tanned face are regular and agreeable. Ivan Budkin, on the other hand, has many years to live before he reaches Kondratiev's age. He is tall, broad-chested and has an imposing voice that it would seem was made to command. He fought against the German invaders.

Yet there is much in common between the two chairmen: both are Communists; both are respected and influential.

Now the crucial moment of their

tour of inspection finally arrives. The commission approaches the large field. The grain on it is the height of a man, as Order-bearer Maria Lukyanova, team leader observes. One half of the field belongs to her team, the other to that of Vera Plekhanova, Hero of Socialist Labor.

Both women pass the field in silence. They offer no excuses, enter into no explanations. How much labor—devoted, self-sacrificing labor—is contained in this green sea of wheat which sighs as it ruffles with the sultry gusts of wind?

Both teams, Plekhanova's and Lukyanova's, applied and continue to apply the most up-to-date agricultural methods.

The grain fields received two feedings of mineral fertilizers, were weeded and rid of pests. There, on the little hill, the wheat is just a bit scantier. How much trouble this hill has given Vera Plekhanova! But, like every vanguard collective farmer, she has a counselor who never fails her—her counselor is the tall elderly man with the knapsack slung across his shoulders and a face that the sun has burned black. He is Dmitri Groshev the oldest agronomist of the district, and his inspection of the field is most thoroughgoing. Under his guidance Plekhanova mulched the ground and now the wheat is ripening under the life-giving rays of the sun.

Vera is still quite young. Today this well-known team leader is dressed in her best, like all the other farmers. Her vigorous, beautiful body, clothed in a light-green linen dress, is well-proportioned. Her every movement, whether standing, walking or seated, is light and graceful. Nature has indeed endowed this Hero of Labor with that grace which Nekrasov once noted in the Russian peasant woman.

Maria Lukyanova is almost 25 years Vera's senior, but she, too, is well-built and young-looking. Her beautiful face brims with intelligence and energy. Like Vera, this peasant woman of the older generation has made herself the master of advanced agricultural techniques. Inspired by the initiative of Plekhanova's team, the collective farmers in Lavrovo dumped more than a thousand cartloads of turf on their fields. Lukyanova, for her part, showed her fellow villagers how to enrich the soil with ashes.

As a matter of fact, whenever any misunderstanding arose between these "rivals," Lukyanova and Plekhanova, —natural enough between any "rivals" —it was almost always around the question of who should get more fertilizer and what kind of it.

The old agronomist Groshev not infrequently had to act as arbiter in the disputes between these two team leaders.

The brigade leaders, too, are anxious. But Savinov and Filkov, both military men in the recent past, are by no means likely to disclose their thoughts and feelings.

At last the inspection of the vast fields belonging to the farm in Lavrovo is over. A few days before, the Lavrovo people made a similar tour of the Borisovo fields. They made comparisons, stored away facts in their memories, came to conclusions. This is something in the nature of a test of the conscientiousness, the inner discipline, the tact of the competitors—for whatever they have achieved is the result of persistent, hard labor.

The pre-Revolutionary, illiterate village, with its downtrodden and oppressed inhabitants, feared what they called the "evil eye" and tended to keep silent about crop prospects. Now, uprooting prejudices and superstitions, the collective farm peasantry has learned to appreciate intellectually and emotionally, the force of public opinion, the force of publicity. Without it there would not be, there could not be that great renown with which the Soviet land crowns its deserving workers, a renown expressed in the Orders and medals sparkling on the chests of many of the country's sons and daughters.

Now, there is much to be said both for and against these collective farms. Groshev expresses his opinion, as does the representative of the Party District Committee and the quality inspector. There are many extenuating circumstances for the collective farm in Lavrovo, which is lagging somewhat behind the Borisovo farm. Lavrovo started sowing two days later than Borisovo. Here and there they had sown by hand. Moreover, the Novy Byt collective farm in Borisovo owned many more horses than its "rival" in Lavrovo. Kondratiev, however, waved aside all these excuses, though they might have entered his mind. Simply and courageously he concedes that, although the collective farmers of Lavrovo worked unquestionably well and carted almost three thousand loads of fertilizer to the fields, the condition of their crop is inferior to that in Borisovo. And together with the rest he votes for his "rivals," sounding the keynote for the entire discussion on the results of the inspection. Following him the leading farmers, too, warmly and frankly judge the work of the brigade and team leaders.

Then the results of the competition are surveyed. The collective farm of the Borisovo village is ahead of the one in Lavrovo. In the tense contest between the teams, Plekhanova's team has outstripped Lukyanova's; Gorbunkova's team has defeated Maslennikova's. Savinov's first brigade beat the second brigade led by Filkov. There is a very heated and detailed discussion on all these points and then the question is put to a vote.

As in every contest, some feelings are hurt, some objections are raised. But it is natural and true, both for the victors and the "vanquished", not to look backward at what has already been accomplished but at what remains to be done. And the task is to produce a rich harvest in the autumn with no losses, to demonstrate that the collective farmers' promise to do so, given in their letter to Stalin, is sacred and unbreakable.

. . . Mikhail Kondratiev sums up: "The crops must be tended like a child."

Well said. And you feel that the people who only the day before finished a difficult task, are ready to continue their labor with even greater persistence.

Their friendly rivalry — socialist competition—is the backbone of superior Soviet agricultural and industrial production. Without it, and without the resulting overfulfillment of production quotas in agriculture and industry, the end of rationing in December, 1947, and the price reductions that were effected then and in April, 1948, would not have been possible—nor would there be now that rapidly growing supply of goods for all the needs of the Soviet people.

A Woman Farm Chairman

By M. Dolgopolov

Since 1942, Nazani Galustyan has been the head of the Sebastya collective farm, which is about seven miles from Erevan, capital of Soviet Armenia. This is one of the farms in that Republic which recently welcomed to their memberships large groups of repatriated Armenians.

When the collective farmers of the Sebastya collective farm elected her as their chairman, Nazani Galustyan was fully aware of the job's heavy responsibilities. It was wartime; many of the men had gone to the front; there was a shortage of labor; gasoline for the tractors was limited because of the demands of the front. There were fewer horses—many of them had been requisitioned by the Army. Despite these handicaps, she knew that the Sebastya farmers had to work as never before. And she did not despair.

Together with the other rank-and-file women who had been elected to the management board of the Sebastya farm, she discussed every measure, every new undertaking.

The sowing of wheat was one of the first important questions that the newly elected management board had to consider. Wheat was a crop which before the war the Sebastya collective farm, as many others in Armenia, had not cultivated. A general membership meeting approved the proposal of the management board to sow 50 hectares* with wheat.

So the land was thoroughly tilled and enriched with mineral fertilizers and manure. And at harvest-time the collective farm reaped, on an average, 1.4 metric tons* of wheat per hectare. That was not a bad harvest for those times and inspired the women—in the following year they increased the yield to 1.9 metric tons of wheat per hectare.

Socialist competition between brigades, groups and individual collective farmers became widespread on the farm. "We must supply the front!"—that became the farmers' byword.

In the course of a conversation, Nazani Galustyan told me of many remarkable women among the collective farmers who had been the driving force behind the Sebastya farm's magnificent production record—Aikanush Akopyan, Yalduz Aslamyan, Araksia Arutyunyan and others. Modestly, she said nothing about herself. A mere enumeration, however, of the achievements of the collective farm during the war and the postwar years is sufficient tribute to the work of the chairman. For instance, during these years the number of cattle and sheep increased more than 2.5 times. During the war years the women collective farmers laid out 30 hectares of new vineyards and 40 hectares of new orchards, in which peaches, apricots and other fruits are now grown.

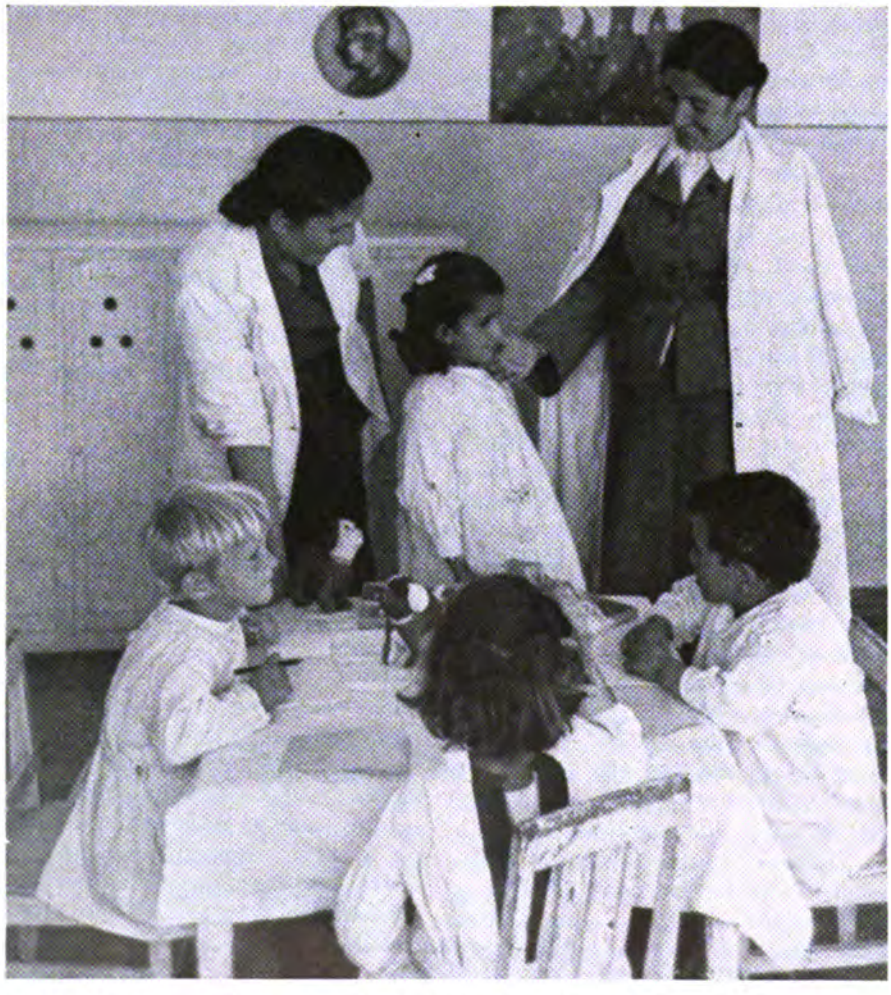
Nazani Galustyan combines her untiring work as chairman of the collective farm with many public activities. In February, 1946, she was elected by the working people of Armenia to serve as their deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. And for her outstanding labor during the war she was awarded the Soviet Union's highest decoration, the Order of Lenin.

Accompanied by Nazani, I made the round of the collective farm fields. She also showed me the farm's livestock, in charge of Samson Movsesyan. Exemplary cleanliness and order reign everywhere on this farm.

She then took me to the new homes the collective farm has built for the repatriated families who arrived recently from Iran, Syria, Greece and other countries.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

* One metric ton = 2204.62 pounds



KINDERGARTEN. Nazani Galustyan (right) visits the children in the farm kindergarten.

"Our collective farm has admitted to its ranks 32 families of Armenians who returned from abroad," Nazani said to me. "We received them like close relatives returning home after a long absence. They are working on the collective farm on the same basis as all our other members. Much is still new and unfamilar to them. They find it hard, for example, to get accustomed to the fact that they do not have to pay for the accommodation of their children in the kindergarten or for medical aid. However"—she smiled—"they will soon get used to it. Every day brings them new proofs of the advantages of the socialist system, under which real concern for the welfare and happiness of the people is all-important."

In the kindergarten, the 60 children receive free meals. The collective farm provides the funds. The manager of the kindergarten is Goarik Natanyan, a graduate of the Erevan Pedagogical Institute, who directs a staff of teachers and other workers.

The sons and daughters of the Sebastya collective farmers attend many of their Republic's colleges and institutes. Arovik Khachaturyan, for example, is a student at a medical institute, Vanik Barsegyan is a student at the chemical department of the State University, Sirak Taganyan is studying at the Polytechnical Institute. Many more are studying in the Republic's higher schools of learning.

Great changes have occurred in the Armenian village in Soviet times. In pre-Revolutionary Armenia, the semi-starving, downtrodden and illiterate peasants did not dare dream of higher education for their children. There was not one higher school of learning in Armenia before the October Revolution, except for a theological seminary in Echmiadzin.

Today, there are 13 colleges and institutes in Erevan, attended by 12 thousand students.

In pre-Revolutionary times the soil of Armenia lay parched and barren, thirsting for water, while the turbulent Armenian mountain streams emptied themselves in mountain lakes and deep canyons. Since the Revolution, however, a dense network of 90 irrigation canals has been built throughout the country. By 1947, the total length of these canals was 10,600 kilometers*; work is proceeding on new irrigation systems which, by 1950, will add 23,500 hectares to the area of irrigated lands.

The variety of agricultural crops has also undergone a sharp change. Huge areas are now sown to cotton, tobacco, sugar beet; vineyards and orchards cover a large part of the countryside.

These tremendous changes which have taken place in a nation which formerly bore the stamp of tsarist oppression are a direct result of Soviet rule—a direct result of the collective farm system, of Soviet science, and of the will of Soviet Armenians to build a flourishing land of plenty, whose riches would benefit the entire people.

The Sebastya collective farm is a "millionaire" farm. Its income in 1947 exceeded 2,500,000 rubles.

"Collective labor and assistance in the line of science and technique, which we receive from the Soviet Government, have engendered in us a new attitude toward our social duties and public property," Nazani Galustyan declared, as our conversation drew to a close. "The personal welfare of the Soviet peasantry is indissolubly bound up with the general, national, state interests. This gives us new strength, initiative, and an eagerness to work ever better. That is why our work is so successful."

The rich cultural and economic life of the Armenian people today affords an excellent example of the progress made during Soviet times by the non-Russian Soviet republics. These peoples, once oppressed by tsarist rule, now stand equal with all others in the multi-national State of the USSR. Under these conditions, agriculture and industry have flourished; thousands of skilled leaders of farm and factory have developed. Nazani Galustyan is a worthy representative of this new working intelligentsia.

* One kilometer=.621 of a mile.

Eight Years of Progress

(Continued from page 473)

progress, their natural riches began to be developed and put to maximum use in a planned manner. The age-old poverty of the peasantry was obliterated; the peasants received land and enormous economic aid, were given the opportunity of using the most modern agricultural machines. Tallinn, Riga and other Baltic ports became centers of vigorous activity, equipped with powerful modern machines produced by socialist industry. Educational institutions have been opened, as well as scientific research institutes; an Academy of Sciences has been formed, uniting the Baltic scientific intelligentsia.

The material well-being of the working people is steadily rising; Latvian, Lithuanian and Estonian culture is developing, national in form and socialist in content. The wise leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin, the daily concern of the Soviet Government, the friendly aid of the fraternal peoples of the USSR, and above all of the great Russian people—these are the sources of the rapid postwar rise of the economy and culture of the Baltic Republics and their future development.

And ahead there are still more splendid prospects. Fulfillment of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan will produce an increase in the industrial production of Latvia and Lithuania by 80 per cent, of Estonia by two hundred per cent. A number of new branches of industry will be created.

But the main thing is that together with the growth of the productive forces, there grows the socialist consciousness of the working people of the Baltic Republics. The creative sentiment of Soviet patriotism is being strengthened and cultivated in them. They are seeing ever more clearly and accurately the advantages of the socialist system, the superiority of the Soviet ideology of the Leninist-Stalinist friendship of the peoples.

The peoples of the Baltic Republics freely chose the path of free, socialist development, the path of true independence, of rapid economic and cultural progress. They are marching confidently and firmly along that path, not alone, but shoulder-to-shoulder with all the peoples of the USSR, a single, mighty, brotherly family. The invincible banner of Lenin leads their unbreakable ranks; the great Stalin, the beloved leader and teacher of the peoples, is leading them to the happy and bright future of communism.

NORTHERN PLUMS. A new strain is inspected by a scientific agricultural worker.

New Orchards of the Urals

By Bella Dizhur

For years it was thought that the climate in the Urals made the growing of fruit and berries impossible. Here and there, it is true, amateurs had cultivated apple and cherry trees in their gardens. But before the Revolution, no organized effort had been made to spur the development of this work. And Urals fruit remained as rare as ever.

Conditions have changed radically during the last 30 years. With the support of the Soviet authorities, a great body of young Soviet horticulturists have begun to remake nature.

One of these horticulturists is a short, thickset man named Peter Gelfendbain. Gelfendbain received his first lessons in horticulture from the brilliant horticulturist Michurin, in whose nursery he worked for a long time as an ordinary laborer, and later as a scientific worker.

About 12 years ago Gelfendbain went to the Urals to join a fruit and berry nursery which was just being organized in the city of Sverdlovsk. The staff of the nursery was opening its activities with a tour through the Urals in an attempt to locate the old Urals fruit growers and study their local varieties of fruits.

A study had to be made of these finds, and they had to be distributed among the Urals experimental gardens with a view to the best possible reproduction.

Along a Urals road which is canopied by the bright northern sky, and dotted here and there with trucks, passenger cars and blue busses, there stretches a white fence. Behind that fence lies the center of Urals horticulture—the Michurin Fruit and Berry Nursery.

Everything here is modest and strictly functional. Here new varieties of fruits are born—frostproof, hardy fruits which yield big crops. Since its opening, scores of thousands of trees have been reared for the Urals in this nursery.

The horticulturists who have reared these riches walk from tree to tree in the gardens. They jealously inspect each branch, thoroughly cultivate the land, carefully remove weeds.

Why are they toiling so zealously? Because this rich harvest will be sent to market and the profits divided among the horticulturists? No. This experimental garden belongs neither to Peter Gelfendbain, the senior scientific worker of the fruit and berry nursery, nor to its director and his assistants. This garden belongs to the people of the Urals and to the people of all the Soviet lands. Young horticulturists come here to learn. And the greatest reward the horticulturist Gelfendbain desires is to watch the gradual disappearance of the old prejudice that fruit growing is impossible in the Urals, and to feast his eyes on the hundreds of acres of collective farm land which, under the guidance of the Michurin Nursery, are being transformed into orchards where frostproof currant, cherry and apple trees are growing.

ONE morning, far from the Urals, Ivan Michurin, accompanied by his students, had made his usual rounds of his experimental gardens.

"Look," he had said, addressing his youngest pupil, Peter Gelfendbain, "here is quite a young little apple tree and yet there is already fruit on it. Examine it well and try to find the reason for that."

A little while later, alone, Peter had opened the earth around the tree and noticed that the neck (that part of a tree where the root passes into the trunk) was bent into a spiral.

"Is not this the cause of the early fruiting?" Gelfendbain had thought. Saying nothing to his teacher, he decided to verify his idea by experimenting with tomatoes. Shortly afterward, he had taken Michurin to the tomato beds. On one of them, 15 bushes were exuberantly blossoming.

"Is this a new variety?" Michurin had asked.

"No, I simply bent them into a spiral—and, you see, those others which were not so treated are not yet blossoming."

When the young horticulturist had told Michurin of his observations of the apple tree and the idea which had occurred to him as a result, Michurin's face had lit up warmly and he had exclaimed:

"Fine lad! You've eyes to see and a mind to think."

Now his work here in the Urals recalled this episode to Gelfendbain. It would be well, he thought, to force the apple trees in the north orchard to yield fruit not in the seventh or tenth year, but in the second or third. But how was it to be done? It had long been known that dwarfish plants give fruit earlier than the normal ones and that the fruit of dwarfish plants is larger and more luscious. How does it happen?

Plant life flows rhythmically. Under the action of solar energy, the green leaves form sugar and the roots take moisture and salts from the earth. Now man comes to interfere with this rhythmical process, saying:

"There must be surplus sugar in the crown of the tree, so that its fruits may ripen more quickly, so that they may be more luscious, more fragrant."

And lying awake at night, listening to the whistling and howling of the wind outside, Peter Gelfendbain remembered the spiral of the apple tree in Michurinsk.

The Chinese Sanina tree was chosen for an experiment. The grassy shoot grafted on the bud was twisted around a wild plant; after some time the shoot turned into wood and the wild plant was removed.

The Chinese Sanina usually bears fruit in the seventh year; on these spirally-bent trees, fruit buds appeared in the first year.

Another two years passed, and the first crop of purple-lilac fruits was harvested.

BLOSSOMING LAND. Soviet science has produced fruit trees where none grew before.

IN an effort to evolve new methods of improving fruit growing in the Urals, Peter Gelfendbain has made a thorough study of the invisible struggle which goes on inside plants, the struggle of the branches for the sun, for carbonic acid, and for the earth's juices which in a leisurely manner enter the vessels of the tree.

It is the business of the horticulturist to help in this struggle.

He knows that a definite group of branches corresponds to a definite group of roots; he knows that the trunk of the tree is divided into sectors in which narrow little tubes, carrying nutritious juices from the roots, make contact with each group of branches. If part of the branches from one group were removed, the tree as a whole would not suffer, but on the contrary would gain therefrom.

Here stands a small, shapely apple tree. A few rounded twigs are freely rising upward, without interfering with each other, without overshadowing the trunk and without bending under the weight of the big ripe fruit.

A thorough study of all the anatomical peculiarities of the plant had to be made in order to create such a tree; the most subtle connections and interdependence between the various parts had to be studied. In intervening in the life of this tree it was necessary to do nothing to disturb its harmony. It was necessary not to hinder, but to help its development.

In creating such a tree, Peter Gelfendbain elaborated a new system of forming the crown of fruit trees. He reported on it at the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences. The new system amazed the scientists by its marvelous simplicity, clarity and, as the Academy noted, its profound understanding of the biological essence of plants.

So it happened that the new system, created by the hitherto unknown Urals horticulturist, has made the previously used German and American systems obsolete. The Gelfendbain system of forming the crown of trees has been adopted in all Soviet horticulture. And it will splendidly serve Soviet horticulturists in their task of transforming the land of the Soviet Union into a flourishing garden.

CLINIC. A medical aid station in Soviet Bukovina.

Guarding Rural Health

By Alexei Kiryushin

In the USSR a great deal of attention is paid to health protection for the peasants. State medical institutions have been established in the villages and hamlets of the Soviet Union, providing free, competent medical aid for the rural population.

So-called rural medical districts have been organized in the rural localities of the entire Soviet Union. An excellent example is the medical district of the village of Zinkovo in the Kamenets-Podolsk Region of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, which affords medical aid to the inhabitants of Zinkovo and the neighboring hamlets. This medical district has a hospital, a dispensary, and a maternity and children's consultation center.

Among the hospital's wards are the therapeutic, infectious diseases, surgical, gynecological, and children's wards. The hospital also has a clinical laboratory of its own. Recently, new X-ray apparatus was installed.

There are more than 15 thousand such rural medical districts in the Soviet Union.

In addition to hospitals and polyclinics, various other types of disease-prevention and medical institutions have been opened in Soviet villages, including maternity homes, public nurseries, sanatoriums for collective farmers, etc. The staff members at these institutions are continually raising their proficiency by attending special courses given at the larger hospitals, clinics and medical institutions. And the number of therapeutists, surgeons, gynecologists, pediatricians, oculists, and other specialists in the rural localities is growing from year to year.

Soviet peasants, however, do not receive medical aid only from the medical institutions in the villages. All district centers have large hospitals and polyclinics, and any Soviet peasant may receive from them medical aid of any kind, free of charge.

In addition, all regional centers have regional hospitals and polyclinics. Usually, the staffs of these institutions include prominent professors and old experienced physicians, who, over and above their own medical practice, direct the work of the rural medical institutions, passing on their experience to the rural doctors.

If a patient in a distant village needs immediate specialized medical treatment, the doctor flies to him in an airplane. There are ambulance planes in all regional centers, and they are at the disposal of peasants who need them, free of charge.

In the Soviet Union particular attention is given to medical service in those districts which, before the October Revolution, were economically and culturally backward. The Buryat-Mongolian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic is an example. In 1913, its entire rural medical "network" consisted of three district hospitals—with a total of 60 beds—and 33 first-aid stations. These institutions had, in all, only three doctors. Now the villages of Buryat-Mongolia have more than one hundred hospitals, 170 surgeries, 45 maternity homes and 50 public nurseries.

During the first years of Soviet power the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic had only five hospitals and eight dispensaries; by 1940 that Republic had 120 hospitals and 218 dispensaries and polyclinics. There is not a single village now in Tajikistan that does not have some kind of medical institution. The budget for public health in that Republic last year amounted to 147 million rubles.

At present the total number of doctors working in rural medical institutions is over 26,300. More than 46 thousand disease-prevention and medical aid centers have been opened in villages and hamlets.

In addition to the medical institutions, public nurseries and pioneer camps have been organized in many villages by collective farms, for the peasants' children.

Rural residents, like all the working people of the Soviet Union, can rest and receive medical treatment at health resorts and sanatoriums.

Thus, rural health protection in the Soviet Union is in full conformity with the interests of the people.

The Role of the Trade Unions

By N. Alexandrov

IN ORDER to understand the role of Soviet trade unions, it is essential to know the substance of the political and economic changes that have taken place as a result of the victory of the working class and the laboring peasantry in 1917, and it is essential to be aware of the efforts of the working people of the Soviet Union in building up the new, socialist society.

The Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917 abolished private ownership of the means and instruments of production, putting a permanent end to exploitation of man by man. The working class, which became the ruling class in the country, began, in alliance with the peasantry, the construction of a socialist society.

The socialist system of economy has won complete supremacy in the Soviet Union. Its development is regulated by a single state plan and possibilities of crises, unemployment and anarchic production are thereby excluded. Labor has become a duty and a matter of honor for every able-bodied citizen.

INNOVATOR. Vassili Matrosov's methods of production are famous.

STATESMEN FROM THE TRADE UNIONS. Nikolai Shvernik (left), President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, and Vassili Kuznetsov, Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities, rose through the labor movement.

The working class of the USSR is an entirely new working class. Free from exploitation, the complete master of the means of production, the Soviet worker works for his own benefit and for the benefit of socialist society.

Under these conditions, the role of the trade unions can no longer be the same as under capitalism. Active participation in the development of the national economy on the basis of new, socialist principles, the struggle for the consolidation of the Soviet system, and the protection of the material, legal and cultural interests of the working people became the principal tasks of the trade unions—the class organization of the working class—after the victory of the socialist Revolution. These new tasks were formulated in the resolution of the First All-Russian Congress of Trade Unions, held in January, 1918, two months after the Revolution, as follows: "The center of gravity of trade union activities must now be shifted to organizational work in the economic field."

And the trade unions, as the largest mass organization of the working class, began to assume responsibility for mobilizing the working class for the construction of the socialist society.

In order to achieve its aims, the new social system must create a higher productivity of labor than is possible under capitalism. For that reason Soviet trade unions actively co-operate with the efforts of the Soviet State and the working class to step up labor productivity.

In order to mobilize the working people for active participation in the construction of socialist society, Soviet trade unions explain to the working people their concrete tasks at every stage of development toward the communist society. The Soviet trade unions cultivate a socialist attitude toward labor and public property in the minds of the people, fight against the survivals of capitalism in the minds of the people, against the manifestations of any backward, individualistic psychology.

The greatest movement of the working class for higher productivity of labor—the socialist competition movement and its highest form, the Stakhanov movement—furnish a vivid ex-

ample of the success of the trade unions in raising the class consciousness of the working people.

The socialist competition movement, born in the early years of the Revolution in the form of *Subbotniks*,* developed, in the words of J. V. Stalin, into the Communist method of the construction of socialism based on the utmost initiative of the masses. By drawing the masses into the socialist competition movement and Stakhanov movement, and by assisting them in raising labor productivity, the Soviet trade unions are furthering the progress of socialist construction.

At production conferences convened by the trade unions in the factories, the workers discuss the progress of the production program and make suggestions designed to improve the organization of labor and the production processes. The trade unions further the development of rationalizers and inventors among the workers. The trade unions mobilize the efforts of the workers for greater saving of raw materials, fuel and tools and for lowering the cost of production. The educational activities conducted by the trade unions further the technical knowledge and raise the cultural level of the workers; by popularizing the experience of the advanced Stakhanovites, the trade union bodies help the backward workers to raise their efficiency to Stakhanovite levels.

These activities of the trade unions are highly instrumental in broadening the political, general and technical education of the working people, are instrumental in raising their skill and the cultural standards of all the people. The trade unions are actually schools for developing the initiative of the workers, for activizing them and consolidating their ranks.

The Soviet trade unions have advanced outstanding executives and statesmen from their midst. The President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Nikolai Shvernik, one of the veteran leaders of the labor movement under tsarism, held the post of General Secretary of the AUCCTU* for a number of years. Andrei Andreyev, a member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the CPSU(B)** was at one time chairman of the railway men's union. Vassili Kuznetsov, the Chairman of the AUCCTU, in 1946 was elected Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. The Secretary of the AUCCTU, Mikhail Tarasov, was elected Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. Many leading trade unionists are deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and the Supreme Soviets of the constituent republics of the Soviet Union.

The Soviet trade unions play a prominent part in all fields of public life in the USSR. The Constitution of the USSR grants the trade unions the right to take part in the election of all the bodies of Soviet power. And the trade unions take full advantage of this right: they nominate their candidates for membership in the Soviets and participate in the work of the election committees.

Of major importance is the role of Soviet trade unions in the matter of protecting the material, legal and cultural interests of the working class.

Considering this aspect of Soviet trade union activities, one should remember that the Soviet State and the working class of the USSR are not and cannot be divided by the contradictory interests which are inevitable in capitalist society. Soviet power, the government of the working people, is directly concerned with their vital interests. The very first steps of the Soviet authorities were intended to satisfy the urgent needs of the working people. These measures included the establishment of the eight-hour working day, labor-protection laws, state social insurance and social maintenance, public education and free medical service. The progress of the socialist national economy enabled the Soviet Government to effect more and more improvements in the living and working conditions of the factory and office workers, to raise their standard of living and cultural level.

One of the principal tasks of the trade unions under socialism is the struggle against the occasional bureaucratic violations of Soviet laws. Another task of the trade unions is to assist the Soviet Government in drafting new labor laws and to control the proper usage of the state appropriations for improving the living and working conditions and for raising the living standards of the working people.

The Soviet trade unions have no need to fight for increases in wages and salaries, because the Soviet Government scrupulously adheres to the principle of the Constitution of the USSR which provides for payment for labor in accordance with its quantity and quality. The Soviet Government invariably consults the trade unions on all questions relating to wages and salaries. But the trade unions vigorously fight against distortions of the wage policy which occur occasionally in local areas; whenever such practices occur, the unions bring them to the attention of the Government and ensure that these distortions are eliminated and that the persons responsible for them are punished.

Fifteen years ago, the Soviet Government authorized the trade unions to administer the State Social Insurance Fund; the Soviet Government realized that the Fund should be placed under the direct administration of the working people. At the same time, because of the great experience and prestige of the trade unions, the Government authorized them to control the implementation of labor legislation. Moreover, the trade unions exercise control over housing construction, workers' supply (food, coal, wood, etc.) and other cultural and utility services catering to the working people.

It would, however, be entirely incorrect to conclude from all this that Soviet trade unions are part of the state apparatus. The trade unions exercise control over the work of that section of the state apparatus directly concerned with the services catering to the needs of the working people. This control is mass control, effected with the co-operation of millions of rank-and-file trade unionists. It supplements state control and assists in it, but does not by any means substitute or replace it.

* Literally, "Saturday days." In the early years of the Soviet Union, in order that socialist construction might be speeded, Lenin gave leadership to the movement of volunteering to work on rest days; these days were known as *Subbotniks*, and the movement found expression among all levels of Soviet labor from heads of Ministries to unskilled laborers. In present-day Soviet society, all volunteer workdays or work periods have come to be known as *Voskresniks*, or "Sunday days," and are now primarily associated with the reconstruction of war-devastated cities, factories, etc.

* All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

** Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

They Can See!

From an Article by Vassili Smirnov

Deputy Minister of Cinematography of the USSR

To Burtov, the collective farmer, the word "see" had a vague and mysterious meaning.

For Burtov had been blind from early childhood..

But in the Soviet Union there is nothing that is not within the reach of the common man—and even the blind may learn to see.

Burtov was taken to the Filatov Experimental Institute of Ophthalmology in Odessa, in the Ukraine—one of the largest institutes in the country, and a leading center of the world-fight against blindness.

And now before our very eyes—on the screen—we see Burtov walk back into the world of sunshine and color and the sight of laughter.

We see this real-life adventure—and others like it—in the Soviet film *They Can See Again!*

For many years, scientists of many nations sought to put into effect the idea of transplanting the cornea. None was successful.

It was a Soviet scientist, Academician Vladimir Filatov, who solved this tremendous problem.

In order to solve the problem, Filatov was obliged to invent original instruments which would enable him to perform such an extremely delicate operation.

Filatov was also able to simplify the process of transplantation of the cornea to such an extent that it could be performed by hundreds of oculists.

Another of Filatov's great services to humanity, was his origination and development of technique of transplanting the cornea taken from a body after death. Moreover, the technicians of the Institute have designed special vessels which make it possible for such corneas to be preserved and transported over great distances.

Academician Filatov performs from five to six operations daily. His assistants perform an equal number. More than 1,300 transplantations of corneas have been made in the Institute—more than the total made beyond the borders of the Soviet Union since the problem of transplantation was first solved.

ACADEMICIAN VLADIMIR FILATOV

And now, in the film, the camera permits us to be present at Filatov's 8411st operation. The patient is Burtov.

Through the eyes of the camera we watch the process of transplantation; we are shown the basis of Filatov's discovery, the methods of his technique. And we see that Burtov suffers no pain—for a local anesthetic has rendered the operation absolutely painless.

Next we see a spacious sunny ward in the Institute. Among the patients here are Burtov; Shalov, an engineer; Butenko, a sailor from the Baltic Fleet, and many others—all recuperating from operations, all waiting for the day when they will fully comprehend the meaning of the word "see."

The postoperative period is particularly important. From 10 to 12 days are required for the transplanted cornea to "grow to" the eye.

Then at last the great day arrives. The bandage is removed. Now the last barrier to sight—a fragment of the mucous membrane—is removed also . . . And the patient can see!

No one can watch the scenes of *They Can See Again!* without experiencing deep emotion.

One scene, for example, portrays an incident in the life of Rostopchenko, a peasant from Transcarpathia—a man who many years ago lost his sight and never dreamed of recovering it. But after the western Carpathian area again became part of the Soviet Ukraine, the old peasant was sent to Odessa for treatment. After an operation performed by Filatov, Rostopchenko regained his sight. And through the eyes of the camera, we watch Rostopchenko see his daughter, now a grown woman, for the first time since she was a child of four.

Prior to the departure of a group of convalescent patients from the Institute, Academician Filatov usually reviews with his staff the results of the treatment of each case. The camera also records one of these conferences.

The working days at the Filatov Institute are full of great constructive work—the labor of Soviet scientists working in the name of love for mankind.

For only in the USSR is the transplantation of the cornea, like all Soviet medical treatment, completely without cost to the patient.

A Soviet Teacher

By A. Danilova

In 1939, Natalia Kotlyarova, a girl from the village of Balashikha, near Moscow, was graduated from the Moscow Pedagogical Institute. Filled with enthusiasm and self-confidence, she began to devote herself to the work she loved—the teaching and rearing of Soviet children. Today, Natalia Evgenievna Kotlyarova is teaching the Russian language and literature in School No. 310 in Moscow. She is loved and appreciated by the students and the other teachers, and she enjoys great authority and respect.

Besides giving her pupils—all boys in their middle teens—a thorough knowledge of her subjects, Natalia Evgenievna strives to mold them into highly cultured young Soviet citizens with an all-round development. She nurtures a love for art in her pupils, frequently accompanying them to museums and exhibitions, acquainting them with works of the fine and the applied arts. She conducts a lively literary circle in which the students enthusiastically discuss new books by Soviet writers and give reports on the works of Russian and world classics. The activity of this circle considerably enriches the knowledge of the pupils and widens their world outlook. The circle has presented scenes from the classic drama on the school stage—scenes, for example, from Fonvisin's comedy *The Nincompoop,* and Shakespeare's *King Lear.* Natalia Kotlyarova gives much time and effort to these performances.

She devotes particular attention to the guidance of her students' work and conduct. And the influence of this experienced teacher produces positive results. Natalia Kotlyarova often visits the parents of her students and discusses the school work with them. A knowledge of her pupils' home environment helps her to know them better.

A VISIT. Natalia Kotlyarova visits a pupil, Vladimir Frolov, and his mother.

Natalia Kotlyarova does other socially useful work as well—she regularly gives lectures on literature at vocational schools, factories and institutions in her district; to audiences which always enjoy and appreciate her talks.

In addition to all this, Natalia Kotlyarova constantly adds to her own knowledge. Often she may be found in the reading hall of the Lenin Library, where there is the finest collection of literature in the country, in all branches of knowledge. Deeply interested in philosophy and the social sciences, Natalia Kotlyarova is also an evening student at a Moscow University of Marxism-Leninism, and will finish her first course this year. She knows German well and is now studying English. She loves music and the theater, frequently attending performances at the Bolshoi Theater, the Moscow Art Theater and other theaters of the capital; she often attends concerts at Tchaikovsky Hall and at the Conservatory.

With all of this interesting and creative work, Natalia Kotlyarova still gives a great deal of time to her son, Vova, who is in the fifth year at school. On Sundays she takes Vova to their cottage in the country. Occasionally they go to the park or the water-sports station on the Moscow River.

Not long ago Natalia Evgenievna sent her son for the summer to a children's camp near Moscow. She will join him for part of the summer at camp, where she will direct the recreational activities of the children.

A woman who loves her work and considers the education of young Soviet citizens one of the most important and noble professions, Natalia Kotlyarova is typical of the hundreds of thousands of Soviet teachers who are profoundly convinced that a teacher's work must not end when he leaves the classroom—teachers who are throwing themselves passionately into the work of forming Soviet young people for a life that will be full and rich, who are working zealously at the task of preparing Soviet young people for the day when they will begin to make immeasurable contributions to the welfare of the Soviet people.

HOLIDAY. Natalia Kotlyarova and her son.

SHOWING GRANDMA. Vova, the teacher's son, shows his grandmother what he has learned.

AT THE LIBRARY. The Soviet teacher continues her studies.

IN A MUSEUM. With a group of students.

Civil Aviation

(*Continued from page 466*)

tion of air traffic in the Far East and the Far North. Transport planes make regular trips from Khabarovsk to Okhotsk, Anadyr, Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk, from Yakutsk to Tiksi Bay, etc.

The new air lines help in the study of the natural wealth of the Far East and the Arctic regions and in their exploitation for the benefit of the people.

Due to its splendid craft and excellent personnel, Soviet aviation has been registering steadfast progress. Now, in the course of one day, Soviet planes carry passengers and freight from Moscow to Khabarovsk. This is the country's longest air route, which stretches almost six thousand miles.

Soviet civil aviation also aids in the consolidation of economic and cultural ties with foreign countries. The USSR has signed agreements with other countries concerning the establishment of aerial communications, in full conformity with the general principles of the Soviet peace-loving foreign policy, agreements founded on strict observance of the equality of the signatories and mutual respect for their sovereign rights. Soviet civil planes fly regularly to Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Albania, Romania, Bulgaria, Austria, Sweden, Afghanistan, China and the Mongolian People's Republic.

Transport aviation is only one part of Soviet civil aviation. For example, planes maintain fire patrol service over forests; render aid to caravans crossing deserts; act as scouts for fishing vessels; and take part in geological prospecting and other expeditions.

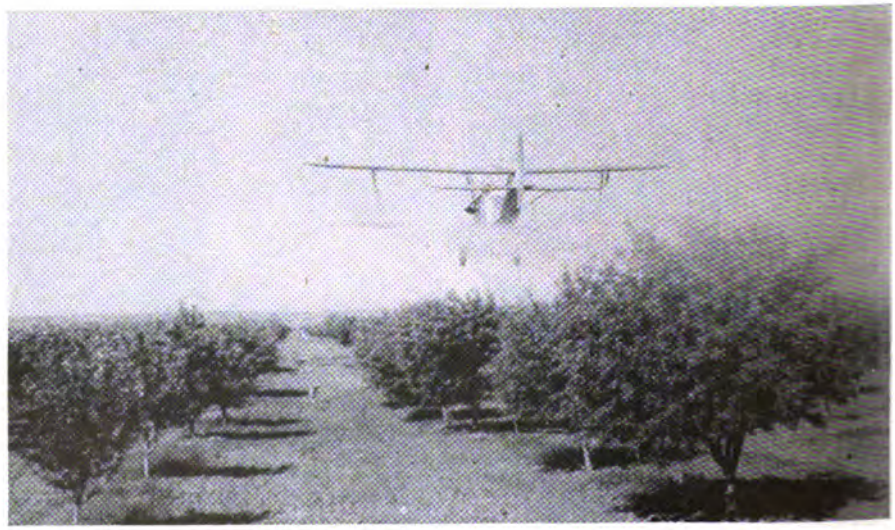
Aviation is also extensively used in the country's health services. In case of emergency, ambulance planes carry physicians as well as medicines to remote points and also transport patients from distant areas to medical institutions in towns—all at the expense of the State. Planes also play a major part in the destruction of malaria hotbeds.

Civil aviation also renders inestimable aid to farmers. Planes carry seed, spare parts for tractors and other agricultural equipment and are employed to combat pests and spread fertilizer.

Equipped with the most up-to-date machines of Soviet make, Soviet civil aviation is expanding the range and scope of its activities from year to year.

FREIGHT PLANE. In the vast Soviet Union, much freight is carried by air.

AMBULANCE PLANE. All remote areas have such planes. The building is a hospital in Oirot-Tura.



IN AGRICULTURE. The huge collective farms use planes to dust the crops with insecticide.

A Novel of Working People

By Anatoli Tarasenkov

At the end of last year, Vera Panova's novel, *Kruzhilikha,* appeared for the first time in *Znamya* (*The Banner*) magazine, and aroused keen discussion at the Writers' Club, and in the *Moscow Literary Gazette,* the *Novy Mir* (*New World*) and *Oktyabr* (*October*) magazines. Some prominent Soviet critics—V. Hoffenscheffer, A. Ivich, N. Kalitin, L. Subotsky and others, adopted a severely critical position in respect to this author's new novel. They considered her idea-conception vague and declared that it was difficult to ascertain which of her characters she regarded with approval and which with disapproval.

The discussion of the novel spread from literary circles to the factories, mills, mines, and farms, where Soviet workers, farmers and engineers discussed it heatedly.

The novel's defenders, with whom the writer of this article aligns himself, view *Kruzhilikha* from a standpoint different from that of some of the critics. They discern in *Kruzhilikha* the author's living, creative consideration of the problems of today. They believe that in this context she has drawn a realistic portrait of a ranking official, the director of a Soviet plant. Temperamental, impulsive and abrupt, this man, Listopad, throws himself heart and soul into his work because the interests of his country require it. He is wholly engrossed in the turmoil of work, the creative impulse, the search for the new and daring. Under his leadership the plant fulfills and overfulfills its program for the production of the deathdealing metal that the Soviet Army needs in order to destroy Hitler's troops on German soil. Then the plant is converted to peacetime production. The strength of Panova's characterization of Listopad lies in her able and engrossing method of revealing the source of his irrepressible energy.

His love affair with the young designer, Nonna, has a happy ending, and as they drive along the highway through the darkness and the blizzard, he muses:

"I believe simply and straightforwardly in my purpose, in your purpose,

VERA PANOVA

in the purpose of my people and my State. Some want my faith to have a scientific basis. Well, that's sound enough, of course. My faith has a basis, but it has not become any the less simple and straightforward because of it, it hasn't ceased to be a faith of the heart, it hasn't become a faith only of the brain—it is sincerely soulful, this faith of mine! And I confess it in plain language, not in scientific terminology. The soldier went into battle shouting 'For Country and for Stalin!' whether he had this scientific understanding or not. And my mottoes in life are plain and ordinary, too, though I know historical materialism and other learned subjects. . . . Nonnushka, take me as I am, frank and open! You and I will build machinery, fill this dry riverbed here, lay out a park there—my dear! We'll build people's happiness, as it's called so simply, Nonnushka."

The essence of Listopad as an active man and as an organizer of a young new Communist type is contained in these musings; for Listopad there can be no divergence between the personal and the social. His love for his countrymen, his love for his work, and his love for Nonna are organically and naturally intertwined in him. Listopad is by no means simple, however; his is a complex psychology and the author does not hesitate to point to the contradictions and the angularities of his character and temperament.

A totally different range of tones is employed for the portrait of the old non-Party engineer and head designer, Vladimir Ippolitovich. The social qualities of a Soviet patriot clash with the working habits of a lifetime. His attitude toward his subordinates is that of an overbearing master—he cannot tolerate objection or contradiction. He stands over the people, as it were, giving them orders from the "height" of his position as an engineer. These traits are sharply and truthfully indicated by Panova. And her tale thus becomes more convincing for the reader, who will undoubtedly understand and like him, with all his faults, as a man who, though reared under the conditions of the tsarist society, is devoting all his powers to the new socialist State.

Vera Panova's novel is strong because it forcefully shows that work, creative activity, is the wellspring of the life of the Soviet people. Panova obviously dislikes those who fail to find their chief happiness in labor and creation. Every page is stamped with the author's high moral demands upon the characters she creates. She sees their shortcomings and does not forgive them. Nevertheless, she is warmly and passionately attached to her characters; but this love never descends to unction and tinsel, to maudlinism.

Gorky once said that the leading theme of European and Russian literature in the nineteeth century was that of the personality in conflict with society, with the state and with nature. The drama of the man who felt cramped in the world, who felt out of place in contemporary society, dominates pre-Revolutionary literature. But Gorky placed a new and gigantic historical task before the Soviet writer.

"The leading character chosen for our books should be labor, that is, man organized by the processes of labor. We should learn to understand labor as creation."

"The labor and creative energy of the country," in Gorky's opinion,

should be the leading theme of Soviet writers.

It seems to me that in *Kruzhilikha,* Vera Panova has made a very serious attempt to cope with this task. Attention is centered on working people. There is the Stakhanovite Lida, who went to the plant from school and soon became a highly qualified worker. There is Listopad, organizer and director. There are the demobolized soldier and worker, Lukashin; the designer, Nonna; the trade school boy, Tolya; the head designer, Vladimir Ippolitovich; the typist, Anna Ivanovna; old Vedeneyev; Nastasia, and her husband, Oleksi. All these people are united by the moral and political unity of Soviet society. And the novel successfully attempts to portray this unity in labor and politics—a unity aiming first at victory over the Nazi enemy, and later at the increased prosperity of the country.

As a writer, Vera Panova belongs to a school alien to the use of hyperbole, exaggerated situations and stark publicist writing. She does not follow Shakespeare and Gogol, but rather Chekhov, with his close attention to the ordinary personality, his detailed analysis of the daily life and the spiritual world of the more ordinary, rather than the extraordinary, man. Chekhov's creative experience is her starting point. And the things which he could not tolerate—the high-sounding phrase, calculated for effect; artificially-created tension—are equally disliked by Panova. But the radical difference between Chekhov and this Soviet writer is that the ordinary people she portrays are not small and insignificant. They are, in the full sense, masters of the land of socialism.

Nowhere in her novel does the author depart from realism; her characterizations are exact and penetrating, convincing and truthful—not only in their scrupulous faithfulness to life, but in their revelation of that higher political purposefulness which affirms the beauty and nobility of the Soviet character.

At the beginning of this article we mentioned the keen and fruitful discussion that arose around *Kruzhilikha* in the Soviet press and among readers. The results of this discussion have been summed up in the awarding of the Stalin Prize to the author. This is another proof of the high appreciation of the Soviet people for an author's honest and painstaking work, for an author's attempt to show something more than the merely pleasant and presentable side of life, for a Soviet author's portrayal of real life, with all its contradictions of growth and development.

The recent award is Vera Panova's second Stalin Prize in two years. Last year, her novel, *Companions,* also won a prize. It was the story of the personnel of a hospital train during the war, and reflected the attitudes and aspirations of ordinary Soviet people during war, as *Kruzhilikha* reflects them in times of peace.

My Will to Live

By Alexei Maresyev
Hero of the Soviet Union

Excerpts from B. Polevoi's novel, "The Tale of a Real Man," appeared in the two preceding issues of the USSR Information Bulletin. Following is the real-life story on which that novel is based.

In April, 1942, in air combat over an enemy airfield, my plane was shot down. Seriously wounded, both feet crushed, I landed in a densely-wooded area behind enemy lines. Then for 18 days I crawled eastward toward our troops. I lived on berries that I picked from beneath the snow; once I came upon an ant heap and made a meal of ants. But hunger and gangrene finally weakened me so that I could no longer even crawl.

On the nineteenth day I was rescued by peasants from a Soviet village that had been burned by the Germans. The peasants' tender care and plentiful food saved me. And when I had recuperated enough to be moved, a plane was sent from my unit and I was taken to a hospital.

The doctors examined me and found that if I were to live, both feet had to be amputated.

My whole life seemed ruined then. It seemed quite clear that I could no longer be a flier. And it was a flier that I had dreamed of being since childhood. I had learned to fly, and in the first days of the war I had entered into active service at the front. When my plane was shot down I had four enemy planes to my credit.

But I had not been reared in the spirit of surrender. I was told that no one without feet had ever piloted a plane. But many things have happened that nobody dreamed could happen. And I determined to try.

I began a tedious and difficult struggle. At first it was very hard to get used to artificial limbs. But finally I learned to walk so well that it was hard to tell that I had artificial limbs. Then I decided to learn dancing; after a while I became one of the best dancers in my sanatorium. This made such an impression on the doctors that they agreed to recommend that I be allowed to fly.

A year later I received my assignment to a fighting squadron; with this unit I fought from 1943 through 1945. I fought over Orel—there I brought down three enemy planes and was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. At the Baltic front I shot down another enemy plane.

During the campaign over Orel, I met the war correspondent Boris Polevoi. We talked a great deal and it was my history upon which he based his novel, *The Story of a Real Man.* That book, however, is not about myself alone; it is primarily the story of an entire generation of our Soviet youth.

After the war I was demobilized and now I am working as a teacher.

I have also achieved a personal happiness—I married, and my wife and I have a lovely little son, Vitya. After work, I continue my studies. I intend to enter the Academy of Social Sciences this year.

To whom do I owe this steeling of will, this perseverance which helped me surmount all my trials and attain my goal?

I owe it to the Young Communist League and the Communist Party, which taught me the spirit of love and devotion to my country, which developed in me a deep sense of duty.

Notes on Soviet Life

THE Learned Council of the Ministry of Health of the Byelorussian Republic has collected some interesting data on the longevity of the people of this Republic. It has been found that in seven regions there are more than six hundred people who have reached the age of one hundred, and 16 who have reached the age of 110. Pelageya Makarevich, a collective farm woman living in the Komarinsk District of Polessye was born in 1831, and Maria Shanko, of that District, is about the same age. Mark Okunets, a collective farmer of the Zhitkovichsky District, recently celebrated his 118th birthday. The oldest inhabitant of Byelorussia is Maria Kuzmich of the village of Ostroshchina in the Polotsk Region. She was born in 1812, the year of the routing of Napoleon's armies in Russia. She has never known illness in her 136 years and enjoys very satisfactory health to this day.

★

A miners' club has been built at Slantsy, in the Leningrad Region. Situated in a pleasant garden, it is the largest and finest building in the town and has an auditorium, a library, reading room, lounge, and special rooms for amateur artistic activities.

★

The Kirov iron and steel works in Makeyevka in the Donbas were razed to the ground by the German invaders. Great efforts, considerable funds and much time were required to rebuild them. Upon completion of the rehabilitation of an open-hearth furnace in shop No. 2, shop No. 1 is now being rebuilt. The first open-hearth furnace of this shop (which before the war had seven large furnaces) now has started producing steel.

The number of restored open-hearth furnaces in the Red October iron and steel works in Stalingrad has also increased. An open-hearth furnace, recently put into operation, has produced its first fast melts and has considerably exceeded its plan.

These rehabilitated furnaces are some of 165 which are scheduled to be restored and put into operation in accordance with the postwar Five-Year Plan.

Demobilized men of the Soviet Army and the families of men who died at the front, are acquiring their own homes, with the aid of the State. In the district centers of Kiev Region, nine thousand privately owned houses for war veterans and the families of men who died in the war, were built last year.

At the present time, the building of these houses is proceeding on an even wider scale in Kiev Region. More than one thousand war veterans and families of fallen soldiers have received long-term loans and have started building their cottages.

★

One hundred eighty thousand young people will enter Soviet colleges this year. One thousand, seven hundred and fifty new students are to be enrolled at the Lomonosov State University, Moscow—the oldest in the country. One thousand four hundred students who have just finished secondary school will become students at the Leningrad State University.

★

Forty-five thousand women are chairmen of the trade union committees in Soviet factories and institutions, and 251 thousand women are members of factory and local trade union committees. All of them were elected by trade union memberships to hold office during the current year.

All Soviet workers and office employees enjoy annual vacations with full pay. Many of them choose to spend their vacations on the country's riverways, especially on the Volga. When navigation opened on the Volga this spring, luxurious steamers, floating sanatoriums and rest homes began regular cruises on the river. These vessels belong to the Ministry of Inland Water Transport of the USSR, and are chartered by various trade unions which provide their members with accommodations in the floating sanatoriums either entirely free of charge or at a 70 per cent discount.

One such floating sanatorium, the steamer *Gorky*, is being used this season by the inland water transport workers. This steamer recently sailed from the port of Moscow on its first cruise with 170 vacationists on board, who, during the cruise, will go through a regular course of medical treatment and have a good rest. The steamer has on board highly qualified physicians and all facilities necessary to provide any medical treatment that may be required. It has a motion picture theater, many spacious lounges, a library, a reading room, equipment for various games, musical instruments, shower baths, a hairdressing salon, post office, etc.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

August 16-August 29

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from August 16 to August 29 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday, August 16, 17, 19, 23, 27—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays, August 18, 25—Scientific and cultural programs.

Friday, August 20—Program for farmers.

Tuesday, August 24—Trade unions.

Thursday, August 26—Program for youth.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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AUGUST 25, 1948

RESTORING LENINGRAD. Work being completed on the figures decorating the Pavilion of Three Graces. FRONT COVER. Maxim Kotelnikov, railway engineer who holds the Order of Lenin. BACK COVER. A Soviet farm girl harvesting vegetables.

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By I. Osipov

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

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RAILWAY YARD. Engines of the Sergo Ordjonikidze type leaving the factory yards for service. They are built at the Krasnoyarsk locomotive works, a factory built during the Second World War.

A Festival Honoring Railway Workers

From articles by L. Volgin* and V. Leonidov
** Director of Traffic*

Not long after the sun began to slant above the green and spacious Gorky Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow on August 1, men and women appeared on its broad paths and avenues. By midmorning they had multiplied into huge throngs. It was not difficult to ascertain the reason—a large number were wearing dark blue uniforms with silver-gilded shoulder straps that gleamed and sparkled in the sun: the uniform of Soviet railway workers. Everywhere there hung giant portraits of men and women who are known in every corner of the Soviet Union—workers, engineers and technicians: railway men and women who have made signal contributions to the successes of railway transportation. And dozens of huge, slogan-bearing banners describing the achievements of Soviet railway workers stretched overhead along the Park's avenues.

It was plain to see that the people of the Soviet capital were assembling in Gorky Park to celebrate a traditional holiday.

It was Railway Day in the Soviet Union.

On July 30, 1935, in the Grand Kremlin Palace, Joseph Stalin and the leaders of the Soviet State received a large group of leading railway men and women—top officials of the Ministry of Railways, railway chiefs and foremen, and distinguished rank-and-file workers who had initiated new and more efficient methods of work. To this gathering Stalin declared that the USSR could not function as a state without a first-class railway transportation system to connect its far-flung regions and weld them into an integral unit.

At this meeting Railway Day was born; since then it has been celebrated annually on the first Sunday of August.

The USSR may be justly called a great railway power. The tremendous distances which are traversed by railways in the Soviet Union cannot be rivaled by those of any other country. The Moscow-Vladivostok express, for instance, covers nine thousand kilometers* in one trip. Moreover, Soviet railways carry more than four-fifths of the total freight shipments of the country. Soviet railways consume nearly one-third of the fuel and one-fifth of the metal and timber that are produced in the Soviet Union. Every tenth Soviet worker works in railway transportation.

In pre-Revolutionary days, railway transportation—like all tsarist industry—was backward and underdevel-

* One kilometer = .621 of a mile.

oped; in length of track, in metric tons of loadings, and in amount and mode of equipment, old Russia straggled far behind the developed countries of the West. Beginning with the prewar Five-Year Plans, however, the Soviet people began a thorough technical re-equipment and development of Soviet railways. Soviet industry equipped the railway industry with thousands of powerful locomotives of the latest Soviet models, including many electric and diesel engines. The railway industry was provided with hundreds of thousands of freight cars, including a large number of large four-axle cars, gondolas, hoppers and dump cars. Automatic brakes and automatic coupling became the predominant equipment of the rolling stock. In addition to locomotive and car-repair works, Soviet railway transport received, during the prewar Five-Year Plan periods, hundreds of car-repair shops, scores of repair shops on the lines, powerful mechanized marshaling yards, and many new depots and shops. Tens of thousands of kilometers of new trunk lines and parallel lines were built. Automatic block signaling, reinforcement of tracks, mechanization of storaging, loading and unloading, and extensive electrification of the railways all became an integral part of Soviet railway transportation in prewar years.

This solid technical base, together with the increasing numbers of highly skilled specialists capable of making rational use of the new equipment, ensured a rapid growth of the freight turnover on the railways. On the eve of the Second World War, in 1940, Soviet railway transport handled freight totaling more than six times the freight turnover of 1913—the eve of the First World War.

And during the war against Hitler Germany, the technical power of Soviet transport and the self-sacrificing labor of its workers ensured reliable communications between the front and rear areas. During the war's initial stages, Soviet railway men and women transported 1,500,000 carloads of industrial equipment and factory workers who were being transferred from the districts menaced by the enemy, to the interior of the country. More than 19 million carloads of military supplies were transported by the railways during the war.

Now, restoration of the Soviet railways wrecked by the enemy is proceeding at an exceptionally rapid pace. By the end of the war the railway workers had already restored and put into commission 50 thousand kilometers of railways in the USSR and about 30 thousand kilometers in the countries of Eastern Europe which were liberated by the Soviet Army. The huge railway bridge across the Dnieper, near Kiev, more than a kilometer long, was restored in 13 days under uninterrupted enemy air raids —an average of 81 meters* a day!

The postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan calls for the building of 4,500 miles of new railways—including the two thousand miles of the South Siberian railway; the laying of 7,300 miles of second tracks; and the electrification of 3,300 miles of railways. Railway construction is chiefly centered in the Urals, Siberia and the Donbas, where industry is rapidly developing and loadings are increasing proportionately.

During the first half of the postwar Five-Year Plan, all railways wrecked by the Nazis have been restored. Restoration of double tracking has been completed on the Moscow-Leningrad line, throughout the Moscow-Kharkov-Rostov-Northern Caucasus line and on other sectors of Soviet railways. The railways of the Donets coal basin will be brought up to prewar standards this year. And all the bridges over the Dnieper, Don, Dvina, Bug, Volkhov and Dniester have undergone capital repairs.

Construction of new railways is under way on a large scale. Work is in full swing on the new South Siberian Railway, on the new Charjou-Kungrad line which will pass through the Kara-Kum Desert, and on the Mointy-Chu line connecting the northern and southern districts of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic. Trains are already running along the Sosva-Alapaevsk line in the Urals, the Bystrovka-Rybache line in the Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic, and along other new railways.

Electrification of the railways has attained unprecedented scope. The longest electric railway in the world —the Novosibirsk-Omsk-Chelyabinsk-Ufa line (2,350 kilometers long) will be put into commission by the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan. Electric engines are already in use on small sectors of this line—for example, the Chelyabinsk-Zlatoust-Berdiaush sector. New electric railways are also functioning near Moscow, in the Northern Caucasus and in Transcaucasia. While during each prewar year an average of two hundred kilometers of railway lines was electrified, the average since the war has been stepped up to one thousand kilometers per year.

STUDYING. I. Golub of the Kirov Railroad is a Hero of Socialist Labor, but he is nevertheless studying to improve his skill. He attends the Central Technical Courses for railway men.

* One meter=1.093 yards.

Other important factors which are determining the progress of Soviet transport are the introduction of new Soviet models of locomotives and diesel engines, new and highly efficient railway construction-and-loading machinery, and improved maintenance methods.

A most decisive factor determining progress in Soviet transport is the country-wide socialist competition among Soviet railway workers which is daily resulting in the breaking of production records and the introduction of more efficient work-methods.

The result of all this is a constantly rising freight turnover—in 1950 the freight turnover is expected to have increased to eight times the 1913 volume.

Also of decisive importance in the raising of production is the degree of mechanization. And on the Soviet railways mechanization and industrial methods are applied in building new lines and in servicing depots. Building-yards which produce standard structures, blocks and parts are being constructed wherever tracks are being laid. And this year, the preparation of railway roadbeds has been mechanized 70 per cent, manufacture of road metal 92 per cent, and, the laying of tracks 70 per cent. This mechanization greatly lightens the labor of the workers and accelerates the pace of building and restoration.

Other basic factors in the recovery and development of Soviet railways are the material and cultural conditions of the Soviet railway workers. Inevitably, the general technical progress and growing labor productivity of Soviet railways have led to a rise in the living and cultural standards of the railway workers. Wages have risen sharply; large-scale housing construction for railway workers is proceeding. About 1,500,000 square meters* of new housing space were made available to Soviet railway personnel during the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan period. As an example, more than three thousand families of locomotive drivers recently moved into houses which were especially built for them. These comfortable cottages are being sold by the Soviet State to railway workers on the basis of payment of small installments over a period of ten years. Housing construction for the railway workers is expanding even more in the current year.

* One square meter=10.764 square feet.

RAILWAY INSTITUTE. Galina Kokoreva studies transport design at the Leningrad Institute of Railway Transport.

Cultural services for Soviet railway workers include Palaces of Culture, and clubs situated at large junctions as well as at small stations, train clubs, touring theater troupes, etc. A vast network of schools, libraries, medical institutions and trading establishments cater to the railway workers. These institutions are part of the transport system; this makes it possible for them to give the best possible service to the railway workers and their families.

IN THIS third and decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan for the reconstruction and development of the Soviet land, Railway Day, to Soviet railway workers, was not merely a day of celebration, but a day of rededication.

Early in the year, the Soviet railway workers had written to Stalin and pledged to fulfill their 1948 production plan ahead of schedule. They are determined to complete this year's plan by November 7, the 31st Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. And in a letter addressed to Stalin—a letter published on Railway Day in newspapers throughout the country—they declared they would undertake to reach the level of loading which had been set for 1950—the last year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—in the third quarter of 1949.

Gorky Park was festive on this first Sunday of August, but one knew that these splendid men and women in blue railway uniforms were not idly, emptily celebrating a holiday. It was obvious that they were here with full pride in their profession and knowledge of what they had done to build socialism, here with full awareness of the truth of Stalin's characterization of their important role.

A large exhibition in Gorky Park, organized by the Central House of Railway Engineering, afforded convincing evidence of the tremendous advances Soviet railway workers have already achieved in their industry in the postwar years.

Open air concerts were to be heard in the park, performed by numerous amateur ensembles of railway workers.

In the evening, there was a large meeting sponsored by the Moscow City Soviet of Working People's Deputies and the Moscow City Committee of the Communist Party, held in honor of the holiday in Gorky Park's Green Theater, which seats more than 20 thousand. It was filled to overflowing.

Railway Day was not celebrated in Moscow alone. Meetings and festivities took place simultaneously in Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi, Minsk, and countless other towns, workers' settlements and railway junctions throughout the Soviet Union in celebration of the day that belongs to the men and women who man the country's arteries, the day that belongs to the men and women of the railway industry—who have pledged to do everything in their power to build the land of peace and prosperity, their land of socialism.

A Railway Man's Day

VASSILI IVANOVICH VINOGRADOV is the engineer of the *Red Arrow*—the famous Moscow-Leningrad night express. And he lives a very full life.

On workdays, after a bath and breakfast in his Moscow apartment, he dresses and walks four blocks to the stationmaster's office to see if any orders have come in from the All-Union Ministry of Railways. One recent morning he stopped by the office and discovered that the Ministry had awarded him and his crew—consisting of an assistant engineer and fireman—a handsome bonus for having taken exceptionally good care of their locomotive. Vinogradov hardly needed the bonus; his monthly salary is in the neighborhood of four thousand rubles. But he was pleased to be reminded that "up there in the Ministry they keep track of what we're doing."

An engineer since 1918, Vinogradov has organized many young railway workers into the Vinogradov School—a school with regular classes on the care and operation of locomotives.

At five P. M. Vassili Ivanovich is in the yards, giving his locomotive the final check; and at 10:30 P. M. the Red Arrow is pulling out of Moscow on its way to the banks of the Neva.

Usually about this time, Vinogradov recalls the early winter of 1941 when, as a volunteer, he drove an armored train to the front—only 32 kilometers from Moscow. After the Nazis were driven away from the capital's gates, he continued to drive freight trains loaded with tanks and artillery and shells to the front. For this unselfish and often dangerous work on behalf of his country, the title of Hero of Socialist Labor was conferred upon him in 1943.

He has other duties as well. The people elected him a deputy to the Moscow Regional Soviet, whose meetings, of course, he must attend. And the people elected him—with other working men and women—to serve as a People's Assessor, in effect an associate judge, on the bench of the Supreme Court of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

Yes, this locomotive engineer lives a rich life. But in the land of socialism, few people think his life remarkable.

MORNING. Vinogradov's wife bakes a coffee cake for breakfast while he checks by phone with his crew.

IN THE ENGINE. Vinogradov stops in the yards to look over the engine he will pilot to Leningrad. He and his crew recently received a bonus for exceptional maintenance of their locomotive.

GETTING READY. Vinogradov supervises his crew members as they service the locomotive. Everything must be in perfect order for the run.

"JURY DUTY." He hears a case in his capacity as an elected People's Assessor. He and his fellow-assessor have votes equal to that of the judge.

TAKING A STROLL. His wife meets him to walk home from court.

DINNER. Friends join them at the meal. After dinner, Vinogradov will go on duty, taking his crack train to Leningrad.

Six Months' Economic Gains

By O. Borisov
Economist

THE first half of 1948—the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—was marked by major economic progress in the Soviet Union. The targets set by the Five-Year Plan are not only being met but are being substantially exceeded: this fact provides ample grounds for the expectation that the major provisions of the Plan will be completed ahead of schedule.

Despite the fact that the Five-Year Plan calls for an increase in output every year, the program is being fulfilled more and more successfully. In 1946, the industrial output program was fulfilled to the extent of 96 per cent, in 1947, 103 per cent and in the first half of the current year, 105 per cent. At the beginning of the current Five-Year Plan there were many Ministries which failed to meet their production assignments; in the second quarter of 1948, however, according to the report of the State Planning Commission of the USSR, which was released on July 18, all Ministries except one (that of the Fish Industry of the Eastern Areas) exceeded their production programs.

The outstanding feature in the performance of industry in 1948 is the growing rate of increase in production. This process began in 1947 and is gaining momentum. The following data demonstrate that fact:

	Industrial output (in per cent of corresponding period of preceding year)	
	1947	*1948*
Total Output		
First Quarter	112	132
Second Quarter	118	124
Pig Iron Production		
First Quarter	110	136
Second Quarter	112	118
Coal Output		
First Quarter	104	120
Second Quarter	111	113

The increase in output in the first and second quarters of 1948 was greater than the increase in output during the respective periods of 1947, despite the fact that 1947 was a year of great increase in industrial output. The total output of all industry in 1947 was 22 per cent above that of 1946; this rate of increase was higher than the average annual rate of increase in the prewar years. The rate of increase for the years 1938-1940 was 13 per cent. The current year is expected to register an increase greater than the increase in 1947. The increase this year in the production of coal, metal, machines, building materials, consumer goods and foodstuffs will undoubtedly be the greatest in the history of the USSR.

Because of this swift advance, one industry after another is regaining and exceeding the prewar level of output. The output of coal and electric power, the production of important machines and the production of many metals is now substantially above the prewar level. In the current year, output of all industry will exceed the prewar level. It is appropriate to recall here that all branches of industry sustained

THE REASON. Increased labor productivity is the prime factor accounting for the economic progress. Anastasia Chitayeva and Nikolai Korshunov, Moscow fitters, have exceeded work quotas by one to two hundred percent.

tremendous damage during the war, and the major coal and metal center in the south was reduced to ruins by the Germans. The efforts of millions of Soviet people have raised hundreds of mammoth factories and mills from the ashes: this accounts for the recovery of Soviet industry.

What are the reasons for the accelerated pace of industrial development in 1948? The primary reason is the substantial rise in labor productivity. In 1947, output per worker in industry increased by 13 per cent; in the first quarter of 1948, by 21 per cent; and in the second quarter, by 14 per cent. The abolition of rationing and the monetary reform effected at the end of 1947 helped tremendously in raising labor productivity. To a great degree these measures have stimulated the personal interest of all workers in greater output. Moreover, the labor of the workers became more productive because of the installation of the latest machinery and the consequent greater degree of mechanization.

The second reason for the upswing in industrial production was the increase in the number of factory and office workers.

Thirdly, many restored and new plants were commissioned. During the period of 1946-47, 1,900 enterprises began operations. In 1948 the launching of new plants has assumed even greater scope.

The increase in the output of machinery and of iron and steel has been particularly great.

The production of machinery in the first half of 1948 has grown greatly as compared with the production of machinery during the war years. Even a comparison with the first two postwar years indicates tremendous progress. A case in point is the manufacture of tractors. In the second quarter of 1948, four times as many tractors were produced as were produced in the corresponding quarter of 1946; the production of trucks rose by 76 per cent; the output of metallurgical equipment rose three hundred per cent during this period, and the production of looms, 1200 per cent, etc. With the production of machinery mounting sharply, many branches of the national economy are now better equipped technically than they were before the war.

Soviet industry is successfully mastering the production of many new types of machinery. Specialists and workers are justifiably proud of what they have done and they are working hard to complete the Five-Year Plan for industrial output ahead of schedule.

THE RESULT. Despite the war's devastation, consumer goods are now plentiful. A food store in Voronezh.

Agriculture suffered tremendous damage during the war. The severe drought of 1946 added to its difficulties. The Soviet State rendered great help to the collective farms; and the peasantry, inspired by the support of the entire country, is exerting great efforts. A successful crop was raised in 1947. The aftermath of the drought was eliminated. Agriculture is now firmly progressing. This year will see more advances. Many districts expect a crop better than that of last year; the Volga area, however, has again been affected by drought. In the current year the sown area increased by more than 11 million hectares* as compared with last year. This alone will give the country additional hundreds of millions of poods ** of grain and other produce. During the past two years the sown area has increased by approximately 19 million hectares.

The cultivation of the crops, and the preparations for the harvest proceeded better this year than last. The harvest is also proceeding better than last year. Thousands of collective farms are obtaining as much as three to four tons of grain per hectare.

One of the greatest achievements of the Soviet State in the current year is the swift rise in the living standard of the entire population. The foundation for this is the exceptionally swift recovery of agriculture, as well as the advance of light industry and the food industry.

As a result of the reduction of retail prices and the increase in monetary wages, the real wages of factory and office workers in the first quarter of 1948 were 51 per cent greater than in the corresponding period of 1947.

In the second quarter, another price reduction was effected in state trade (April 10); this led to an additional reduction in prices on the collective farm markets. Real wages of factory and office workers, as well as the incomes of collective farmers, are continually rising. This is reflected in the growing consumption of major commodities. The following increases in retail sales were registered in the second quarter of 1948 as compared with the same period of last year: bread, 50 per cent; confectionery products, 29 per cent; cotton goods, 38 per cent; silk fabrics, 34 per cent; leather footwear, 31 per cent; etc.

The Soviet national economy, planned and guided by the State, is confidently following the course charted by the postwar Five-Year Plan. The favorable results for the first half of 1948 predetermine the early fulfillment of this plan and a further advance of the economic power of the Soviet State.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres
** One pood = 36.113 pounds.

Harvest at a "Grain Factory"

In this year of bumper harvest, the Gigant (Giant) State Farm—sometimes called a "factory for grain" and the largest grain-producing farm in the USSR—is playing an important role. Located in Rostov Region, a few years ago this land was barren, its crops meagre. Under Soviet rule proper crop rotations were introduced; forest belts were grown to protect the crops from the wind; deep plowing, the harrowing of winter and spring sowings and the proper organization of seed nurseries were instituted; modern machinery was introduced. Now the earth is rich, the harvest bountiful: Soviet science and the Soviet worker have performed miracles.

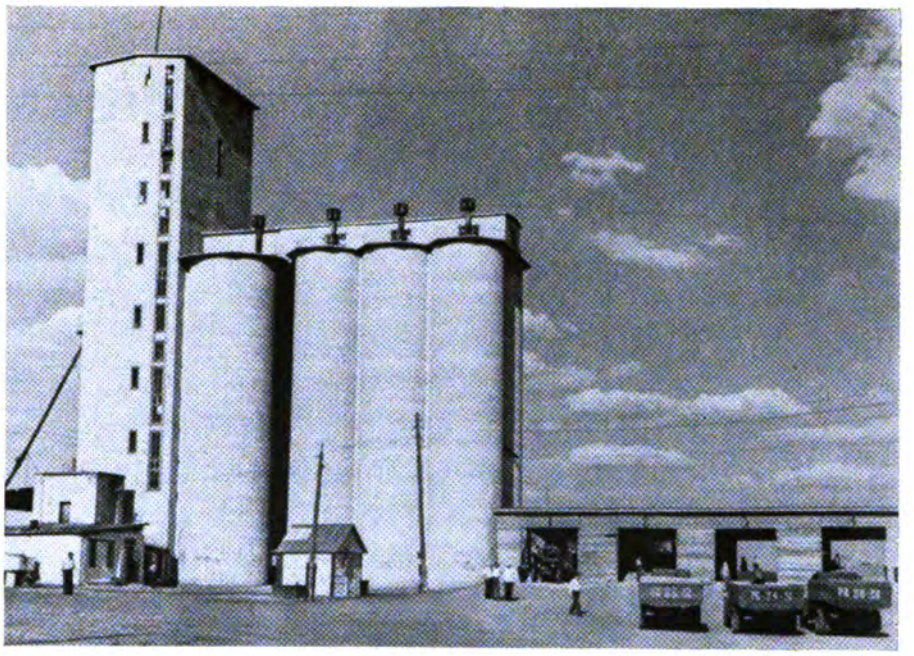
The Gigant State Farm has the most advanced type of agricultural machinery. It has, for example, 70 improved types of the *Stalinets-6* combine. These combines, which mow, thresh, and stack straw and hay, are distinguished for their high productivity—in the course of one week during this year's harvest, the Gigant's 70 combines harvested more than 34 thousand acres of winter wheat. On its premises the Gigant State Farm has an agricultural institute which trains highly qualified specialists; in the institute the students learn the theoretical knowledge that they later apply on the fields of the farm.

State farms form only a small percentage of the farm land in the USSR—most farm land is worked by collective farms. The state farm, in contradistinction to the collective farm—which belongs to the collective farmers who work it—is owned by the State. The state farm's products—grain and meat—belong to the State, the whole people. And those who work on state farms are considered workers, not peasants; they are paid in wages, as opposed to collective farmers, who own their farm as a co-operative enterprise. Furthemore, the state farm owns the housing which it rents to each worker unless he prefers to build his own home, at five per cent of his wage; collective farmers own their own dwellings.

IN THE FIELD. The farm engineer watches the operation of the combines.

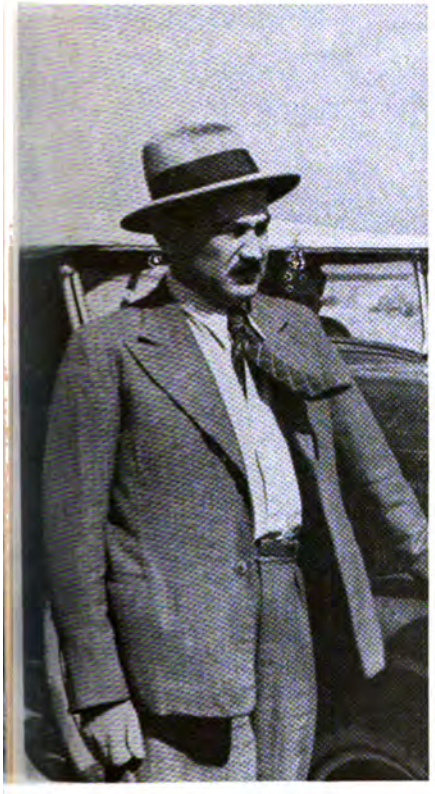
COMBINES AT WORK. The Gigant State Farm has 70 of the most modern combines, which mow, thresh, stack hay and straw. In one week of this year's harvesting they harvested 34 thousand acres of winter wheat.

HARVESTING. Gigant Farm workers reap the bumper crop.



GRAIN ELEVATOR. During the harvest grain is brought to the Farm's elevator day and night.

SCHOOLTIME. This is one of the buildings of the Farm's agricultural institute which trains qualified specialists.



DIRECTOR. Fyodor Bolko, the Farm's Director, inspects the harvest.

KINDERGARTEN. The children of the Gigant Farm workers are cared for while their parents are at work.

Socialist Competition in the USSR And the Stakhanov Movement

From an article by A. Potyemin and A. Shishkov

FIFTEEN years ago, a peasant lad, Illarion Yankin, hired in as a copper miner at a Urals mine. Strange to the work at first, he nevertheless learned rapidly, and soon had become famous in the area for organizing his work so that he could mine two and one-half times the daily normal quota of ore.

But Yankin was not satisfied, for he heard that in far-off Krivoi Rog a miner called Alexei Semivolos was mining twelve times the normal quota. Yankin laid off work, boarded a train for the Ukraine, and sought out Semivolos. And Semivolos welcomed the young Urals miner, so impatient and eager, and showed him all he knew. Yankin returned to his mine, applied Semivolos' methods, added some ingenious improvements of his own, and in a short time was outproducing the Ukrainian.* His earnings rose to an average of seven thousand rubles per month.

This incident, forerunner by a few years of the widespread Stakhanov movement, displays in a nutshell the essence of that movement and of the socialist competition movement in general.

The Stakhanov movement, which was born in 1935 on the initiative of a Donets coal miner, Alexei Stakhanov, who had surpassed all previous records for output of coal, drew thousands of skilled workers in every field into exhilarating competition—competition of a sort in which the leaders aid others to overtake their records, and in turn are aided by them. It is competition in which the ingenuity and inventive ability of working people, described by Lenin as the "hidden resources" of the workers which could appear fully only under socialism, have full play.

In what, then, is the Stakhanov movement rooted?

It has three main bases: the constant improvement of the workers' living standard as the country's economy expands; the absence in the USSR of the exploitation of man by man; and the improvement of technique, both by means of new machines and better factories and of increased skill among the workers. Let us consider these points in order:

1. Improvement in the living standard. The Soviet Union's planned economy knows no economic crises; no unemployment. The full talents and abilities of all workers can develop with unlimited opportunity and without fear of "working oneself out of a job," of working one's neighbor out of a job. Neither are skills hoarded for fear that the newly-skilled worker will take the job of the old hand. And as the economy develops, as the country becomes richer, the full benefits of this increased prosperity accrue to the working people. This expansion of the economy and consequent rise in the people's material welfare is primarily

* Yankin is now a mining engineer and Director of the Pyshmin Mines Administration in the Urals.

STAKHANOV. The great innovator (right) photographed in 1940 in his seat as a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

INVENTOR. Ivan Yurkovsky, assembler of hydraulic machinery, has invented many labor-saving devices.

the result of socialist competition and the Stakhanov movement.

This has been strikingly shown since the end of the Second World War. On the basis of the increasing economic power of the country, the Soviet Government, alone of the governments of Europe, found it possible to abolish rationing. Prices of food and manufactured goods have been reduced twice. Also, the currency was reformed. All of these measures brought a marked rise in wages and the incomes of collective farmers.

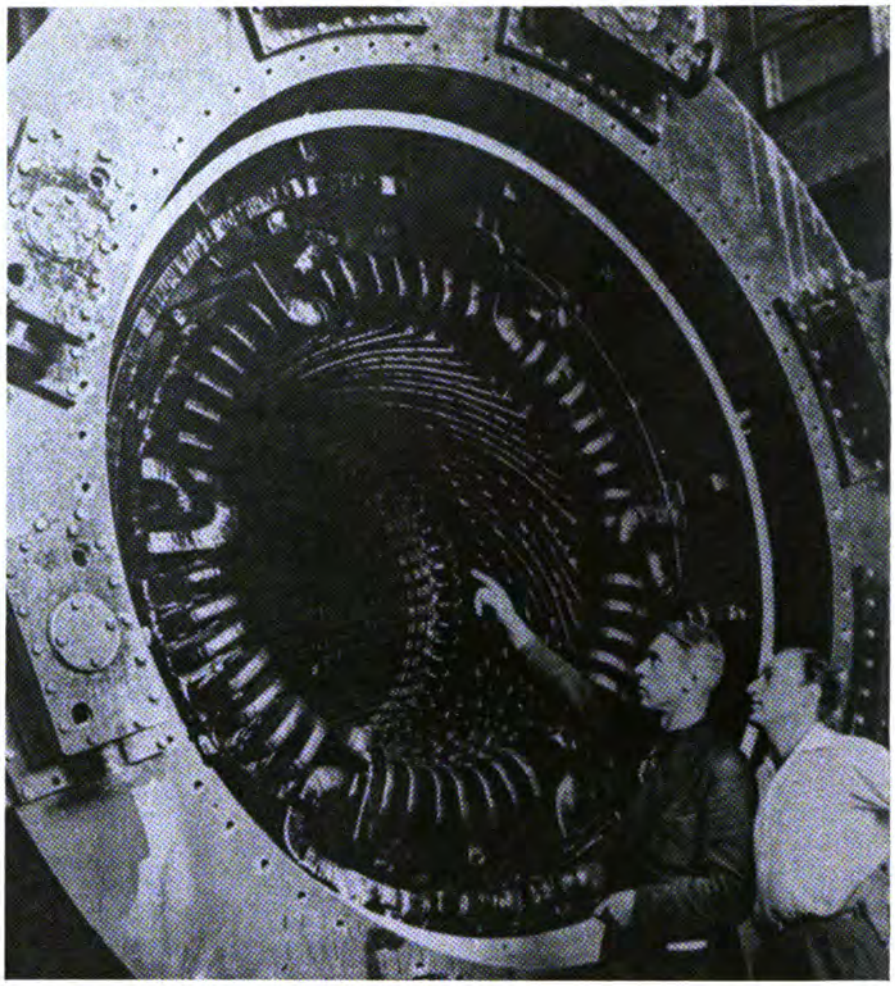
In the first three months of 1948, real wages in the USSR showed an increase of 51 per cent over real wages for the first quarter of 1947.

2. The absence of exploitation. This point is closely related to the foregoing one. The Soviet citizen is the owner of the country's resources, of its farms and factories. There are no private profits made by others from his work. Therefore, he knows that the riches his labor produces return to him, both in increased wages and in improved social facilities—schools, hospitals, free medical care, cheap and excellent vacation facilities, pensions, sick leave, special allowances, etc.—all of which are estimated at the present time to add approximately 38 per cent to the average money wage.

3. The improvement of technique. This is, of course, the principal means of securing increased production. And in this field, the members of the Stakhanov movement display great initiative. The mark of the Stakhanovite is a high degree of efficiency. While the constantly increasing mechanization of industry, and the improvement of the machines themselves, increase productivity as a whole, the Stakhanovites take the lead in going beyond this, in introducing labor-saving methods of work.

The Stakhanov movement is a powerful means of raising the technical and cultural level of the Soviet working class. The Stakhanov movement helps to bridge the division between mental and manual labor, for Stakhanovites are innovators, the most ingenious, most mentally alert representatives of the working class. They work in close co-operation with scientists and engineers.

An example is Nikolai Rossiisky, a head foreman at the Caliber precision-instrument plant in Moscow. His improvements in the technology of production resulted in his sector completing in September, 1947, the work which had been scheduled to be completed by the end of 1950—the final year of the current Five-Year Plan. His name is known throughout the USSR.



LENINGRAD. Workers of this northern city have instituted a movement to do five years' production in four. A turbogenerator made at the Electrosila works.

THE history of the Stakhanov movement is the history of the economic development of the USSR, for only the initiative and efforts of the working people in the factories and on the farms made this extraordinarily rapid development possible.

As in the case of Yankin, mentioned at the beginning of this article, this initiative showed itself even before the Stakhanov movement crystallized as such.

An important example of this initiative occurred early in the history of the USSR when the workers of the Sortirovochnaya locomotive depot on the Moscow-Kazan railway began voluntarily to contribute overtime work on their free days to repair the locomotives damaged during the First World War, the Civil War and War of Intervention.

Lenin saw this as an important manifestation of the workers' creative force and their socialist consciousness, and hailed it as the "Great Beginning."

In April, 1929, when the All-Union Conference of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), appealed to the people to organize socialist competition on a wider scale, the response was immediate.

The Stakhanov movement, arising in 1935, is the highest phase of socialist competition as practiced in the USSR. Its participants are those most highly skilled in production; and it develops new groups of trained, skilled men

and women who are experts in modern technical methods and who help to improve and develop these methods.

Socialist competition and the Stakhanov movement became particularly widespread during the Second World War, in which the workers and peasants contributed immensely, through their self-sacrificing efforts on the home front, to the victory. And although an unusually large percentage of young, inexperienced workers had perforce to be employed in industry, labor productivity increased by 19 per cent in 1942, and by an additional seven per cent in 1943.

Since the war, socialist competition and the Stakhanov movement have been directed toward the tasks of reconstruction and the further development of the economy.

To rebuild the smashed cities, the great ruined industries and the rich farms trampled by Hitler's armies—and not only to rebuild, but to raise the country's economic level above the prewar level—this was the task the Soviet people vowed, when the war ended, to accomplish in five short years.

Mass socialist competition then became the rule of Soviet life. And as a result, at the end of the first two years of the Five-Year Plan, the output of consumer goods reached 150 per cent of its previous level; and by the end of 1947 industrial production as a whole, as well as the production of grain, equaled prewar figures.

INNOVATORS. Grigori Kiryukhin and Boris Sergeyev, Moscow workers, test their design of a machine tool device to increase productivity.

And soon, as the people realized their success, a movement arose to reach the goal ahead of the end of the fifth year —to do the five years' work in four!

The workers of Leningrad—city which saw the beginning of the Revolution; city of highly skilled industrial workers and magnificent culture; city which withstood hunger and freezing cold in the great blockade, buried her dead, and fought on; one of the five Hero Cities of the USSR—upheld their tradition of leadership and spearheaded this movement. The working people of Leningrad in the autumn of 1947 appealed to workers in every field to carry on socialist competition aimed at completing the work of the Plan in four years.

The country responded. And results were soon apparent.

The recent Report of the State Planning Commission of the USSR shows that during the second quarter of this year, the gross output of industry stood 24 per cent above the figure for the same period last year, and labor productivity has risen 14 per cent during the same period, as compared to the corresponding months of 1947.

The broad participation in socialist competition, led by the highly developed Stakhanov workers, is responsible for this unprecedented success.

The Stakhanovites are notable persons in the USSR. Their methods are publicized by press, radio, motion picture, and in lectures by outstanding Stakhanovite workers. Special Stakhanovite schools, in which these leading workers are teachers, have been opened at many plants, and young workers flock to them to learn the best methods of production. Many Stakhanovites have written books describing their methods. A book by a Stakhanovite railway engineer, Nikolai Lunin, explaining his methods, was published in an edition of 100 thousand copies, became very popular among railway men, and the edition sold out.

The Stakhanovites are truly regarded as leaders in the country; for the Soviet worker knows that his life will grow richer in direct ratio to the country's economic advancement.

HONORED WOMEN. There are many leading women in industry and agriculture. Elizaveta Baburina (left) is a Stakhanovite in the weaving industry. Anna Bushmakina has been named Hero of Socialist Labor for farm work.

TRAINEES. Ivan Kolesnichenko, Vassili Sidorenko and Vassili Podkolyansky are students at the trade school of a Donbas steel mill.

How Workers Are Trained in the USSR

By A. Bardadyn

Deputy Minister of Labor Reserves of the USSR

THERE are three miners in the Krivoi Rog Iron Ore Basin whose names are known throughout the Soviet Union. Each one of these men daily mines the amount of iron which the industrial plan calls upon the average iron-ore miner to mine in 10 or 12 days. Their wages are among the highest in the mines.

"Are they old hands with many years of experience?" someone once asked me.

"No," I answered. "On the contrary, they are the youngest miners in the Basin. All three of them—Nikolai Stoyanov, Timofei Sidorenko and Vassili Migal—only recently graduated from apprentice school."

Thousands of apprentice, trades and railway schools in Soviet factories, mills and mines are yearly training millions of young men and women—the future Stoyanovs, Sidorenkos and Migals—to master the theory and practice of their trades. In these schools, Soviet boys and girls absorb in a few months the basic skills and priceless production "secrets" that in other days and other lands it would take years to acquire.

These schools are under the direction of the Ministry of Labor Reserves, whose duty it is to train workers to take their places in the national economy of the USSR.

The steady growth, the planned system of the Soviet socialist national economy have put an end to unemployment in the USSR forever. There is no anarchy of production in the Soviet economy; the Soviet economy is guaranteed against crises, bankruptcy of plants and factories, mass dismissals of factory and office workers. Industry, transport, and new construction are constantly growing in the Soviet Union and millions of new, skilled workers are required to man the expanding Soviet economy. The schools of the Ministry of Labor Reserves form one of the main sources from which the country's national economy can draw the skilled labor it requires.

During the postwar Five-Year Plan period, 4,500,000 young workers are to be trained in trades, railway and factory apprentice schools. This figure is almost double the number of workers trained during the previous five years, and 1.5 times more than the number of workers trained in the entire large-scale industry in pre-Revolutionary Russia.

An idea of the way in which the national economy of the Soviet Union is developing may be gained if one observes the increase of the number of factory and office workers in the country. There were 11,600,000 factory and office workers in 1928; 10 years later the figure had increased to 28 million. By the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan (in 1950) the number of factory and office workers in the national economy of the USSR will be 33,500,000 persons.

The growth in the number of workers proceeds in a manner that corresponds to the growth of the national economy. Whereas the number of factory and office workers in the country increased by 4,200,000 persons during the period of the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan, an approximately similar increase took place in the first half-year of the third year of the Five-Year Plan.

Viewing this continuous increase in

the number of workers in the Soviet economy, and the absence of unemployment in the USSR, one recalls the figures on unemployment which are a part of the regular statistical reports of many other nations, and which are based on the premise that, even in supposedly prosperous times, some millions of unemployed workers are a natural part of the economy.

To meet the growing demand of the national economy for manpower, the Ministry of Labor Reserves is extending its network of schools. During the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan, 1,700 new apprentice, trades and railway schools in factories have been opened, and their total number now amounts to 4,200.

The Soviet State does everything in order to provide the students in these schools with the opportunity of successfully acquiring trades, of becoming educated, skilled, cultured workers. All those admitted to the Labor Reserves schools receive complete state maintenance. They are provided with tuition, board and lodging, clothing footwear, etc., free of charge. At the expense of the State the pupils receive working clothes, boots and shoes, underwear, textbooks and educational aids. Those who come from other towns or villages are accommodated in well-appointed hostels. Many thousands of experienced master workers, engineers and technicians are employed in teaching these students.

Many people are undoubtedly interested in knowing the difference between the trades and railway schools on the one hand and the factory apprentice schools on the other. I shall endeavor to explain the difference.

Boys between the ages of 14 and 15 and girls from 15 to 16 years of age are admitted to the trades and railway schools. The period of training in these schools is two years. These schools train highly qualified workers: turners, assistant steelmakers, apparatus operators, motormen, assistant locomotive drivers, etc.

Boys from 15 to 17 and girls from 16 to 18 years of age are admitted to the factory apprentice schools. The period of training in these schools is fixed at six months. These schools train workers at various mass trades—they are trained to be mechanics, miners, carpenters, cabinetmakers, plasterers, etc.

Students who enter these schools must have, as a rule, their parents' consent. They are those who wish to learn trades; who do not wish to continue their educations at higher institutes of learning, or whose grades have not qualified them for college-preparatory work or university entrance requirements.

The training is conducted under the conditions that most nearly approach regular production, both in the trades and railway schools, as well as in the factory apprentice schools. From the very first days of entry in these schools the students deal not with models but with industrial raw material of full value; they work on modern factory machines and they manufacture actual goods.

For this work they are paid wages, in addition to their student stipends.

Part of the training-time in the trades and railway schools is devoted to theoretical lessons—the pupils study special and general educational subjects: the technology of metals, drafting, physics, chemistry, mathematics, the Russian language. In the factory apprentice schools, which train workers in mass trades, almost all the training-time is devoted to production training in factories, mines, oil fields or construction jobs. Before getting practical training, however, the young people become acquainted with the production processes, with the tools, and with the measures of labor safety.

This year's recent summer enrollment for the coming term in the trades and railway schools was very high. During the ten-day registration period, more than 150 thousand applications were received. In some regions, the number of applicants considerably exceeded the student capacity of the schools, and considerable numbers of them had to be placed on waiting lists for future terms.

In the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, for instance, seven thousand young people applied, though there were only 5,400 vacancies in the schools. In Kirov Region there were 3,100 applications and 2,200 vacancies; in Kursk Region, 3,020 applications and 1,200 vacancies; and in Ryazan Region, 2,660 applications and 1,570 vacancies.

In some regions, for example, those of Orel, Vologda, Kurgan, and Kalinin, enrollment was completed within a few days.

The State attentively watches the work of the Labor Reserves schools, and rewards the best of them. Orders of the USSR have been awarded to several educational institutes of the Ministry of Labor Reserves.

Former students of the Labor Reserves schools are to be found in every enterprise in the country. In some branches of industry—by the end of the current Five-Year Plan period—from 60 to 80 per cent of the replenishment of skilled workers will consist of persons trained in the Labor Reserves schools.

LEARNING A TRADE. Nina Pavlova with an instructor who is teaching her the turner's craft.

Practice Training of Students

By N. Lazunov

Deputy Minister of Higher Education of the USSR

WHEN the school year ended in June, the senior students from the colleges and higher technical schools flocked to the country's factories, mills, mines, collective farms, offices and scientific enterprises.

Their object was not to finance the coming educational year—for in Soviet higher schools fees are nominal and good students receive scholarship stipends for living expenses—but to integrate what they had learned during the school year, to weld the theoretical and the practical into one.

This procedure for getting thorough practical experience is a part of the education of all students in the USSR. It is the result of a special decision of the Soviet Government. This decision points out that production experience is an organic part of the educational process. Production practice is necessary to consolidate the theoretical knowledge which the students have acquired. This procedure is carried out in the most advanced industrial enterprises and institutions of the country. The total time devoted to it by each student (from 10 to 36 weeks) depends upon the type of education the student is acquiring.

Organizing the production experience of students is the duty of the heads of the higher educational institutions. All expenses (traveling, lodging, working clothes, etc.) are defrayed by the State.

Students usually take their practice in groups. Each group has a qualified teacher in charge, who guides the methodological direction of the students' practice.

In addition, each enterprise in which the students are trained appoints its own qualified specialist for the organization and technical direction of the practice. In the overwhelming majority of cases, students receive wages while engaged in production practice. The pay depends upon the work that is performed. Such pay is over and above the students' stipends.

Each student's practice follows a plan which has been worked out by that particular department of the university or institute in which he is studying.

PRACTICAL WORK. Students of Moscow University's faculty of natural sciences examine plants on a farm.

Methodologically, production practice is so organized that the students learn all the processes of production—beginning with those which are performed by the workers and ending with the intricate processes of organization, management and control of a wide sector of production.

Upon the conclusion of practice, the students are obliged to deliver a report on it at their university or institute.

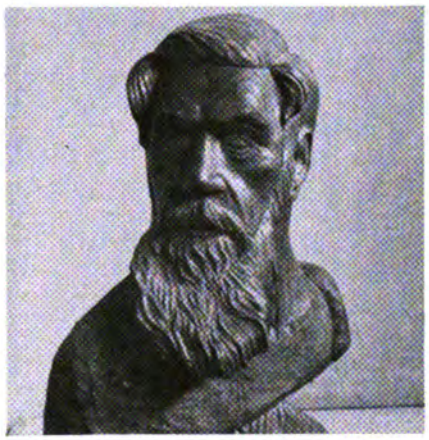
Hundreds of thousands of Soviet students are now getting production practice. From Moscow alone, more than 35 thousand students were sent out to obtain practice.

Groups of students from the Moscow Ordjonikidze Geological Survey Institute went to the Crimea and the Far East. There they are conducting geological surveys during the summer months. Ninety students of the Moscow Timiryazev Agricultural Academy went to the collective and state farms of Krasnoyarsk Territory in Siberia. A large group of students of the Molotov Power Institute in Moscow are practicing in enterprises in the Urals. Students of the Moscow Bauman Higher Technical School are undergoing their prediploma practice in Gorky, Kuibyshev, Kharkov and Kazan. The Moscow Lomonosov University dispatched scientific expeditions of biology, geography, ethnography and archaeology students to various districts of the Soviet Union.

Students of building institutes are taking their practice in war-wrecked enterprises which are now being rehabilitated, and in new postwar construction.

Many students of provincial institutes are taking their production practice in the Soviet Union's capital, in Moscow. Students of the Azerbaijan Industrial Institute are taking their practice in the Moscow Dynamo works. Students of the Ivanovo Power Institute and other educational institutes throughout the Soviet Union are also taking their practice in the Dynamo works.

Soviet News in Pictures



PARTISAN. Wood sculpture by M. Ivinsky, of Leningrad.

CHAMPION. Feodosi Vanin shortly after he won this year's USSR marathon.

SINGING FESTIVAL. The oldest particip
cently in Riga, chat with President Kirch

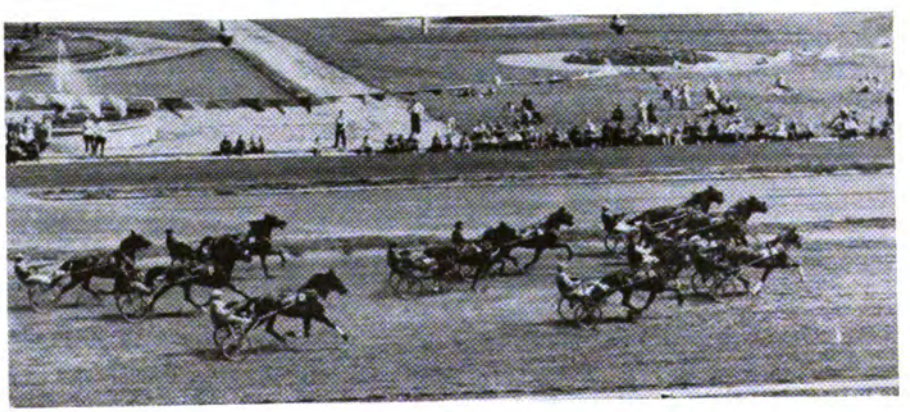
BALLOONISTS. Ludmilla Ivanova and Sergei Boborykin prepare to take off. Ivanova and Z. Tonkova hold the world's record for duration of flight.

SCIENTISTS. A scene during the re
Sciences in Moscow; renowned hor

ational Latvian Singing Festival, held re-
e Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the

of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural
ofim D. Lysenko (standing) presided.

SWING YOUR PARTNER! Dance ensembles perform the "Rutsavetis," during the recent Latvian national singing festival.



DOWN THE STRETCH! The trotters "make for the tape" at the Moscow Hippodrome on July 25. This was the 1600 meter race.

The Structure and Organization Of Soviet Trade Unions

By N. Alexandrov

THE Soviet trade unions are based on the principle of industrial organization—all the employees of a given industry belong to one union, regardless of their profession, skill or occupation.

The internal operation of the trade unions is based on the principle of democratic centralism. All the trade union committees, from factory committee to central executive committee, are elected by secret ballot, and regularly report on their activities to the membership; all the questions are decided by a majority vote; the decisions of the higher trade union bodies are binding on the subordinate committees. At the same time, the local trade union organizations are allowed complete independence in raising and deciding local questions.

The 136 trade unions in the USSR unite more than 85 per cent of the factory and office workers employed in the national economy of the country. The trade unions are organized according to branches of production; in some branches, however, there are territorial trade unions uniting compact groups of workers in one or another branch of industry, transport or agriculture in definite districts of the country. An example is furnished by the metal workers' unions. The three principal iron and steel centers in the USSR—the Urals, the Ukraine and Moscow Region are separated by great distances. In order to promote the highest efficiency in trade union work, in order to bring the trade union leadership closer to the masses, it was found necessary to organize three unions in the metal industry—in the Urals, for the metal workers of the Urals and Siberia; in the Ukraine, for the metal workers of the southern regions; and in Moscow, for the metal workers of the Moscow Region and the Volga area.

Trade union members pay monthly dues amounting to one per cent of their earnings.

Trade union membership is based on voluntary enrollment and freedom to drop membership at any time. It is rare, however, for a Soviet worker to terminate membership in his trade union.

Membership in the Soviet trade union carries with it a number of privileges. The nature of these privileges, however, is different in the USSR than in other countries. In capitalist countries, one of the main points in most of the collective agreements concluded between unions and employers is the provision for the exclusive employment of union labor. The Soviet trade unions likewise formerly included such provisions in order to secure priority right to employment for union members; this, however, was during the time when there was still unemployment in the USSR. In the early days of the USSR, there was usually a provision that in case of a reduction in the staff, nonunion members would be the first to be dismissed.

The need for such provisions in the USSR vanished two decades ago along with the disappearance of unemployment. Nevertheless, trade union members still enjoy some privileges nonunion members do not enjoy. In case of sickness, union members are entitled to twice the sickness benefits that nonunion workers receive. Union members are likewise given priority in the accommodations at sanatoriums; they have the right to join the mutual credit societies of the unions, in addition to the exclusive right to other trade union benefits.

The basic trade union organization in industrial enterprises is the factory committee; in offices and institutions it is the local committee. The local committee and the factory committee are elected annually by secret ballot at general membership meetings or conferences. Factory shops with one hundred employees or more, elect shop committees. Lastly, production teams and production sectors within the shop form trade union subdivisions uniting no more than 20 members. These teams and sectors elect, by a show of hands, a group steward, a social insurance agent and an inspector who inspects the conditions of work to determine whether they are safe and healthful.

The highest trade union authority in the factory is the membership meeting. In large enterprises, where, because of the size of the membership it is impossible to convene membership meetings, the highest authority is the trade union conference of elected delegates.

The highest authority in an industrial trade union is the trade union convention. The central committee of the union is elected at the trade union convention by secret ballot for a term of two years. Meetings of the central committee are convened once every three or four months to decide important questions. Current activities are directed by a presidium elected by the central committee from among its members. The presidium is composed of a chairman, a secretary and several members. Depending on the structure of the union, the central committee guides the work of the factory and local committees directly, or guides the work through the republican, regional, city and district committees elected at the corresponding conferences.

The highest trade union authority in the USSR is the All-Union Congress of Trade Unions, and in intervals between Congresses the highest authority is the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (AUCCTU), which is elected at the All-Union Congress by secret ballot. The decisions of the AUCCTU are binding on all Soviet trade unions. The AUCCTU elects the Presidium, Secretariat and Chairman of the AUCCTU, to guide the over-all daily activities of the trade unions throughout the country.

Functions are divided among the various departments of the AUCCTU: organization and instruction department, departments of social insurance, wages, labor protection, workers' supply, and housing; cultural, educational and foreign trade-union relations de-

partments; financial, legal, physical culture and sports, auditing and control departments; administrations which take charge of questions relating to personnel, sanatoriums and rest homes of the AUCCTU, and the Executive Administration of the AUCCTU.

The AUCCTU issues a daily newspaper *Trud (Labor)*; it maintains its own publishing house, the *Profizdat,* which publishes literature on trade union questions and two magazines: a monthly, *Trade Unions,* and a semimonthly, *Guide for Factory Committees. Trud* also issues the weekly magazine *New Times,* published in the Russian, French, English, and German languages.

All the activities of the trade unions are based on the principles of profound and consistent democracy. These principles demand strict adherence to the electiveness of all trade union bodies, their accountability to their electors, freedom of criticism, and self-criticism. Any trade union body may be recalled prior to the expiration of its term if the electors find its work unsatisfactory. For the same reason, individual members may also be recalled from trade union committees.

The membership exercises control over the activities of the trade union bodies; all bodies are conducted with the broadest co-operation of the rank and file.

More than eight million functionaries conduct Soviet trade union activities at present. Only a few tens of thousands, however, are paid functionaries. The remaining functionaries are volunteers, performing their services free of charge as a social duty. They include the members of factory, local, district, city, regional and central committees; members of the social insurance councils and standing committees formed by the factory and shop committees for handling specific questions; group stewards; insurance agents; safety-and-health inspectors; inspectors for controlling the work of the stores and dining halls; and other functionaries.

In enterprises with from five hundred to two thousand employees, the trade union committees are allowed to maintain a paid functionary at trade union expense. In enterprises with from two to three thousand employees, they may employ no more than two paid functionaries. The largest number of paid functionaries per enterprise, 13, may be employed by trade union organizations in enterprises with personnel greater than 35 thousand.

The extensive co-operation of the rank and file in the activities of the trade union bodies attests to the inseparable contact existing between these bodies and the general membership; as a result the trade unions are in a position to know all the demands of their members and to organize the most efficient services for the workers.

Thirty Years of Change At a Textile Mill

Workers of the Trekhgornaya Manufaktura textile mill in Moscow, which thirty years ago was owned by the manufacturer Prokhorov, have radically changed their attitude toward work since they became masters of this mill. Socialist competition, rapidly growing technical knowledge, rationalization suggestions and inventions, all are factors which contribute to rising labor productivity. The overfulfillment of production quotas has become a common occurrence. At present, every textile worker operates, on an average, nine looms instead of the three or even less that each operated before the Revolution.

The Soviet working people, who are now masters of their country, are keenly interested in the increase of production in all industries, for, the higher the national income, the richer is the country and the higher is their living standard.

In 1947, Trekhgornaya Manufaktura earned six government prizes amounting to 1,650,000 rubles for the overfulfillment of production plans. Seventy per cent of this sum was distributed as bonuses among the workers who distinguished themselves by fine work, and 30 per cent went for cultural and other services. In January, the mill was awarded 125,000 rubles for the production of new types of fabrics. Moreover, last year the workers and employees of this mill received bonuses to the total of a half million rubles from management's fund, which is composed of a certain per cent of the profit made by the mill through the reduction of production costs by increasing labor productivity, saving raw materials and fuel. An equal sum from this fund was invested in a housing program.

During the first quarter of this year, the management's fund has been augmented by 258,000 rubles. Last year, in addition to the government prizes, Trekhgornaya Manufaktura received 13,000,000 rubles allocated by the State and social insurance budgets for housing, cultural needs, maintenance of kindergartens and nurseries accommodating six hundred children, for the construction of two sanatoriums at Yevpatoria on the Black Sea Coast, and for temporary disability benefits. Last year alone, seven hundred workers went to the rest homes free of charge, and fifteen hundred workers' children were sent to summer camps at the expense of the mill. Some three million rubles have been allocated this year to accommodate the workers and employees of this mill in sanatoriums and rest homes during their annual vacations. All these measures provide an incentive to further labor achievement.

The workers know that these benefits come and can come only from the prosperity of their mill and of the entire country—that the wealth they produce returns to them, not only in higher wages, but also in increased benefits such as these. This is an important factor in their interest in higher production.

It is not only attitude toward their work but the very life of the workers of this mill that has changed. Large comfortable houses, clubs for adults and children, kindergartens and nurseries have sprung up around the mill. There is a new theater for textile workers, libraries and an evening textile college. Trekhgornaya Manufaktura provides a typical example of industrial life in the Soviet Union. The better the worker works, the more he and the entire personnel profit by it.

PRIDE OF ACHIEVEMENT. Valya Solovyeva and Galya Osina examine their fruit trees.

Children Who Beautify Their Homeland

By L. Mikhailov

HAVE you ever heard the word *younnat?* Soviet people know this word well. *Younnats* are young naturalists—Soviet schoolboys and schoolgirls who make nature study and experimental agriculture their hobby.

The green and blooming projects of these children, to be seen now everywhere in the Soviet Union, are touching in their mute testimony to the ardor of the children in helping to restore the beauty and the fruitfulness of land swept bare by the Nazi invaders, their evidence of faithful, childish effort to beautify and enrich the home village or the home city.

For the gardens of the *younnats* are not just "play" gardens. They have definite practical value.

There are several thousand circles of *younnats* in the Soviet Union; moreover, there are Regional Stations, and a Central Station in Moscow, for these young naturalists. *Younnats* work under the guidance of experienced teachers, and base their work on the latest achievements of agricultural science. It is easy to understand, therefore, why the outstanding achievements of some of these circles and stations of young naturalists were demonstrated at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow, and why the collective farms have taken over some of the methods developed by these young innovators.

It can justifiably be said that the *younnats* have attained great importance in the national economy, because they direct their efforts primarily toward the restoration and extension of orchards and green plantings especially in those areas of the Soviet Union which were under occupation. It is no secret that the fascist troops wantonly destroyed fruit orchards, parks and forests.

The mass movement of young horticulturists was begun by the school children of a school in Chobotov, in Kuntsevo District (near Moscow). Soon after the war they planted an orchard just outside their school, and called it "Victory Orchard."

A good, useful idea in the Soviet Union is not long in finding followers. Many schools followed the example of the Chobotov children and also planted orchards. The Chobotov school began to receive letters from all parts of the Soviet Union. One group of children from Georgia wrote: "We read about your orchard in the newspapers. Now we have also planted apple trees, pear trees, cherry trees, pomegranates and nut trees. We have dug a reservoir 90 square meters* in area and have planted arborvitae around its edges. Our garden is bordered with a live fence of trees. Come and visit us, and you'll see how beautiful it looks."

The *younnats* of the Chernigov District Children's Agricultural Station in the Ukraine started a model fruit and berry nursery, in which they have planted over three hundred fruit trees. These *younnats* have distributed seven hundred berry bushes among the school children of the city and the neighboring villages. The students at the Kirov School of the Zaporozhye District—also in the Ukraine—have planted trees and berry bushes in the neighboring ravines. This helps to strengthen the soil. Fruit trees were planted for the first time in the mountainous regions of Transcarpathia by *younnats* of the Volov District. Moreover these school children are experimenting with apple, pear and plum trees in high altitudes.

It is a pleasure to see the accomplishments of the group of school children living at 13 Gogol Street in Ufa, the capital of the Bashkir Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic. These *younnats* have turned the courtyard of their house into a blossoming garden. They have planted apple trees, berry bushes, and flower beds of dahlias, asters, and poppies. Their summerhouse is covered on all sides with creeping plants. The children have shown themselves such skillful horticulturalists that some kindergartens in the city have asked the *younnats* to help them plant trees and hedges in their gardens.

Kolya Nikolakhin, a schoolboy, returned, after being evacuated during the war, to his native village in the Tula region. The fascists had occupied his village for two years. A feeling of sharp pain and sorrow overwhelmed Kolya when he saw the broken trees overgrown with weeds—all that was left of the garden in which his family's house had once stood. Then and there Kolya decided to make his garden more beautiful than ever. He cleared it of the weeds, dug up the soil,

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

and covered it with humus which he brought from the forest in sacks. To protect the garden from the north wind he planted lindens, maples and birches all along the fence.

Other children followed Kolya's example. At school the biology teacher organized them into a circle of young horticulturists.

In the village of Shushenskoye, in Siberia, where the great Lenin lived in exile in the dark days of tsarism, the young horticulturists of the Lenin secondary school were able to keep every one of the nine hundred apple trees of their school orchard alive through the extremely severe winter of 1947-1948. And to think that not so long ago it was believed that fruit trees could not grow at all in Siberia!

These are some of the examples of the mass movement of young horticulturists in the USSR—the movement of *younnats*.

The following figures may convey an idea of its present scope. Between the spring of 1947 and the spring of 1948, the Central Committee of the Young Communist League held a contest for *younnats*. Thirty-four thousand schools and kindergartens all over the Soviet Union—in all, over four million children—took part in this contest. During that time several million trees and hundreds of hectares* of forests, parks and avenues were planted. And the children kept all the trees they had planted alive throughout the winter.

The results of the contest were announced at an All-Union Convention of Young Horticulturists which took place recently in the city of Vladimir in central Russia. The 10 best schools and kindergartens were awarded prizes—banners of the Central Committee of the Young Communist League, and cash prizes. Among the winners in the contest was the Chobotov School, the initiator of the movement.

The delegates at the Convention passed a resolution to found a large garden in the city of Vladimir to be named after the 16 Union Republics, in honor of the achievements of the *younnats*. The seeds and saplings for the park are to be supplied by those who were delegates to the Convention.

YOUNG HORTICULTURISTS. Children at their hobby at the Younnats' central station at Moscow.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

BEFORE THE WAR. Buildings of the great Observatory as they looked before the war passed here.

Restoration of Pulkovo Observatory

By Professor Boris Orlov

Director, Chief Astronomical Observatory of the USSR

THE Chief Astronomical Observatory of the USSR, at Pulkovo, near Leningrad, has long been one of the largest in the world. Destroyed by the Nazi invaders, its restoration is in progress and a number of its departments are now functioning. The Pulkovo Observatory was founded in 1839.

The many generations of Russian astronomers who worked there contributed enormously to science and made the Observatory world-famous. It has been deservedly called the "astronomical capital of the world." The profoundly planned work, and the methods of observation which were elaborated by the famous Russian scholar, Vassili Struve, opened a new epoch in astronomical observations. The foundations of exact astrometry, that branch of astronomy which treats of the determination of the positions of the heavenly bodies, were also laid at Pulkovo.

More than one hundred years ago, Russian astronomers in Pulkovo undertook an important task—out of the millions of stars visible through the telescope, they chose 374 and set about determining their exact positions. They completed this task in 1845. Since then this has been repeated five times—the last time in 1930; and each time the calculations of the stars' positions have become more precise. These 374 stars have come to be known as the Pulkovo or Russian stars; today they still serve to orient astronomers the world over in their work of exploring the universe. With their knowledge of the Pulkovo stars, astronomers have succeeded in measuring the distance between the earth and many remote luminaries, have succeeded in establishing the laws governing the motion of the stellar systems as a whole and of individual stars, and in determining the exact position of the sun and the earth in relation to the universe.

The work of the Pulkovo astronomers broadened tremendously in scope following the Great October Socialist Revolution because of the permanent financial assistance rendered by the Soviet Government to scientific institutions. At the same time the work of the branch observatories founded in Nikolayev and Simeiz also increased. The Simeiz Observatory (in the Crimea) intended for astrophysical observations, had the largest reflecting telescope (one-meter aperture) in Europe.

During the 102 years of the Pulkovo Observatory's existence preceding July, 1941, daily observations of the heavens and their bodies were made in Pulkovo. Only when the German armies approached Leningrad did the astronomers leave the hill and let their place be taken by soldiers defending that Hero City.

For nearly nine hundred days and nights the fires of war raged over Pulkovo. And finally, from that hill, in January, 1944, the Leningrad guardsmen stormed and overran the fascist fortifications.

When the Germans had been driven from Leningrad and men could again walk upright on Pulkovo Hill without fear of being hit by enemy fire, the astronomers returned to find a terrible picture of devastation: German artillery and aircraft had razed all the buildings of the Observatory.

The war still raged when the rebuilding of the Observatory and the

little city which surrounds it began. In 1944, the Soviet Government, interested as always in the development of science, passed a measure providing for the restoration of the Chief Observatory of the USSR.

In spite of huge war expenditures, the Government assigned all the necessary funds to enable work to begin immediately on the designing of a new Observatory at Pulkovo. According to the plan drawn up under the guidance of the architect, Academician Victor Shchusev, with the close participation of prominent astronomers, the new Observatory in Pulkovo will be considerably larger and much better planned and equipped than the old one. Its outlines can be seen already on Pulkovo Hill—20 buildings are now under construction there.

The chief building of the Observatory, which was wrecked by the Germans, was built originally by the Russian architect, Alexander Brullov. It is being restored in its former shape; the central part will soon be completed. One can already ascend to the revolving platform of the high tower, in which a normal astrograph, an instrument for photographing the heavens, will be installed. Two pavilions are being erected, one on the eastern and one on the western side of this building. These pavilions will contain meridian instruments.

Altogether, during the course of the next two years, 75 buildings will be erected on Pulkovo Hill, of which 42 are intended for astronomic research, including a large astrophysical laboratory. Towers for many large refracting telescopes will be erected. Nearly all these buildings will have sliding walls and cupolas. All the scientific laboratories, whose work demands maximum accuracy, will rest on superstrong foundations. Thirty-three buildings are intended for municipal enterprises.

Under the guidance of astronomer Sophia Romanskaya, who has worked for 30 years in the Pulkovo Observatory, observations of latitudinal oscillations are already being conducted, and in a few weeks the photographing of stars—using the normal astrograph—will begin.

Many of the instruments that were taken away when the Germans approached Leningrad will return to their places on Pulkovo Hill; but there will be many more new ones as well, also designed by Soviet astronmers.

Soviet astronomers did not interrupt their work for a single day during the war. It was during the blockade of Leningrad that Professor Nikolai Pavlov completed his many years of research into photoelectric recording of stellar paths, for which he was awarded the Stalin Prize.

The spectroscopic laboratory, under the direction of Professor Oleg Melnikov, has designed an original photoelectric unit for the direct recording of the distribution of energy in the solar spectrum. The astrophysical department, under the supervision of Professor Vladimir Krat, has successfully completed the classification of many valuable observations made during the solar eclipses of 1941 and 1945.

In the division which investigates solar phenomena, headed by Professor Moritz Eigenson, research is proceeding into the relation between phenomena occurring on the sun and phenomena occurring in the terrestrial atmosphere. The solar division directs the work of the numerous solar stations in the USSR. This year a comprehensive book, *Solar Activity and Its Terrestrial Manifestations,* was published by the solar division.

Sergei Belyavsky, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, has published an astrographical catalogue designating over 11 thousand stars distributed near the North Pole; these stars were observed from Pulkovo. Professor Alexander Deich is studying the problem of the terrestrial satellites of the stars, on the basis of Pulkovo observations.

The writer of this article [Professor Orlov] has published a work proving that not only latitudinal observations, as heretofore practiced, but also azimuthal observations can be used for the study of the movement of the Pole. This writer is also completing tabulation of a series of determinations of stellar declinations, a series on which work began in Pulkovo a century ago. As a result of this work the motions of bright stars will be determined by Pulkovo observations alone.

On Pulkovo Hill many Soviet soldiers are buried, soldiers who fell in battle for the honor and independence of their Homeland. The new Pulkovo Observatory, erected on the ground where their sacred blood was shed, will be a beautiful and eternal monument to the deathless memory of the defenders of Leningrad.

AFTER THE BATTLE. When the scientists returned, these ruins of their buildings awaited them. Restoration began even before the war ended, and the new buildings are now rising.

A Master of Surgery

By Yuri Nikulin

In the corridors of Moscow's Sklifosovsky Institute one may meet a tall, broad-shouldered man in a white coat. His features are strong and slightly rugged; his eyes are blue and alert; and his hair is streaked with gray. He is Sergei Yudin, one of the most famous of Soviet surgeons.

Member of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR, twice a Stalin Prize winner, a distinguished scientist, Yudin is the senior surgeon of the Sklifosovsky Institute, one of the largest surgical hospitals and the central emergency hospital of Moscow. Sergei Yudin is honorary member of many scientific bodies of the world; among them are the British Royal College of Surgeons, the Paris Sorbonne, the American and the International College of Surgeons. Five doctor's robes and an ermine mantle are tokens of these honorary elections. And at the last World Congress of Surgeons, Sergei Yudin was elected, in absentia, vice-president of the coming Thirteenth World Congress of Surgeons.

His brilliant operations, the work of a true virtuoso, have won Yudin this fame; simultaneously, as an outstanding scholar, he has enriched medical science with a number of discoveries which have become the acquisition of world science.

Sergei Yudin studied at the Moscow University during the days of the tsar, and during the First World War, he spent three years at the front. For several years after the October Revolution, he worked as a surgeon in the hospital of the city of Serpukhov, which is near Moscow. Here his exceptional talent as a surgeon developed in all its brilliance for he was obliged to perform the most varied, difficult, and sometimes seemingly hopeless operations; and as a rule, they were successful. During those years he also began his work as a scientist-experimenter. In Serpukhov, Yudin elaborated and wrote a dissertation on his method of cerebrospinal anesthesia, a type of partial anesthesia which could be utilized for operations in place of general anesthesia.

After seven years of work at Serpukhov, Sergei Yudin was invited to head the surgical department in the Sklifosovsky Institute in Moscow. Patients were frequently brought to this Institute who were suffering from perforation of the stomach as the result of peptic ulcer. To save their lives, Yudin began to resort to resection of the stomach. This was a new and daring method of operating; he was the first to make wide-scale use of this method, and it yielded excellent results. Mortality dropped sharply, and the patient's life was saved in nearly every case.

Shortly after Yudin's second major achievement, a wonderful new discovery drew the attention of the medical world. Two years earlier, Academician Shamov, surgical expert, had informed a congress of surgeons that blood taken from a dog's corpse and transferred into the veins of another animal which had practically bled to death, revived the latter. Now, at the initiative and under the supervision of Sergei Yudin, a painstaking study of the biological properties of blood taken from the human corpse was begun. The study proved that for six hours after death, human blood did not in any way differ from the blood of a living person. And on March 30, 1930, an amazing experiment was made for the first time in the history of medicine. Large quantities of blood taken from a corpse were transfused into the veins of a man who, following an accident, had lost the greater part of his blood. This man, who had almost died, revived and lived. Two years later, after two hundred such experiments had been made, the All-Union Congress of Soviet Surgeons approved Yudin's discovery. Since then, transfusion of cadaveric blood, in cases requiring large quantities of whole blood, has become standard medical practice.

A scientific discovery no less remarkable was made by Sergei Yudin in the sphere of war surgery. During the Great Patriotic War, as Colonel of Medical Services, Yudin visited the front 19 times. At the beginning of the war he elaborated a new method of treating gunshot wounds. The method consisted of applying a special "sulpha" preparation to the wound, after careful surgical dressing, and then putting on an immovable plaster bandage. A pamphlet describing this method and published in an edition of 80 thousand copies, was rapidly distributed among front-line medical workers. As a result, the lives of many thousands of Soviet fighting men were saved. For this work, Sergei Yudin was awarded the Stalin Prize.

A second Stalin Prize was conferred upon Yudin recently for the development of improved methods of creating an artificial esophagus. An operation for the formation of an artificial esophagus was first successfully performed by the Russian surgeon, Professor Herzen. His methods have been developed and perfected by Sergei Yudin. Formerly, 18 months were required for the patient's recovery. Now, as a result of Yudin's work, the recovery period is 10 days.

"It is time for the operation," the nurse announced. We left Yudin's office and went to the operating theater. Near the operating table was a three-tiered structure which resembled a ship-captain's bridge. From this vantage point, where every detail was visible, doctors who had come from all parts of the country watched Yudin perform his operation—the removal of a cancer of the stomach. Confidently and carefully, the surgeon made his incision. I was reminded of a sculptor, who with skilled hands molds and changes the living clay.

Then the operation was over. The cancer had been removed; a life had been saved!

I took my leave of Sergei Yudin—a remarkable Soviet scholar and citizen. Standing in the front ranks of world scientists, Yudin is laying new paths that will be followed by doctors and scientists the world over.

Tenth Anniversary of Death Of Stanislavsky Marked

By Nikolai Volkov

TEN years have passed since the death, on August 7, 1938, of one of the most prominent figures of the world theater—Constantine Stanislavsky.

The anniversary of his death was marked by memorial meetings in the Soviet Union, attended both by those who knew him and were associated with him, and by those who admire his work.

Stanislavsky was 75 when he died, but eternal youth burned within him until the day of his death. In his creative art, this man united the gifts of a dramatic actor, the magnificent scope of a producer's imagination, the mind of a scholar and thinker; he was an artist who succeeded in building a genuinely scientific system of realistic acting.

Stanislavsky's interest in the theater began in the days when little Kostya Alexeyev (Alexeyev was his real name) "play-acted" with his brothers and sisters. Later they formed the "Alexeyev Theatrical Circle" at home. When he was 25 he founded the Moscow Art and Literary Society, which gave some interesting amateur performances, among them *Othello,* Gouzkow's *Uriel d'Acosta,* and Leo Tolstoy's *Fruits of Enlightenment.* In 1898, with the playwright Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko, he founded the "Art Theater For All," which was later to become world-famous as the Moscow Art Theater. This theater was the embodiment of the hopes of the best actors and producers in Russia, who wanted a theater that would be truly national, a true people's theater. The plays of Anton Chekhov were interpreted on this stage in a way that broke with tradition. The earliest plays by Maxim Gorky: *The Philistines* and *The Lower Depths* were first presented here. In his early letters to Russian workers, Vladimir Lenin spoke of his visits to this theater with warmth and enthusiasm.

Stanislavsky's role in the Art Theater was that of actor and producer.

STANISLAVSKY. With Maxim Gorky (center) and the actress, M. Lilina.

And for forty years—from 1898 to 1938—he and Nemirovich-Danchenko were its permanent directors.

Stanislavsky was born in 1863, the year of the death of another great figure in the Russian theater, the actor Mikhail Shchepkin, whose art was profoundly realistic. A contemporary of Gogol and Griboyedov, Shchepkin found in the comedies *The Inspector-General,* and *Wit Works Woe,* a source of knowledge of Russian life. They were rich material for his ability to create epic characters. Stanislavsky took the best traditions of Shchepkin's acting as the starting point for his own search for the fundamentals of stage realism.

In his early youth he made critical notes after each of his performances on the amateur stage. He was unsparing in his exposure of any inclination to pose, any self-admiration on the stage, any false note, any use of cliches. He detested actors who looked upon their art as a trade. This detestation of routine and stagnancy led him to form his own system, in which the method of acting was based on the firm foundation of scientific psychology.

Stanislavsky's views began to appear in the press in 1907. It was only after the October Revolution, however, that he began to publish his work on the theory of stage art. His autobiography, *My Life in Art,* was published in the mid-twenties. He was working on another fundamental work, *The Actor's Study of Emotion,* at the time of his death.

Stanislavsky never rested on his laurels. He was constantly extending the sphere of his activities. After the Revolution he founded an opera theater, and there he applied his methods of dramatic acting to the opera singer's art. He liked working with young people. In one of his last articles, written shortly before his death, he said: "A broad road leading to the treasures of the world's culture is open to Soviet youth. Splendid conditions have been created for the flourishing of art in our country . . . Youth must not only master all that has been created by the old culture but must raise culture to heights that were inaccessible to people in the old society." These words have that sense of the new that is an integral part of all of the work of this great artist and patriot.

And Soviet society, and the Soviet Government, showed the highest appreciation of Constantine Stanislavsky; he was honored as a People's Artist of the Soviet Union, and he was awarded the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

Stanislavsky exerted a far-reaching influence on the Russian and world theater. His books are classics in their field, and have been translated into many languages. They are invariably to be found in the libraries of progressive theater people in all parts of the world. His name is a beacon that lights the way for all who strive to express in the theater the great democratic ideals of our time, who believe that the theater should be a seat of learning, enlightenment and progressive education for all the people.

Nikolai Chernyshevsky, Precursor Of Russian Democracy

By M. Grigoryan

ONE HUNDRED and twenty years ago, on July 24, 1828, Nikolai Gavrilovich Chernyshevsky, who was destined to play a prominent role in the early history of the Russian revolutionary movement, was born at Saratov. He was a great thinker and revolutionary democrat, whom Lenin ranked with Belinsky and Herzen as important precursors of the Russian Social Democratic Party.

Chernyshevsky was the intellectual leader of the generation of Russian revolutionary commoners who succeeded the Decembrists, (those revolutionaries who came from the ranks of the nobility) and Herzen. The commoners, headed by Chernyshevsky, bore the brunt of the struggle in one of the most difficult periods of the Russian freedom movement. They were the champions of the peasantry; they fought for the emancipation of the peasants from serfdom. In Lenin's words, Chernyshevsky possessed the ability "to influence all political events of his epoch in the revolutionary spirit, and through all the obstacles and barriers of tsarism he carried forward the idea of a peasant revolution, the idea of the fight of the masses to overthrow all the old authorities."

"For the triumph of my convictions I will set no store whatever on my life," the St. Petersburg University student, Nikolai Chernyshevsky, wrote in his diary. His entire life was a brillant confirmation of that sentiment.

Chernyshevsky studied at the University in the years when serfdom in Russia was going through a profound crisis, and in the West the revolutionary tide was rising. Above all, Chernyshevsky was brought up in the revolutionary-democratic and materialist traditions of progressive Russian social thought. He was also well-acquainted with the writings of the progressive thinkers of Western Europe. By 1850 his philosophy had been fully formed: he was a convinced materialist and a revolutionary democrat.

Nikolai Gavrilovich Chernyshevsky

Chernyshevsky soon began to write for the magazine *Sovremennik (The Contemporary)*. His fruitful and varied journalistic activity included literary criticism, politics, political economy, and essays on art and philosophy. The press was then the only place in Russia where social problems could be discussed, and Chernyshevsky made his journalism a sharp weapon in the fight against the regime of the autocracy and serfdom.

In his articles on the peasant reforms, Chernyshevsky vehemently denounced the machinations of the landlord class, showing that the Russian liberals were essentially inimical to the people and that the policy of tsarism was at variance with the interests of the nation. He ardently championed the immediate emancipation of the peasants. The emancipation of the peasants, he wrote, must be so carried out as to "really satisfy the national feeling." Chernyshevsky, like all progressive Russians, carried in his heart a great love for his people. True patriotism to Chernyshevsky meant to fight for his country's emancipation from feudal and all other social bondage and oppression, to work to build a free, powerful and happy Russia.

To the tsarist Government Cherny-

shevsky was a dangerous foe. He was arrested and confined in the Peter-Paul Fortress. But Chernyshevsky did not quit the battle. It was in prison that he wrote his famous novel, *What Is to Be Done?* The heroes of the novel were the advanced representatives of the time, and they served as an example for generations of Russian revolutionaries. The novel had a great educational effect.

Chernyshevsky spent nearly 22 years in prison and exile. He died in 1889.

From the Peter-Paul Fortress Chernyshevsky wrote to his wife: "Our lives, yours and mine, belong to history. Hundreds of years will pass, and still our names will be dear to people; we will be remembered with gratitude when nearly all who lived in our time will have been forgotten. So we must not degrade ourselves in regard to strength of character before the people who will study our lives."

And it is indeed with a feeling of respect and deep gratitude that the Soviet people today speak of this great man. We are proud of Chernyshevsky, just as Lenin was proud of him and loved him for his courage in the struggle against the autocracy and serfdom, for his boundless devotion to the people, for his powerful revolutionary intellect and ardent patriotism. Marx and Engels said that revolutionaries and thinkers of the stature of Chernyshevsky and Dobrolyubov were a credit to the great Russian nation. "The works of your great teacher Chernyshevsky," wrote Marx to the Russian Section of the First International, "are a credit to Russia."

Chernyshevsky was a profound scholar and thinker, one of the most educated men of his time.

Materialism was the basis of Chernyshevsky's philosophy. He followed the materialist line in Russian philosophy, which Belinsky and Herzen had developed independently in the 1840's, and he raised Russian philosophy to a higher level. Lenin wrote that from the 1850's to 1888 Chernyshevsky was the one Russian who kept "on the level of an integral philosophical materialism."

Chernyshevsky castigated the German philosophers for their idealism, for their reactionary attempts to justify German backwardness, for their efforts to represent Germans as a special race, a special nation. Chernyshevsky wrote of Hegel: "It seems to me that he is a slave to the existing state of affairs, to the present social system." Unlike Feuerbach, however, Chernyshevsky did not discard "the rational kernel" of Hegel's philosophy. He made use of certain aspects of the dialectial method, which he applied materialistically in substantiation of his revolutionary-democratic convictions.

Chernyshevsky was also a great economist. He revealed the class limitations of the bourgeois political economy of Adam Smith, David Ricardo and their followers. He set himself the aim of producing a political economy for the working people. On reading, in the Russian original, Chernyshevsky's notes on Mill's *Principles of Political Economy,* Marx wrote: "This bankruptcy of 'bourgeois' political economy has been masterfully brought out by the great Russian scholar and critic N. Chernyshevsky in his *Essays on Political Economy According to Mill.*" Lenin declared that Chernyshevsky was a remarkable critic of capitalism.

Chernyshevsky gave a devastating description of bourgeois liberals. He wrote: "I don't like these gentlemen who cry 'liberty, liberty' and confine that liberty to pronouncing the word and writing it into the laws, but fail to put it into practice. . . . They destroy the texts which speak of inequality, but do not destroy the social system under which nine-tenths of the people are slaves and proletarians." Addressing the same bourgeois liberals, Chernyshevsky exclaimed: "Ah, gentlemen, you think the point is that there should be the word 'Republic' and you in power; but that is not the point. The point is that the lower class should be delivered from its slavery, not to the law, but to the necessity of things . . . that they might eat, drink, marry, raise children, maintain their fathers, receive an education, that the men should not have to become dull or desperate and the women should not have to sell their bodies . . ."

Chernyshevsky strongly criticized the American economist Henry C. Carey, who preached the idea of "harmony" of class interests. And he castigated and exposed the class essence of the race theories then current among some scientists, particularly in Germany and America.

Chernyshevsky was an outstanding art theorist. On the basis of the materialist philosophy he founded the "realistic trend" in aesthetics. In his famous thesis, *Aesthetic Relationships between Art and Reality,* he posed the principle: "the beautiful is life," against the aesthetics of the nobility. He demanded of art that it should reproduce life truthfully and realistically, that art should explain life and give a correct critical appraisal of reality.

Chernyshevsky was convinced that a victorious peasant revolution would bring socialism to Russia. He wanted to rouse the peasantry to a socialist revolution. That was a *Narodnik* (populist) illusion. A peasant revolution in the 1860's could not usher in the socialist society for which Chernyshevsky ardently strove. Only the proletariat, which was just then coming into being in Russia, could bring about socialism. Chernyshevsky's socialism, which he expected to result from a peasant revolution, was a variety of Utopian socialism.

Vera Pavlovna, the heroine of Chernyshevsky's novel, *What Is to Be Done?,* dreams that she sees a land full of joy, happiness, and work in freedom. She looks at this fairyland, and exclaims: "Can it be possible that it is we, that this is our land? I have heard our song, and they speak Russian." Chernyshevsky profoundly believed in the bright socialist future of the Russian people. He wrote of that future: "Love it, strive for it, work for it, bring it closer, and carry from it into the present as much as you can."

Socialism could, and did, win the day in our country—proletarian socialism, based on the great teachings of Marxism-Leninism. The Great October Revolution triumphed because it was organized by the party of the working class.

Chernyshevsky belonged to the geniuses of mankind who, in his own words, were "ahead of their epoch, and had the glory of envisioning the dawn of the coming day and the courage to hail its arrival."

Nikolai Chernyshevsky, the great democrat, fighter and thinker, is held in high esteem by the Soviet people, who have advanced far along the road of civilization and progress which he foresaw.

MEETING. Andrei Balashov, played by Vladimir Druzhnikov, meets his sweetheart after a long separation.

ENTHRALLED. Siberian construction workers listen to Andrei play the accordion. He had been a promising pianist, incurred a hand wound during the war.

"A Tale of the Siberian Land"

CHAUFFEUR. Boris Andreyev plays the tragi-comic role of a chauffeur.

RETURN. After two years, Andrei's sweetheart, played by Marina Ladynina, returns to Siberia to look for him.

WAITRESS. Vera Vassilyeva plays the role of a waitress.

A Film of Faith in the People

By K. Polevoi

THE new film, *A Tale of the Siberian Land,* (released in the United States under the title, *Symphony of Life*) is characteristic of the work of Producer Ivan Pyryev.

For Ivan Pyryev has always created films that vividly portray the life of the Soviet people—at work and at play, in the trying days of the war and in time of peace. His work is invariably full-blooded, vigorous, surging with optimism, never commonplace. His favorite medium is the musical film. And in this medium, so often the vehicle of banalities, Pyryev strives constantly not only to reflect the joyous, constructive life of the Soviet people, but to raise important ideological questions of great interest to Soviet society.

These features of Pyryev's work were evident in the films *The Rich Bride, The Farm Girl and the Shepherd, Secretary of the District Committee, We'll Come Back,* and *Six P.M. Postwar.* These characteristics of Pyryev's work are particularly evident in his new film, the scenario of which was written by Eugene Pomeshchikov and Nikolai Rozhkov.

The technical excellence and artistic integrity of *A Tale of the Siberian Land* gained recognition recently when it was awarded a first prize in competition with films of various nations at the international film festival held at Prague.

The hero of this film, Andrei Balashov, a talented pianist, comes back from the war with a crippled arm. He leaves Moscow in order to avoid his friends and his sweetheart. He wanders for some time through the expanses of his homeland, Siberia—then writes a musical poem, *A Tale of the Siberian Land,* and returns to Moscow as a composer.

This, in brief, is the plot of the picture. In Pyryev's hands, however, this simple story emerges as a glowing tribute to the Soviet artist and a vivid illustration of his close ties with the people.

No wounded pride drives Andrei Balashov to the Siberian taiga. He returns to his birthplace in order to draw consolation from the people, to draw fresh strength for a new life. And the people do not fail him. With conviction, the film shows how the people encourage him. The act of the simple village lad who gives his accordion to Balashov—the attention bestowed by plain people upon the war veteran they had not known before—these acts mirror the responsiveness of the people, their ability to appreciate genuine talent. The love and attention of the people encourage Balashov; the Siberian folk melodies nurture his talent.

Vladimir Druzhnikov

Marina Ladynina

Andrei Balashov is so unlike another pianist portrayed in the film—Olenich, a virtuoso who keeps aloof from the people. Pyryev shows convincingly how barren and fruitless is the technical perfection of a musician, regardless of talent, when he is not one with the people.

While handling the problem of the creative methods of a Soviet artist, *A Tale of the Siberian Land* acquaints the audience with Siberia, its inexhaustible wealth and its remarkable people, who made such a great contribution to the victory in the Second World War. Filled with captivating Siberian melodies, this film is an excellent example of the Soviet musical film. And it is rendered even more effective by the skillful use of colors. Avoiding clashing colors, the producer and the cameramen, N. Bolshakov, V. Maslennikov and T. Lebedev, succeeded in conveying the soft charm of the Siberian landscapes.

Vladimir Druzhnikov, who had leading roles in the films *Stone Flower* and *Guilty Though Guiltless,* is cast in the role of Andrei Balashov. This talented young actor has created a captivating characterization of a Soviet musician—proud and strong in spirit, refusing to bow before his fate.

Marina Ladynina plays the part of Andrei's sweetheart, Natasha, a singer, who at the close of the film, after their separate musical successes, marries him and goes with him to a Siberian town to continue their work.

The young actress, Vera Vassilyeva, is at her best in this film. She turns in a compelling performance in the role of the woman worker, Nastenka Gusenkova.

A Tale of the Siberian Land is the moving story of the unbreakable unity of Soviet art and the Soviet people; it pictures the lofty and striking character of a real people's artist. And this new film is winning the finest tribute possible from Soviet audiences: it is attracting full houses everywhere.

Soviet Fur Farming

By Vitali Afanasyev

Director of the Alliance of Fur Farms of the USSR

EACH year the number of fur-bearing animals raised on special farms in various parts of the Soviet Union increases. This year promises a much greater increase than former years. Sables, foxes and minks are giving an average of four cubs apiece this year.

One of the most valuable fur-bearing animals—the sable—is now acclimatized in the Soviet Union without very great difficulty. The fur farmers had a great deal of trouble finding the most favorable conditions for sable breeding. Experience has shown that long acquaintance with this beast has not given a correct conception of its life and habits. It was believed, for instance, that the female sable is pregnant for two to three months, beginning in March. However, when sable began to be bred in farms near Moscow, it was found that the pregnancy period is nine months, and begins in July.

Every day each sable gets eight hundred grams of raw meat and liver, and cedarnuts with honey.

In foreign countries, fur farmers have not as yet been successful in raising sables, but on Soviet farms sables breed quite well, and the number of animals on the farms of the Soviet Union is growing from year to year.

Various species of foxes are also raised on Soviet fur farms. Recently an entirely new breed was evolved, called the "snow-fox." Foxes of this breed have a snow-white coat effectively set off by marble-black specks on the muzzle, a dark "strap" on the back, and black ears. This new fur will undoubtedly soon come into fashion and win general popularity.

A new breed of rabbit, called "silver-veil" will also probably soon become very popular.

This rabbit, evolved by Soviet selectionists, weighs about 13 pounds, and resembles silver fox in color. Its meat is delicious and tender; it is large in size and its fur is very effective.

Fur farms have been set up all over the Soviet Union. Fur farms specializing in muskrat have been organized in the swampy regions of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic. The valuable fur of this animal is used for women's fur coats, for collars, for hats, and is in great demand.

Many of the rivers in the central regions of the USSR have beaver preserves, in which the number of animals increases from year to year. Many measures are taken in the USSR to increase the number of these valuable fur-bearing animals.

Before the October Revolution the number of fur seals on the Komandor Islands diminished from year to year as a result of the rapacious methods used in seal fishing.

Now, as a result of measures worked out by Soviet scientists, seal fishing is carried on in strict compliance with the requirements of the progressive reproduction of this valuable animal. At present the number of fur seals is not diminishing but, on the contrary, is systematically increasing.

On Soviet farms, fur-bearing animals are raised either in cages or under so-called semi-wild conditions. Thus, polar foxes have been let loose on the Bering and Medny Islands. The animals here are regularly looked after and their natural food is supplemented when necessary.

When fur-bearing animals are loosed to reproduce under natural conditions, they often cause radical changes to be made in the ideas about the fauna of the region in which they are put. For instance, Ussurian raccoons, when let loose in the Altai taiga, soon became acclimatized and have begun to multiply very well.

Besides the state fur farms, there are hundreds of collective fur farms in the Soviet Union. The collective farms of the Komi Autonomous Republic raise polar and silver foxes with particular success. The collective farms receive credit from the State to purchase fur-bearing animals for their farms.

The work of research workers at Soviet fur farms has played an important part in increasing the numbers of fur-bearing animals. The fundamentals of rational feeding have been worked out. Another factor which helps a great deal to keep the number of animals high, is the use of Soviet vaccines and serums against paratyphoid fever, encephalitis and other diseases to which many of these fur-bearing animals are subject.

CARACUL. These lambs are precious fur on the hoof. Scene on a Soviet caracul farm.

Soccer—the Favorite Soviet Sport

By A. Alexandrov

THOSE who have had occasion to catch a glimpse of Moscow streets on soccer days will long remember the beaming faces of thousands of Muscovites, young and old, especially on Gorky Street and Leningrad Highway, which lead to the Moscow Dynamo Stadium. Seeing all the autobusses and trolleybusses filled to overflowing, automobiles speeding along and subway trains jammed—all headed in the direction of the stadium—one cannot but wish to join these lighthearted lovers of the soccer game.

And this is a familiar sight in Moscow on days when the country's best teams—participants in the race for the national soccer crown—are scheduled to play. But such sights are to be seen not only in Moscow, but in towns and cities throughout the Soviet Union, when soccer teams are vying for the republican or regional titles. Every city and collective farm has its soccer championship contests, and soccer fans the country over watch the games with no less interest than the Muscovites who cram Dynamo Stadium on the day of the "big game."

The Soviet system of soccer competition gives every team in the country the chance to reach the pinnacle of soccer fame. Every factory, plant, collective or state farm team enjoys equal opportunity to climb the soccer ladder, and only the USSR soccer title is the limit for those who make the grade.

The national soccer title in the first group is at present contested by 14 of the country's strongest teams. These teams are: Moscow Dynamo, Spartak, Central House of the Red Army, the Leningrad, Tbilisi, Kiev and Minsk Dynamo elevens, the Moscow and Stalingrad Torpedo teams, the Moscow and Kuibyshev Wings of the Soviets teams, Moscow Locomotive, Leningrad Zenith and the Air Force Team.

Seventy-four soccer teams are competing for the right to play in the country's first group. These 74 teams represent 15 Union republics. The republics cover an enormous territory, and for that reason, play among the teams is conducted in six territorial zones. The winners of zonal honors then meet in a final play-off, and its winner is then eligible for a berth in the first group.

SOCCER. A July match between the Spartak and Central House of the Red Army teams.

Soccer is extremely popular in the Soviet Union. The game is played in every corner of the Soviet Union—in the Caucasus, Central Asia, in the Far East and in the Far North.

There are more than 315 thousand active participants of the game in the USSR. They are organized into club teams representing schools, institutes, factories and plants. Thousands of soccer matches are witnessed every year. Naturally, the greatest interest is attracted by the country's top-notchers who battle it out for the national soccer title and for the USSR soccer cup. Competitions for the championships of the various republics also attract considerable interest. Then there are, of course, many other contests for cup play in cities, etc.

Last year, for instance, the champion of the Russian Federation was the Khabarovsk Dynamo eleven from the Far East.

Soviet youth enjoy soccer and play the game with great zest. The Soviet Government, the trade unions and cooperative organizations expend considerable funds for physical culture activities in our country. These funds are used for the upkeep of stadiums, soccer fields, gymnasiums, and a staff of physical culture specialists. Soccer players participating in competitions enjoy certain privileges. Whenever they are scheduled for games with teams in other cities, they continue to draw their average pay from their place of work. There are no professional athletes in the USSR.

Soviet soccer has contributed plenty of new wrinkles in soccer tactics. One of the best representatives of the Soviet style of soccer play is no doubt the Moscow Dynamo team. Dynamo has matched its skill successfully with the British Arsenal and Cardiff teams. The tussles with the British teams netted the Soviet teams two victories and two tied games, or 19 goals won and 9 lost. Their trip to the Scandinavian countries last fall re-

sulted in victories over the Swedish champions—the Norrkoping team, over the Gothenburg-Kamraterna team, and later over the Norwegian Sheid eleven. Their score card after that trip read: 17 goals scored and 2 goals lost.

Dynamo is now leading in the race for the country's soccer title. This famous eleven has won four of the country's soccer titles and captured the USSR cup in 1937.

Among the leading teams who are right on Dynamo's heels are the Spartak, Tbilisi and Leningrad Dynamo teams, and the Central House of the Red Army team. Every one of these teams is a potential winner of the coveted USSR soccer title. The difference separating them and Dynamo is only two or three points.

Soviet soccer coaches, themselves former star players, enjoy the respect of our players. Among them are the well-known Masters of Sports Yakushin, Butusov, Tovarovsky, Isakov, Arkadyev and others. They have done a great deal for Soviet soccer. They have guided our top-notch soccer aces.

Our referees are admired and respected all over the country. The names of Nikolai Latyshev, Mikhail Dmitriyev, Nikolai Usov and others are known to lovers of the game at home and in many countries outside of the Soviet Union.

Many of the Soviet soccer players have won fame and have become a byword among our sports fans. Who doesn't know goalies Vladimir Nikanorov, Alexei Khomich, Alexei Leontyev, Anatoli Akimov; forwards Vladimir Dyomin, Vassili Trofimov, Nikolai Dementyev and Sergei Solovyov; halfbacks Blinkov and Ryazantsev; or backs Vassili Sokolov and Mikhail Semichastny? All of them have taken part in international soccer contests.

Outside of these soccer aces there are many other young stars who are ready to join the ranks of the country's leading teams.

This mass character of Soviet sports has become possible because of the splendid physical culture system, because of physical training in the USSR. Millions of athletes are trained under this system in the Soviet Union, athletes full of energy, daring and, above all, the determination and will to win. And these are the qualities which have placed our soccer players in the front ranks of Soviet athletes.

Journey to India

By I. Osipov

Member of the Geographical Society of the USSR

A NUMBER of monographs have recently been published in the USSR on famous Russian seamen and travelers who helped develop the science of geography. Among our great explorers a place of honor belongs to Afanasy Nikitin, the first European to visit India. He journeyed to India twenty-three years before Vasco da Gama.

The Russian historian Karamzin discovered in one of the old Russian Chronicles (the Sofia Chronicle) a description of Afanasy Nikitin's voyage. Karamzin's discovery was made at the end of the 18th century.

In 1466 several small vessels set out from Tver (now Kalinin, 150 kilometers* northwest of Moscow) on a voyage down the Volga. It was an expedition bound for Derbent, headed by a Tver merchant, Afanasy Nikitin. The vessels sped safely downstream to Astrakhan. Here they were attacked by the Tatars. Part of the fleet of vessels (the fleet included the ships of a Russian embassy headed by Vassili Panin) was seized by the Tatars; the other vessels escaped and continued their way across the Caspian Sea. Here another misfortune awaited them. The vessels were driven apart by a violent storm and one was cast ashore, where the entire crew was seized by the mountaineers. Only one of the embassy ships reached Derbent, where Afanasy Nikitin landed with the ambassador.

The merchant of Tver had lost all his possessions and so he resolved to travel eastward by land and sea in order to recoup his fortunes.

Throughout all his travels, which lasted six years, the bold and inquisitive merchant kept notes on what he saw. Afanasy Nikitin's diary, reproduced in the Sofia Chronicle, enables us to follow the route taken by the first European to reach India.

He crossed Persia from north to south and reached the coast of the Persian Gulf. Here alluring tales of a wonderful country where "diamonds grow in mountains of stone," tales of India, a country unknown to Europeans, encouraged Nikitin to set out on a risky voyage.

He journeyed across the Indian ocean on a small schooner. Finally he reached the shores of India in safety and the Russian traveler set eyes on a country about which Europeans had no reliable information.

The first European had set foot on the mysterious land of India. The foreign merchant was given a hearty reception and, his diary reports, was treated handsomely. But Nikitin was an object of curiosity to all. "Wherever I go," he wrote, "I am followed by a crowd of people astonished at the sight of a white man."

Some of Nikitin's notes give us an idea of his philosophy and show that, for his time, he was a man of advanced views. "The whole of Hindustan," he wrote, "is ruled by a 20-year-old Sultan. He has three hundred thousand warriors. The people of India, his subjects, are numerous but poor, especially in the villages. The Khorosan nobles, however, are rich. . . ."

In 1471 Nikitin set out on the journey home. Again he entrusted his fate to a frail boat in which to cross the Indian Ocean. The tiny schooner was caught in a storm and almost foundered. It took Nikitin a month to sail from the shores of India to the African coast. And finally the Russian traveler reached the shores of the Crimea. But the great privations of the long journey had sapped his strength. Nikitin died before he could return to his native town of Tver; he gave his notes, however, to one of his companions.

On the last page of his diary there is a note which typifies Nikitin's great love for his native land. When he landed on his native soil, he wrote: "There is an abundance of everything in foreign lands, but there is no land more abundant or more beautiful than Russia, may God protect her! There is no other land so beautiful in the world. May the Russian land thrive!"

*1 kilometer = .621 of one mile.

A Muscovite's Diary

THE TALK of the town these days is the harvest. Whether you're a scientist, bookkeeper or steel worker—everybody's talking about this year's bumper crop. The Ministry of Agriculture has reported that 28 million acres more grain and leguminous crops were harvested by July 25 of this year than by the same time in 1947. More machinery was used this year than last, too. Combines are being used much more widely. Thus far, they have been used to harvest and thresh 7,500,000 more acres of grain this year than last.

Something new has been added, too, in the use of machinery on our farms—the "tractor-talkie," or two-way radio. Nine machine-and-tractor stations in Soviet Georgia have installed 110 radio sets for use between the offices of the stations and the tractor brigades in the fields. If anything breaks down on one of the machines, mobile repair shops are informed by the driver via radio, and repair service is on the spot almost at once.

PRICES ARE DROPPING steadily. In Kishinev, for example, the price of vegetables, new potatoes and cherries dropped one-half in the last few days. Cheese and other dairy products are about 25 per cent cheaper. In Riga, food prices have fallen 30 to 40 per cent during the past two months. We think this is nice going.

ALTHOUGH THE CROPS are coming along so well—they're reaching prewar levels—we still have a big housing problem. Progress is noticeable, however. The latest statistics show that in the regions the Nazis occupied, about nine million collective farmers have moved from temporary housing into comfortable houses. That's more than the entire population of New York City. In Byelorussia, where 340 thousand houses have been built for 1,800,000 persons, they are really doing a terrific job. They have several factories which are already sending solidly-built prefabricated houses to the miners in the Donbas and Krivoi Rog (in the Ukraine), and the Byelorussians say that next year, a complete, unassembled house will leave the factory (in their biggest factory) every 45 minutes. These prefabricated houses can be assembled on prepared foundations within a few hours. Of course, the ravages of war have not been completely eliminated, and makeshift housing resulting from the war still exists throughout the country, but the progress has certainly been tremendous. The pace is stepping up, not lagging.

THE SUMMER is more than half over, and I haven't taken my vacation yet. So I take a particular interest in other people's holidays. I just read that 10 thousand Stalino miners went for their vacations at the beginning of the summer to resorts in the Crimea, the Caucasus and the Ukraine. Another 10 thousand Stalino mine employees—miners, technicians, engineers, etc.—are scheduled to take their vacations in those same beautiful sanatoriums and vacation spots during the latter part of the summer. As usual, the state social insurance funds and the trade unions are covering the cost in most cases. And even the highest wage earners pay only 30 per cent of the cost of their vacations. This applies not only to miners, but to engineers, technicians, office workers—to all white-collar and professional workers employed by the mines.

I DID HAVE a nice little trip to Leningrad recently, even though it wasn't really a vacation trip. While I was there, I stopped in to take a look at the fur auction. It was the nineteenth international fur auction, and for the first time since the war, there were representatives of fur firms from Italy, Holland, Mexico and Czechoslovakia. There were about 130 representatives from fur companies of 12 countries. There was lively competition among the buyers, and, as has usually been the case, the biggest purchases were made by the American firms, followed by the British and Swiss. The furs were beautiful—even finer quality than usual.

"PRAVDA" CORRESPONDENTS are always on the spot with interesting news. I was passing the time of day with one of them yesterday and he mentioned the fact that over 33 million children will be going to the schools throughout the country during the 1948-1949 school year. He compared this with the fact that before the Revolution, only 7,900,000 pupils went to school throughout the whole of Russia.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

August 30-September 12

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from August 30 to September 12 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A. M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P. M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P. M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Monday and Fridays, August 30, September 3, 10—Scientific and cultural programs.

Tuesday, August 31—Program for farmers.

Wednesday, September 1—Program for youth.

Thursdays and Monday, September 2, 6, 9—Economic affairs.

Tuesday, September 7—Program for women.

Wednesday, September 8—Trade unions.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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SCHOOL STARTS. A group of freshmen at Lomonosov State University, Moscow. FRONT COVER. Hero of Socialist Labor Buda Tserin Tugutov, of the Buryat-Mongolian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic, Soviet Siberia. He is a collective farmer. (For story on farm Heroes of Socialist Labor, see page 529.) BACK COVER. Biology lesson in the sixth grade of a Gorlovka school.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.2 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

1896

1948

Colonel General Andrei Alexandrovich Zhdanov

Andrei Zhdanov—In Memoriam

The following obituary tribute, signed by leaders of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and of the Soviet State, appeared in Soviet newspapers September 1.

On August 31, there died after a grave illness, Colonel General Comrade Andrei Alexandrovich Zhdanov, one of the outstanding builders and leaders of the Communist Party and of the Soviet State, a member of the Political Bureau and Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), and Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Andrei Zhdanov was born on February 26, 1896 in the town of Mariupol into the family of an inspector of public schools. At the age of 16 (in 1912), after his father moved to Tver, Zhdanov joined the revolutionary movement and began participating in social-democratic circles of student youth in the town of Tver (now Kalinin).

Zhdanov joined the Bolshevik Party in 1915. He conducted active Party work in the working class district in Tver and soon became a Party worker. When called to the colors during the First World War he conducted Bolshevik propaganda among the soldiers and participated in preparing and carrying through the Great October Socialist Revolution in the Urals. In the years of the Civil War, Comrade Zhdanov engaged in political education in Red Army units and conducted Party and Soviet work in the Urals and in Tver. In 1922 Comrade Zhdanov was elected Chairman of the Tver Gubernia Executive Committee. From 1924 to 1934, he conducted leading Party work in Gorky Territory as Secretary of the Party Committee of the Gorky Gubernia, and Secretary of the Gorky Territorial Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

At the 14th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) Zhdanov was elected alternate member of the Central Com-

mittee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), at the 16th Congress he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and after the 17th Congress he was elected Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Comittee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

Comrade Zhdanov conducted extensive Party and state work. He devoted much attention to ideological problems and to Marxist and Leninist theory. In his speech at the First Congress of the Union of Soviet Writers he outlined the most important tasks in the development of Soviet literature.

After the villainous assassination of Kirov in December 1934, the Party sent Comrade Zhdanov to work in the Leningrad Party Organization which he headed during the period from 1934 to 1944 inclusive.

Fulfilling the will of the Party, Zhdanov, with his characteristic Bolshevik ardor, inspired and mobilized the Leningrad Party organization to crush and eradicate the Trotskyite-Zinovyevite double dealers and traitors, and rallied the Leningrad Bolsheviks still closer around the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and Comrade Stalin.

On the eve of the 18th Congress, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) entrusted Comrade Zhdanov with the direction of the Party's agitation and propaganda work. At the 18th Party Congress he delivered the *Report on Problems of Party Building*. Zhdanov devoted all of his energy to any assignment given him by the Party. After the 18th Party Congress, Comrade Zhdanov was elected a member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks). In the years of the Great Patriotic War, the Party and Government entrusted Comrade Zhdanov with the organization of the defense of Leningrad. Following directives of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and of Comrade Stalin, the Leningrad Bolsheviks, headed by Comrade Zhdanov, became the soul of the heroic defense of the city of Lenin. For his work on the Leningrad front the rank of Lieutenant General and later the rank of Colonel General was conferred upon Comrade Zhdanov.

For his outstanding Party and military work Comrade Zhdanov was decorated with two Orders of Lenin, the Order of the Red Banner, the Order of Suvorov, First Class, the Order of Kutuzov, First Class, and the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

Problems of ideological work became prominent in the life of the Party and country after the victory in the Great Patriotic War, when the Party and the people turned to peaceful construction. Being an outstanding Marxist theoretician and a most talented propagandist of the great ideas of Lenin and Stalin, Comrade Zhdanov made a series of brilliant reports on the problems of literature, philosophy and the international situation.

Andrei Alexandrovich Zhdanov was in the front ranks of leading workers of the international labor movement. His speeches are widely known to working people in all countries.

True follower and comrade-in-arms of the great Stalin, Comrade Zhdanov fought with fiery energy for the cause of communism, never sparing his strength or health. His vigorous life and activity are an example of selfless service to the Party and to the people. He earned the ardent love of the Party and of all working people by his selfless devotion to the great cause of Lenin and Stalin, by his profoundly principled stand which precluded any deviation from the general line of the Party.

Farewell, our dear friend and fighting Comrade!

(Signed):

Andreyev, Beria, Bulganin, Voznessensky, Voroshilov, Kaganovich, Kosygin, Kuznetsov, Malenkov, Mikoyan, Molotov, Ponomarenko, Popov, Stalin, Suslov, Khrushchev, Shvernik, Shkiryatov.

USSR Mourns Zhdanov

BLACK-BORDERED flags draped the facades of buildings throughout the Soviet Union as the country mourned the great loss of Colonel General Zhdanov. Newspapers announcing his death appeared with black borders, and carried an obituary tribute signed by J. V. Stalin, V. M. Molotov, and other leaders of the Soviet State, as well as letters of condolence from leading public, state, trade union, and scientific bodies and figures.

Memorial meetings were held throughout the USSR. The sorrow of the citizens of Leningrad, where Zhdanov lived and worked for many years, where he was personally known to thousands, and where the defense of the city against the Nazi armies was directed by him, was particularly profound.

One theme ran through the thousands of meetings held in Zhdanov's memory. In factories and on farms, from the Baltic to Central Asia, from the Arctic to the sub-tropics of the USSR, the people pledged in his memory to carry out the work to which he had contributed so much, to build their country's economy, to achieve a better life.

Speaking at a memorial meeting on August 31 at the Red Sormovo Plant at Gorky, which Zhdanov frequently visited, foreman Kalmykov said: "I met Comrade Zhdanov many a time. He was a man endowed with a great soul, sensitive heart and profound mind. I met Zhdanov not only here but in Leningrad during the difficult years of the blockade. In those hard times in Leningrad Andrei Alexandrovich was confident as usual of the triumph of our cause. He used to say to us that the duty of all the Soviet people was not to lose our bearings during difficult times, but to rally even closer behind our Party."

Academician Vavilov, President of the USSR Academy of Sciences, writes in *Pravda*:

"With the passing of Andrei Alexandrovich the Soviet intelligentsia as well as all the progressive cultural world have lost a remarkable theoritician of the new Soviet culture . . ."

Pravda's Comment on the Danube Navigation Conference

On August 18 the Conference which drafted and adopted the Convention on the Danube navigation regime, completed its work. The new Convention is signed by all the Danubian States which took part in the work of the Conference as full-fledged members: the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Bulgarian People's Republic, the Hungarian People's Republic, the Romanian People's Republic, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Czechoslovak Republic, and the Federated People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

In accordance with the decision which was made, the signed treaty will enter into force after its ratification by a majority of the Conference participants—i.e., by six States. The Danube Conference proceeded under conditions of genuine democracy, conditions which ensured the solution of the problems confronting the Conference in a spirit of international co-operation and in the interests of the Danubian countries.

The Conference reflected the profound fundamental changes which have occurred in recent years in the life of the peoples of Eastern Europe. There was a time when the imperialist powers, first and foremost Britain and France, held undivided sway on the banks of the Danube. They considered themselves the masters of the Danube. In those days the Danube Commission operated on a basis of unequal and unjust treaties, and was the instrument of economic and political domination by non-Danubian States over the Danube. The taxes and dues collected for navigation on the Danube landed, in the long run, in the safes of international banks, while the River's economy stagnated because the necessary work for deepening and clearing the channel was not done.

The long period of rule by Western imperialists on the Danube culminated logically during the Munich period in the handing of the control of this waterway to the German fascist aggressors. This is how the Danube became one of the channels for Hitler's *Drang nach Osten.*

Much water has flowed under the Danube bridges since then. As a result of the military rout of German fascism by the Soviet Army, the Danubian countries were able to become full masters of their destiny. Having cast off the yoke of capitalist domination, they are marching forward on the high-road of democratic development. The old order can never be restored in this section of Europe.

Two political policies diametrically-opposed in principle clashed at the Danube Conference, just as they have clashed at other international conferences during the postwar period. As early as 1946 V. M. Molotov described these two policies, at the Paris Peace Conference, in connection with the discussion of the Danube problem: "Two diametrically-opposed methods exist in international life. One method, well-known from ancient times, is the method of violence and domination, for which all means of pressure are suitable. The other method, which, it is true, is as yet insufficiently widely-developed, is the method of democratic co-operation based on recognition of the principle of equality and the lawful interests of all states, large and small. We have no doubt that, despite all obstacles, the method of democratic co-operation among countries will triumph in the end."

The entire course of the Danube Conference is a vivid illustration of these words. Those who still need proof of the expansionist aspirations of the Western Powers in Eastern Europe may safely be referred to the speeches of the American, British and French delegates in Belgrade. Their pronouncements show that the Western Powers hopelessly cling to their position of 1921, when the Convention which violated the sovereign rights and vital interests of the Danube States was signed. At the present Conference, the Western Powers were given an opportunity to prove in actual deeds that they were really prepared to respect the independence and sovereignty of all the peoples of the Danube Basin, and to manifest good will for co-operation with them on the basis of equality. The United States, Britain and France did not avail themselves of this opportunity—they cast it aside, clinging to their long-standing imperialist policy. They have forgotten that when the rights and interests of free and independent peoples are in question, such a policy is doomed to failure. That is why the Western Powers suffered political and diplomatic defeat at the Danube Conference.

The press abroad appears furious that at the Danube Conference the Soviet Union and the countries of people's democracy had the majority and that this majority in conformity with normal democratic procedure adopted the decisions, which were dictated by the interests of international co-operation and were fully in accord with the decisions on the Danube question agreed upon in the Foreign Ministers' Council . . .

. . . Yet, how many vociferous speeches have been made in Washington, London and Paris during recent years concerning the "rights of the majority!" Why then raise such a hue and cry when, at a conference considering a number of problems which indisputably concern first and foremost the interests of the East European countries, the majority of votes rightly belongs to these countries?

The Danube Convention of 1948 meets the vital interests of the Danube States. It fully ensures freedom of navigation, guaranteeing for the first time genuine—and not merely formal—equality of flags on the Danube. The new Danube Convention is a document which fully meets the interests of peace, democracy and justice. It has nothing in common with the unjust, onerous terms of the 1921 Convention. There is no room for such terms—nor could there be any—in our days. A new page has been opened in the history of the Danube.

General Education In the USSR

By Alexander Voznessensky
Minister of Education of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic

THE tremendous cultural advancement of the entire Soviet people is one of the cardinal achievements of the Soviet system—the Great October Socialist Revolution made all the treasures of culture accessible to the broadest masses.

The advent of universal compulsory education in the languages of the different nationalities of the USSR; compulsory seven-grade education in towns and workers' settlements; an increase in the number of schools and pupils of all grades; an expansion of the chain of higher educational establishments and an increase in the number of their students and graduates and the training of the new Soviet intelligentsia—these are some of the essential elements characterizing the cultural progress of the Soviet people.

Universal compulsory education of children, beginning at the age of seven, is the cardinal principle of public education in the USSR.

In all towns and workers' settlements, compulsory seven-year education of children, as a minimum, is in force; and it is becoming established in rural localities.*

Closely connected with the principle of universal compulsory education is the principle of a single school, the principle of direct continuity between the different stages of school. The study programs and curriculums of elementary, junior secondary and secondary schools are prepared so that a student who graduates from one may immediately enter the next, higher school.

*Seven-year education is available for children in all rural localities throughout the USSR. Some rural children, however, begin attending trades and railway schools before they complete the seven-year school.

YOUNG STUDENT. A schoolgirl of Orel.

One of the distinctive features of the Soviet educational system is the full equality of all peoples. Children of all nationalities can attend any school in the country. Every Soviet republic has a ramified chain of schools. Children study the various subjects in their native language, learn their own literature, history, etc. The study of the Russian language, which is the general State language of the Soviet Union, is, however, obligatory in all schools.

Men and women in the Soviet

VISITOR. A father visits his son's school. Soviet education places great emphasis on participation by parents.

Union are accorded equal rights in the field of education, as in all other fields of public, political and economic life. Schools of all types are equally accessible to men and women.

In the general schools boys and girls study identical subjects in accordance with the same curriculums. The Soviet Union has coeducational as well as separate schools for boys and girls.

All schools in the Soviet Union work hand in hand with various public organizations, among them trade unions, youth, and parent organizations; factories, mills, and collective farms also undertake to help the schools which are located in their areas. All these organizations render various forms of aid to the schools.

State assistance in rearing Soviet children begins during the preschool age. With this aim in mind the Soviet Union maintains a large network of kindergartens, playgrounds and children's homes which cater to children of preschool age.

The kindergarten is a state-maintained institution for the guidance of children between the ages of three and seven. On January 1, 1948, the RSFSR alone had 17,113 kindergartens. The kindergarten's goal is the rounded development of the child's personality. The activities of the kindergarten are organized with the aim of guiding the child's health—his physical and mental development. In the kindergartens, children learn the elements of behavior in a collective organization, learn to perform tasks that develop their sense of self-reliance and pleasure in work.

At present the Soviet Union has almost two hundred thousand general educational schools of all types, whose total enrollment is nearly 32 million students.

The general educational school system consists of the following: the elementary school, which has a four-year course of study; the junior secondary school of seven grades, and the full secondary school of ten grades. There are also special schools for children who have physical defects—the blind, the deaf-mutes, etc. Pupils of such schools are given the rudiments of vocational training as well as a general education.

The general educational system also includes schools for working youth and schools for rural youth, instituted for older boys and girls who work in industry or on collective farms and state farms, and who wish to acquire a full secondary education without quitting their jobs. The program of study at these schools is identical with that of the regular secondary school. There is no tuition fee at these schools and pupils get paid vacations when they take their examinations, in addition to their regular vacations.

The system of public education in the USSR also includes children's homes—institutions which rear orphans. In children's homes the children are fully maintained by the State; orphans receive their education in the regular schools.

The main aim of the Soviet school is the comprehensive development of the personality: mentally, morally and aesthetically. Education in the schools also lays the basis for the physical development of the child and for a polytechnical education.

The knowledge a pupil acquires in the Soviet school is distinguished for its systematic and scientific nature. The subjects taught in school are based on the latest achievements of science and are given in a manner that is comprehensible to children of the respective school ages.

The curriculums of the general educational school embrace four main branches of human knowledge: the science of inorganic nature; sciences relating to living organisms; historical sciences, and the sciences of human thought. In the first group are such

ORPHANS. Study-room in an orphanage. The children attend public schools. Orphanages are part of the educational system.

FOREST SCHOOL. Special schools serve the needs of children with problems of health or handicaps. In the park of the school.

subjects as physics, chemistry, mathematics, etc.; in the second, botany, zoology, anatomy, physiology, and the theory of evolution; in the third, history, literature, the Russian language, foreign languages and geography; and in the fourth group, logic and psychology. The aesthetic education program includes music, singing and drawing. The problem of physical development is provided for by special physical culture lessons and various extracurricular athletic activities.

While they gain theoretical knowledge, the pupils also acquire practical training. For example, the study of botany is not limited to the textbook: pupils also are taught how to grow plants. The lessons in physics not only acquaint the pupils with various laws of physics—the boys and girls also learn how to conduct experiments, how to handle various instruments and apparatus, how to apply the laws of physics in daily life.

Beginning with the junior grades, Soviet school children learn that science is of great practical importance, that its development is closely linked to the progress of engineering, industry and agriculture. Eagerness for knowledge and a love and respect for science are nurtured in the minds of Soviet children.

In addition to classroom studies and homework, the school conducts extracurricular activities of diverse types and forms on a large scale. They consist of various "circles"—scientific, technical, athletic, literary, dramatic, music, natural history, etc.,—readers' conferences, literary forums, lectures on scientific and political subjects, etc. Every student chooses the type of extracurricular activity which best suits his inclinations. The school is assisted in its work by an extensive chain of extracurricular institutions: children's clubs, children's parks, excursion and travel stations, gardens and laboratories for young naturalists, laboratories for young technicians, children's theaters and moving picture houses, children's libraries, etc. In the 1947-1948 academic year, the RSFSR alone had 621 children's clubs, 289 laboratories for young technicians, 189 laboratories and gardens for young naturalists, 84 children's parks, 40 excursion and travel stations, etc.

All the activities of these institutions have as their goal the development of the creative and artistic abilities of the growing generation.

The unity of the school and family is an outstanding feature of the Soviet educational system. All schools have parents' committees. Parents visit the schools often and keep in close contact with the teachers. With the teachers, they follow the children's progress in their studies, and their behavior. Teachers regularly visit the families of the students, become acquainted with their living conditions and advise parents on the raising of children. The school also disseminates knowledge on this subject among parents by organizing lectures on the problems of rearing children. Many schools have organized what are known as "parents' universities," where various lectures are delivered to parents on pedagogy, psychology, hygiene, medicine, etc.

In addition to the general educational network the USSR also has a ramified system of vocational schools. Among these are the trades, railway and industrial-training schools which come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor Reserves and have as their goal the training of skilled workers for industry. They accept students who have completed an elementary education. The term of study in these schools ranges from two to three years and the pupils are given free tuition and full maintenance by the State.

KAZAKH SCHOOLGIRLS. In the Asiatic part of the USSR, where under the tsars the people were oppressed and uneducated.

The curriculums of trades and railway schools provide both for industrial-technical training and the study of general educational subjects. While acquiring a definite trade, the youngsters also extend their general knowledge by studying such subjects as the Russian language, mathematics, physics, and history.

Young men and women who have completed junior secondary school may continue their education not only in the secondary school but in special technical secondary schools known as *technicums*. The large network of such schools trains technicians for industry, and specialists for the transport, agriculture and health services. The term of study in *technicums* ranges from three to four years. The students attending *technicums* receive state stipends and are provided with dormitories. Along with the general subjects which are included in the program of the regular secondary schools, the curriculums of the *technicums* include special subjects in their respective fields. Great attention is paid to the practical training which students must undergo in factories and mills, state farms, health institutions, etc.

Persons who graduate from *technicums* may begin working. However, they may also continue their education in higher educational establishments. Even those who begin work may obtain a higher education from the correspondence departments of higher institutions of learning.

The highest level of the educational system of the USSR is composed of the universities, institutes and academies. In the 1947-1948 academic year, the Soviet Union had eight hundred higher educational establishments with a total student body of 670 thousand, i.e., more than all the other countries of Europe combined.

And the Soviet educational system is thoroughly democratic: for it is accessible to all the people and it serves their interests exclusively.

FAMOUS FARMER. Varvara Yuritsina, though young, is a Hero of Socialist Labor and famous for her wheat harvests.

Heroes of Peace

"WE'RE over the top! We've reaped three tons per hectare*!"

Excited and rejoicing, young Varvara Yuritsina ran from the weighing shed of the Red Beacon Collective Farm in Rostov Region, into the fields of heavy wheat, to tell her teammates, not one of whom is more than 20 years old, of their rich crop.

Varvara Yuritsina is a Hero of Socialist Labor; on her breast gleams the golden star which is the highest decoration of the Soviet Union.

In the Soviet Union anyone—even the youngest worker at the most ordinary work—may become a person of nationwide note, if his contribution to his people's welfare is great. This contribution can come only through fine work—work which points the way to a future of greater prosperity, which demonstrates methods of greater production.

Until 1947, the Hero of Socialist Labor award was given only for industrial and scientific achievement. Last year, as it became apparent that there were among the peasants many who were working with true heroism to produce the rich harvest so badly needed to heal the wounds of war, it was decided to recognize the achievements of these people with this highest decoration.

Varvara Yuritsina was one of those so honored in 1947. On the Rostov steppe, whipped with hot winds and once considered hopelessly infertile, her team grew three tons of wheat per hectare. And this year, though they had pledged to grow only 2.5 tons per hectare, they bettered their 1947 record.

There are many such heroes of peace on the farms of the Soviet Union. They are peasants, but peasants such as no other country can boast. In a recently published series of pamphlets, many of them told of their methods and of their approach to their work.

M. E. Ozernoy of the Ukraine, for instance, recounted in his pamphlet that one of his neighbors had suggested that he keep his farming secrets to himself; that by sharing them he might lose his pre-eminence as others learned to farm as well as he. Ozernoy was contemptuous of this idea.

"To teach the youth," he wrote, "is my sacred duty. The more heroes there are, the more grain there will be for our country. For the road is open to all—both to young and old. It is only necessary to labor honestly and to be on friendly terms with science."

In the group which worked with him, he added, all the members had secondary educations, had studied physics, chemistry, and natural science, and were capable of applying their knowledge to agrotechnique.

Basti Bagirova, a woman collective farmer of Soviet Azerbaijan, wrote in her pamphlet:

"I always remember that a good harvest is produced by people.

"Often a leader of a group has a good knowledge of agrotechnical methods, of the rules of their interrelation and application, and things still don't go well. Here the cause must be sought exclusively in that person's inability to organize labor, to assign people to their proper places, to lead them and to direct their efforts toward attainment of the goal."

In another part of her pamphlet, she says:

"One hundred and five centners* of cotton per hectare is not simply a high harvest. It is an expresion of the best feelings of the Soviet people. It is an expression of love for our country, and one wants, therefore, to say: 'One hundred and five is not yet enough.

* All references are to metric tons. One metric ton = 2204.622 pounds. One hectare = 2.471 acres.

* One metric centner = 220.46 pounds.

PRIZE WINNER. E. Kvachakhiya of Abkhasia (left) is not only a Hero of Socialist Labor but a Stalin Prize winner.

There should and there shall be much more.' "

There are new Heroes of Socialist Labor this fall.

And this year the scene of joy that was enacted on the Red Beacon Collective Farm is being repeated, with ten thousand variations, throughout the length and breadth of the Soviet Union. There is a bumper crop this year—this year the harvest is magnificent. And this year the reaping extends over an area greater by 11 million hectares than last year's harvest area. For spring wheat, the most valuable crop, the sowing area this year was greater by 5,500,000 hectares than the sowing area in 1947.

The yield of grain in the Ukraine, in the North Caucasus and Moldavia is greater than last year's yield, and an abundant harvest has been obtained in Siberia and in the Urals. Many collective farms in the Kuban are harvesting an average of two tons of grain per hectare—and from some areas even more. A crop yield of 2.5 tons of grain per hectare, for instance, was secured on more than one thousand hectares on the Komsomolets Collective Farm. And thousands of masters of socialist agriculture have reaped as much as four to five tons of grain per hectare.

In one district of Rostov Region, the team of Evdokia Fedonenko, a team leader on the Kuibyshev Collective Farm, had pledged that they would obtain three tons of grain per hectare; the team harvested 5.5 tons per hectare.

By July 25, more than 10.5 million more hectares of grain had been harvested on collective farms and individual peasant farms than had been harvested by the same date last year. The winter grain is completely reaped in the Ukraine, the Saratov Region and many districts of the Central Belt and Byelorussia. The collective farmers of the Altai Territory and the Novosibirsk and Omsk Regions have begun reaping their winter rye.

Self-propelled combines are being used on a large scale for the first time this year. Combines have cut more than three million more hectares of grain than they had cut during the corresponding period of 1947.

The mechanization of Soviet agriculture is a prime factor in the victories that have been won in the fields; for example, more than 1,300 combines are operating in the Kherson Region alone. But the unconquerable men and women collective farmers who set the pace, those who sow and tend the crops, who drive the tractors and operate the combines, those who organize and inspire and lead—they are the true secret of success of socialist agriculture, the decisive factor in the reaping of great harvests.

Who are they, these masters of the Soviet soil, these heroes of peace?

HONORED. Hero of Socialist Labor Nina Makarova of Orel Region.

TEAM LEADER. Anna Semanova is also a farm Hero of Socialist Labor.

Some of them are women like Varvara Yuritsina.

Since childhood Yuritsina has been interested in farming. In school she read extensively about agriculture; and she was an enthusiastic member of a young naturalists' study group in school, a group that was guided by an experienced agronomist. While she was still a child she decided that she, too, would be an agronomist.

After finishing the local agricultural school, she enrolled in a correspondence course in the Rostov Agricultural Institute; she still takes correspondence courses from the Institute, and whatever she learns in school she passes right on to the members of her team.

When Yuritsina finished high school, the Red Beacon Collective Farm had already established an excellent record. But Varvara had some searching questions to ask. Couldn't the work on the farm be better organized? Couldn't all of the farm's facilities be better utilized? Couldn't an even better crop yield be obtained? She conceived the idea of organizing an experimental field on which to put her theories to the test, and asked the executive board of the collective farm for permission to do it. Pleased with her initiative, the board allocated funds for a large collection of seeds, fertilizers and equipment for a laboratory, and set aside a special plot for Varvara's use. On her plot of land Varvara experimented with various mineral fertilizers; she conducted extensive tests in which she compared many varieties of mineral fertilizers; she developed diverse methods of planting cultures. And every useful result was immediately put to practical use by her team, by the entire farm. Her experimental work made it possible for the farm to grow better crops consistently; year after year both the quality and quantity of the crop yield have improved—and this on a once infertile steppe.

Another typical example of the Soviet farmer is 19-year-old Valeri Gavrushev, Hero of Socialist Labor and secretary of the Young Communist League of the Country of Soviets Collective Farm in Krasnoyarsk Territory, Siberia.

When Valeri finished high school he went to work on the farm as a tractor driver's assistant. Later he

helped to run a thresher; following this job he was an assistant in the collective farm laboratory, where he tended the plantings. During the winters he attended a study circle where he learned methods of cultivation of various crops—especially under the climatic conditions of his native Siberia. In 1947 the team of which he was a member reaped the richest crop on the farm.

Early in 1947 the Country of Soviets Collective Farm joined the nationwide socialist competition movement which aimed at the further development of Soviet agriculture. And Valeri became the leader of a team of six, which was entrusted with the raising of wheat on an area of 20 hectares.

During the winter he and the members of his team studied the experiences of the best grain-raisers in the land, talked to experienced collective farmers, and consulted agronomists. They built snow-walls and snow-barriers on their stretch of land in order to "save" the snow; when spring came they compressed the snow so that it would not melt; and when the thaw began, they mixed snow and earth together so that the moisture would sink deep into the ground.

In the early spring they prepared the ground for sowing, and after first testing seeds on the farm's experimental field, they planted those best suited to local conditions.

They took great care to provide the best conditions for the development of the crops. Where germination was weak, subfeeding with manure solution was applied; on the remainder of their land, mineral fertilizer was used. Throughout the vegetation period, care was taken to keep the crops clear of weeds and insects.

And at harvest time, the six reaped a magnificent crop, for the area, of three tons of wheat per hectare. This year again Valeri Gavrushev is leading the work on his farm for a successful harvest.

There is V. M. Romanchenko, Hero of Socialist Labor and member of the Red Partisan Collective Farm in Taganrog District of Rostov Region. Romanchenko has applied the furrow method of sowing winter barley with brilliant results, and is the leader of a group which this year pledged to raise a crop of five tons of winter wheat per hectare.

When Romanchenko makes a pledge, he plans to keep it. In his pamphlet, he wrote:

"My obligations are posted in the office of the collective farm, on the sector of my group in the fields, and in my home . . . The Communist Party and the Government know my obligations. Stalin knows them. I must fulfill them with honor."

ASIAN FARMERS. There are many farm heroes in the Asiatic part of the USSR. With the farm bookkeeper (left) Heroes of Socialist Labor of the Stalin Collective Farm, Khakass Autonomous Region, examine their records.

DIRECTOR. Fyodor Boiko (left) Hero of Socialist Labor, is director of the country's largest grain farm, the Gigant State Farm.

IT is harvest time in the land of Soviets, harvest time in a year that promised and gave a bumper crop. But it is more—it is the unfolding of the promise of socialist agriculture. It is the augury of greater fulfillment in the years to come.

And these men and women who tenderly nurture their crops in the Soviet fields will give glorious shape to that promise of fulfillment.

A Soviet Farm

A FEW YEARS ago poverty stalked the countryside of old Russia. An iron plow was a rarity; most farmers owned horses but many drew the plow with their shoulders. Oppressed by landlords who robbed him of the riches of the land, the peasant lived in squalor and near-starvation.

The October Revolution and the victory of the collective farm system changed all that. Now the tractor, the self-propelled combine, and modern agrotechnical methods are the basis of Soviet farming; and the Soviet peasant is prosperous and secure.

A typical Soviet farm is the Red October Collective Farm in Kirov Region. First formed in 1924 by nine peasant families, it now unites 158 peasant households. The Red October Farm has an agricultural laboratory, its own churning and other dairy machinery, an ample herd of its own livestock. It obtains all the farm machinery it needs—such as tractors, etc.—from a nearby state machine-and-tractor station. Its staff includes a full-time agronomist, and the farm keeps in constant contact with research and experimental agrotechnical institutes—the most modern methods are used. And each peasant has his own personal plot of land and livestock.

This is the story of the Red October Farm—the story of the victory of the Revolution and the collective farm system in the Soviet Union. These are the sons and daughters of the "mujiks" of old.

CHAIRMAN. P. A. Prozorov, who heads the farm.

HOTHOUSE. Early vegetables grow here.

DAIRY. The farm's butter is famous throughout the region.

SORTING SHED. Seed grain is selected here. The shed is electrified. A smiling farm girl ties the full sacks.

WIDOW. Anna Prozorova, whose husband was killed during the war, and her daughter in their house.

CARPENTER SHOP. A young man learns the trade.

TAILOR SHOP. The farm tailor makes a coat.

NURSERY. While their parents are busy, these little ones are cared for in the sunny nursery of the farm.

REST HOME. The farm has its own "summer hotel" where the farmers rest. Breakfast at the rest home.

RESTAURANT. At the public dining hall, the farmers may buy tasty meals.

On Academician Lysenko's Report

(From "Pravda," August 12, 1948)

THE session of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences concluded its work a short time ago. Academician Lysenko's report at this session was approved by the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and expresses the opinion of the Bolshevik Party.

Biology, as the science of the laws of the origin and development of life, is one of the most important component parts of the natural scientific basis of the Marxist-Leninist world outlook. It is understandable, therefore, that the work of the session was of nationwide interest.

Academician Lysenko's report shows profoundly and clearly that two diametrically-opposed trends exist in biology: the progressive, materialist, Michurin trend—named after its founder, the great transformer of nature, the eminent Soviet teacher of natural science, Michurin; and the reactionary, idealist, Weissman-Mendel-Morgan trend.

Throughout the whole course of its development, the field of biological science has been the arena of sharp ideological struggle. So it is today. The struggle of Michurin biological science against the Weissman trend in biology

Academician Trofim Lysenko

is the struggle of two irreconcilable world outlooks, the struggle of dialectical materialism against idealism, dialectics against metaphysics, science against mysticism. It is one of the forms of the ideological struggle being waged by Soviet Michurin scientists and progressive scientists abroad against the reactionary Weissman biologists.

Progressive scientists of the Michurin school are fighting against the slavishness and kowtowing to reactionary bourgeois-minded biologists which is unfortunately to be found among some of our Soviet biologists—among them Schmalhausen, Zavadovsky, Zhebrak, Dubinin and others. The representatives of the reactionary, idealist, Weissman-Morgan school, who have become divorced from the vital interests of the Soviet people, not only find themselves outside the struggle for planned modifications of nature on behalf of socialist society; they have also taken a road of struggle—unworthy of Soviet scientists—against the advanced Michurin doctrine. Instead of aiding their people to solve urgent tasks in the sphere of agriculture, they are putting the brakes on the advance of agricultural science, they are hampering the dissemination of its achievements. Their outlook bears the imprint of alien bourgeois ideology, and their scientific work is frequently worse than any form of inactivity.

The basic question in the sharply-intensified struggle which has divided biologists into two irreconcilable camps is an old question: is it possible for characteristics and features that are acquired by plant and animal organisms during their lifetime to be inherited by following generations? In other words, do the qualitative changes in the nature of plant and animal organisms depend on the quality of the conditions of the life that is influencing the organism? The Michurin doctrine, developed in the works of Michurin, Williams and Lysenko, a doctrine that is essentially materialist and dialectical, confirms this dependence on environment with facts. The Mendel-Morgan trend in biology, in essence a metaphysical and idealist trend, rejects this dependence without any proof. According to Morgan, living nature is a chaos of accidentally-scattered phenomena, devoid of necessary connections or regularity.

All the so-called laws of Mendel

(Continued on page 543)

SCIENTISTS. Participants in the session of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences.

Michurin Principles in Practice

THE Soviet collective and state farms have completed the harvest of a rich crop of berries from their orchards. Now the fruit-picking season has begun in the South.

Many excellent varieties of fruits and berries raised in the Soviet Union were developed by the late I. V. Michurin, the great Soviet scientist and remaker of nature. Two hundred and eight varieties of fruits and berries evolved by I. V. Michurin and his students have been adopted on a commercial scale on the farms of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. For their yields, their cold-resisting properties and their flavor, these varieties are considerably superior to many old varieties and especially to those that were imported from abroad.

Varieties of apples, pears, cherries, raspberries and gooseberries developed by I. V. Michurin are widely grown throughout the country. Many of these varieties enjoy tremendous popularity, for example, his *Slavianka, Chinese Bellflower* and *Saffron Pepin*—apple varieties; his *Russian Malgorzhatka, Winter Michurin Bere,* and *Blankova's Daughter*—pear varieties; his *Thorn Renclod,* and *Kolkhoz Renclod*—plum varieties; and his *Fertile Michurin* and *Beauty of the North,* cherry varieties and so on.

As a result of Michurin's work, fruit-growing has penetrated beyond the Urals, advanced into the Far North, and in the East has spread into the Archangelsk, Vologda, Sverdlovsk, Molotov, Chelyabinsk and Chkalov Regions, the Komi and Yakut Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics and to Siberia and the Far East, including the northern part of Sakhalin Island.

Michurin horticultural varieties are widely cultivated throughout the RSFSR, including its northeastern regions where undreamed-of development of fruit growing has taken place. Thus, for instance, in the Minusinsk District, in Krasnoyarsk Territory, where before the October Revolution not a single fruit tree grew, orchards today are blooming over an area of 1,700 hectares.* There is not a single collective farm in the District without an orchard.

YOUNG FRUIT. Inspection in the spring at the Michurin Genetics Laboratory.

The Altai is also becoming a land of flourishing orchards. In the Romanov, Loktev, Rubtsovsk, Shipunov and other districts, orchards have been planted on nearly every collective farm. The Molotov collective farm in Shipunov District has a beautiful orchard in which grow dozens of excellent Michurin varieties. The chairman of this collective farm, F. M. Grinko, upon whom has been conferred the title: Hero of Socialist Labor, is an ardent follower of Michurin.

Not so long ago there were no fruit trees in the Siberian city of Gorno-Altaisk. Today in that city there are about two thousand orchards that are tended by factory and office workers —orchards consisting of Michurin varieties of fruits and berries, as well as varieties that were developed by Siberian horticulturists.

Michurin horticulturist societies function in Novosibirsk, Biisk, Rubtsovsk and a number of other towns of the Kuzbas Basin.

The Michurin Horticultural Research Institute and its extensive network of experimental stations and bases are playing a tremendous organizational role in the dissemination of Michurin's teachings. In the city of Michurinsk there is another research institute—the Central Genetics Laboratory, headed by P. N. Yakovlev and I. S. Gorshkov, who are followers of Michurin. Both institutions are developing the theoretical heritage of Michurin, particularly his work in the development of new varieties of fruits and berries and their further extension into the north and the east.

The work of Michurin's followers is already producing great results. Excellent apple varieties such as *July, Excellent Rose,* and *Phoenix* have been developed by S. F. Chernenko, a Stalin Prize winner. Many varieties of apricots have been developed in the central RSFSR. The work of the Michurinites is extending to the Far North the cultivation of the southern apricot plant.

Interesting work has been done in viticulture in the north. Michurin himself had developed winter-resisting varieties of grapes—the *White Northern* and the *Russian Concord,* which are now being cultivated in the Tambov, Ryazan, Moscow, Kuibyshev, Tula and other regions of the RSFSR. A group of scientists is now engaged in choosing sites in the Moscow region for the planting of vineyards. The work of the Michurinites has proved that grapes may be commercially grown in the Urals and in Siberia.

The development of fruitgrowing in the personal gardens of the collective farmers has brought forth a great demand for nursery plants of Michurin varieties of apples, pears, plums, cherries and berries. To meet this demand, the network of nurseries is expanding considerably in the RSFSR. These nurseries will supply planting material to the collective farms as well as to amateur horticulturists.

The work begun by Michurin is being popularized among the broadest masses of the people.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

How Soviet Farmers Sell Their Crops

By S. Rodionov

THE collective farms in the Soviet Union sell their produce to three principle buyers: the State, the consumers' co-operatives, and, in the collective farm markets, directly to the consumer himself.

By far the greater part of the produce of collective farmers is sold to the State, which provides a basic, stable market.

The program of sale of produce to the State is planned well in advance on a country-wide scale. The basis of planning is a given amount of produce, (for instance, grain) per hectare* of arable land; or so much produce of livestock farms (for example, milk) per hectare of the entire land area of the farm, deliverable to State granaries, elevators, warehouses, etc. by a certain date. State prices are fixed, unfluctuating prices which do not vary from fall to spring, and vary little from year to year.

* One hectare=2.471 acres.

This system of trading affords the State with a stable basis for the purchase of agricultural produce, enables the State to plan its food resources, and to plan the development of commodity circulation between town and countryside. State trading makes it possible for the State to utilize agricultural produce as a powerful economic means of strengthening the socialist economy.

It would be a mistake, however, to conclude that this is a mechanical arrangement which encourages merely routine annual fulfillment by the collective farmers. For the farmers realize that this type of planning makes it possible for each collective farm to plan its growth and development, to plan its production quotas from year to year. And it provides an incentive to collective farmers to raise the crop yield of their fields, to extend the area under sowing, and to raise the productivity of livestock. The collective farmers realize that the success of the harvest of all crops and the productivity of the livestock determine directly the amount of grain and other produce that is available for the needs of the farm, and the amount of produce distributed among themselves for use or for sale. Every collective farmer realizes that he has a personal stake in the well-being of the farm and the fulfillment of the farm's obligation to the State.

The desire of the peasants to carry out their obligations to the State is expressed in the country-wide socialist competition between collective farms, districts, entire regions and republics for the right to be the first to inform the Government that they have fulfilled the plan for sale of grain and other agricultural produce to the State. The collective farmers of Krasnodar Territory gave a typical peasants' evaluation of State trading in a recent letter to Stalin, in which they pledged the delivery of grain to State elevators and warehouses ahead of schedule. They wrote:

"We have no more important concern than our concern for the interests of our own State. And the sooner we fill the State granaries with our grain, the greater will be the power and wealth of the Soviet country, and the better and happier will our own life become."

When Soviet peasants have fulfilled their obligations to the State, they sell much of their surplus to the consumers' co-operatives at prices which, while they range above the fixed State prices, do not fluctuate. As a market for agricultural produce, the co-operatives rank second in importance to the State.

Soviet co-operatives, which last year sold food products valued at 14,000,000,000 rubles in towns and cities, buy huge quantities of produce from the collective farmers. Part of the surpluses which the co-operatives buy from the collective farmers comes from the small plots of household land allocated for personal use and the subsidiary livestock which is the col-

GRAIN FOR THE COUNTRY. Wheat being sacked for sale to the State.

lective farmers' personal property. The co-operatives take the responsibility for transporting the produce from the farmers' plots to the storehouses and markets. The co-operatives also purchase grain from the collective farms, paying more than the State prices. Moreover, if the commodity is wheat, the collective farmers receive a premium in the form of an addition to the purchasing price.

The peasants not only sell agricultural produce to the co-operatives, but rely upon the co-operatives as a main source of supply of many industrial commodities, such as automobiles, certain types of agricultural implements, building materials, separators, gasoline, equipment for the subsidiary workshops of the collective farms, etc.

The collective farm market, of least importance as a market for agricultural produce, arose in the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans as a result of the success of the collective farm system and as a result of the rise in the well-being of the peasantry. Here the Soviet peasant sells his produce directly to the consumer.

Despite its subsidiary importance, the collective farm market helps to extend commodity circulation between town and farm, serving as an additional source of supply of agricultural produce to the people of towns and industrial centers.

The Soviet collective farm market differs fundamentally from the farm market in capitalist countries. Collective farms and individual farmers sell the products of their own labor. Between the buyer and seller in the Soviet farm market stands no parasitic middleman—no broker or merchant who "corners" produce and extorts profits by exploiting farmer and consumer alike. The step from farm to market is a single one. Managers of collective farm markets visit nearby farms and conclude agreements that provide for the organized shipment of definite quantities of meat, potatoes, cabbage, mushrooms, honey, milk, and various other products. The collective farmers deliver the products at the contracted time, selling their products at freely-established prices which are affected only by supply and demand, and the low State prices.

The Soviet Government gives every assistance to peasants who wish to sell their produce on the collective farm market. The markets are spacious and well-appointed. And in the year of 1945 alone, by direction of the Government, 1,200 booths were opened in which collective farmers may sell their produce; more than 240 warehouses were built for storing the products farmers bring to market; 55 hotels and 260 inns were built in towns and cities for the farmers, and seven hundred restaurants were built and opened near the markets. Moreover, 60 model markets were built and opened. And the Government recently recommended that the collective farms open their own booths for the sale of their produce; this recommendation is being successfully carried out.

VILLAGE MARKET. In Byelorussia. Here the farmers sell their surplus produce without fixed prices.

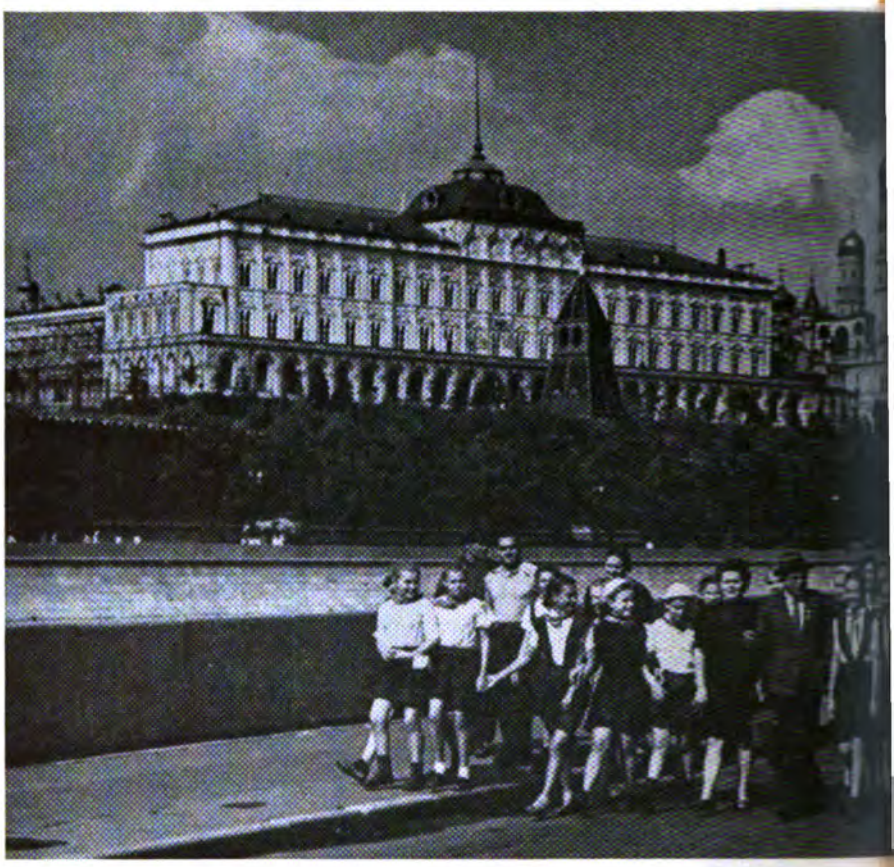
As a result of the assistance of the Government and the annually-expanding production of the collective farms, collective farm markets have become an institution in the Soviet Union, and are growing rapidly in number and in volume of sales.

Low prices of food products are a rule of Soviet life, a rule made possible by many factors. Low prices are made possible by the heroism of the Soviet peasants, creating bumper crops, competing in a socialist way to make available to their country the largest possible quantity of food products. Low prices are made possible by Soviet science and industry, which give the Soviet peasant the most modern tools, and the most advanced methods with which to work. And low prices are made possible by the socialist system of trading. The Soviet State has destroyed high prices in the Soviet Union by instituting the system of State-buying, the purchase by the State of tremendous reserves of agricultural produce and its sale to the Soviet people at low, fixed prices. And while the Soviet peasant may sell his surplus products to the co-operatives or directly to the consumer in the collective farm market, State prices exert a decisive influence on the level of prices on the latter two markets. The big reduction in the prices of industrial and food products and the reform of the currency in December, 1947, and the further reduction of prices in April, 1948, have also helped to lower prices of food radically.

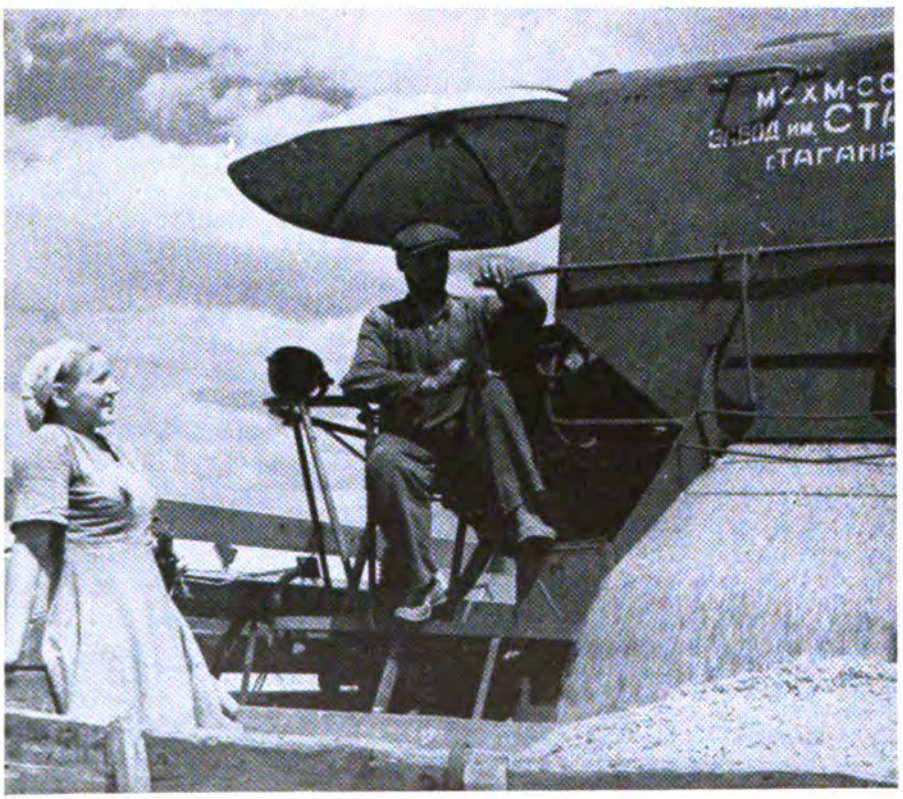
In a society where the collective farmer and the industrial worker alone own the factories, the mines, the mills, and the land and its fruits—in a land where private profit is unknown—the farmer does not need high prices to sustain himself. The drop in the price of agricultural produce is accompanied by a drop in the price of industrial goods; this sharp trend heralds a life of ever-increasing abundance for peasant and worker alike.

Soviet News in Pictures

CRAFTSMAN. Mikhail Kuzmin molds ornaments for buildings in the restoration of Kalinin.

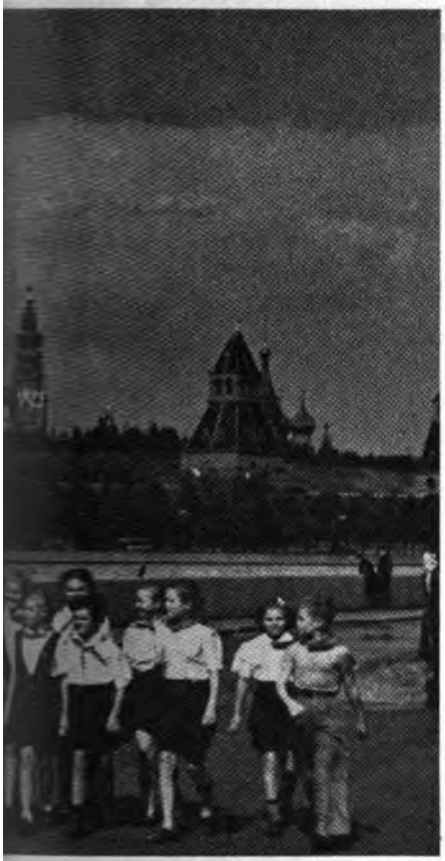


ORPHANS. About three hundred children of Stalingrad, orphaned in the gre
of them on the Kremlin Embankment of t

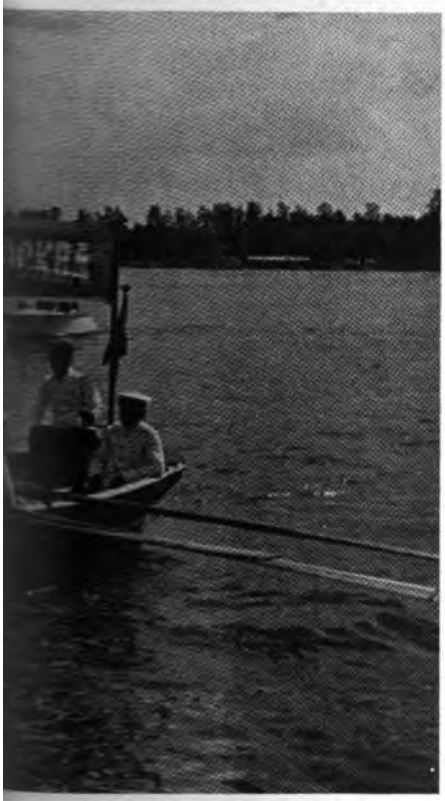


ON THE FIELDS. The harvest is ending now, and is exceptionally rich. An operator sits beneath the combine's parasol while a farm girl watches.

LENINGRAD TO MOSCOW. August 8,
boat race. This crew has rowed nea



ere, recently visited Moscow. A group
River.



was celebrated by the close of a huge
d miles from Leningrad to Moscow.

STUDENTS. Entrance examinations at Leningrad University. The fall term is now under way at all Soviet schools.

MUSEUM OPENED. Olga Knipper-Chekhova cuts the ribbon at the entrance to the museum in the former home of Constantine Stanislavsky.

The Five-Year Plan of a Farm

By Nikolai Melanich

TWENTY-FIVE miles from Kiev lies the Shevchenko Collective Farm, a farm named after Taras Grigorievich Shevchenko, the great 19th century national poet of the Ukraine.

The Shevchenko Collective Farm unites within its boundaries 360 peasant households—the State has secured to it, for free use in perpetuity, 1,975 hectares* of rich Ukrainian soil.

Before the war this farm was a large agricultural enterprise. The village, with its collective-farm club, dispensary, maternity home and seven-year school presented a picture of happiness and security.

In 1940 the farm's income was 1,100,000 rubles. It planned to acquire two additional trucks, to build several cattlesheds—for the quantity of cattle was growing steadily year by year—and to install electricity and radio service in the village.

The invasion of the USSR by the German fascist aggressors prevented the realization of this plan. The Germans looted the farm's riches, cut down the orchard, demolished the village.

As soon as the Germans were driven from the Ukraine, however, the peasants set about rebuilding their collective farm. In this project they were given great assistance by the State, which provided the farm with seeds of high quality, with agricultural machines, and with credit for rebuilding both administrative buildings and dwelling houses.

As early as 1944 the sowing of crops was accomplished over an area equal to the prewar area of sowing, dairy-cattle raising and hog-raising sections were instituted, and the farm's administrative buildings and dwelling houses were rehabilitated.

Since then the farm has been growing and gaining strength year by year. A good harvest was gathered even in 1946, a year of drought. Its income in money in that year amounted to 1,200,000 rubles, and the amount distributed to the members of the collective farm for each workday* increased. The income in money and agricultural produce that the farm earned in 1946 enabled it to carry out a number of important measures. A five-year plan for the development of its economy was adopted three years ago by a general membership meeting of the collective farm. Brigade and group leaders—indeed, all of the collective farmers—participated in the discussion of this plan, and introduced proposals and suggestions directed toward the further strengthening of the economy of their farm.

In the sphere of field agriculture, their five-year plan provides for an extension of the sowing area by 130 hectares through the reclamation of the flooded islands of the Irpen River, and through the irrigation of areas where previously vegetables could not be grown because of the dryness of soil. And, in accordance with their five-year plan, the grain crop yield should average from 1.8 to two tons per hectare in 1950.

Their five-year plan further calls for the increase of livestock to four sections to be composed of highly-productive thoroughbred cattle. In addition, the farm is to have a large poultry yard, an apiary, and six ponds in which carp are to be hatched.

By the end of their five-year plan the annual money income of the farm should amount to two million rubles, and the total income of the collective farmers should increase from 1.5 to two times in comparison with the prewar level of their income.

The five-year plan further provides for the building of a brickyard, six cattlesheds with accommodations for 120 head of cattle in each, two bridges across the river, a water works, an electric supply base and the electrification of all those processes of farming that are capable of being electrified.

Two-and-one-half years have elapsed since the adoption of the five-year plan, and many outstanding successes have been achieved during that time in the development of the Shevchenko Collective Farm. The sowing area has been increased by 90 hectares as a result of the reclamation of flooded lands; irrigation has been carried out on an area of 50 hectares, and the sowings of winter and spring grain have increased considerably.

The farm now has four livestock sections in which there are 190 head

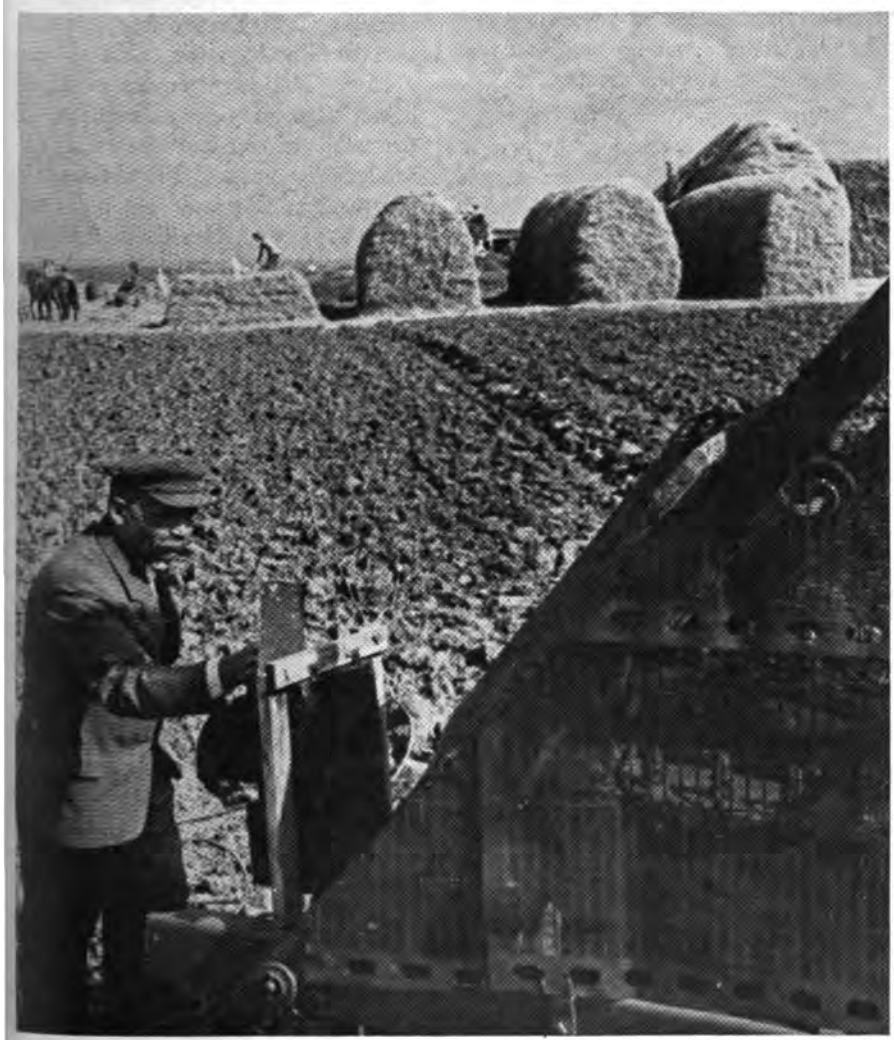
* One hectare=2.471 acres.

* The measure of labor on collective farms—computed on the basis of a job's importance and the skill that it requires.

ELECTRICITY. The farm is now largely electrified. This motor-driven machine cleans wheat.

APPLES. Luba Tkach beams at the rich fruit harvest.

FARMHOUSE. The Kovtun family of Shevchenko Farm entertain guests. Their house is pleasant, spacious, and electrified.



IN THE FIELDS. TRANSFORMER. A mobile transformer substation supplies power to farm machinery.

ELECTRICIAN. Alexander Sipko is the farm's electrical mechanic.

SUNFLOWERS. They are grown for commercial use.

of cattle of the Simmental breed, 190 head of pigs of the White Ukrainian-steppe breed, 160 horses and 90 head of fine-fleece sheep. There is a large poultry yard and an apiary. The farm's six ponds are filled with carp. The farm has built six cattlesheds and is completing the construction of a brick-yard. Out of its funds, it has repaired the dwelling houses of 20 of its members, built new homes for three families of soldiers who were killed during the war, and rehabilitated the seven-year school.

Radio service and electricity were installed at the collective farm in 1947; electricity is being extensively used in the farm's production. The collective farm has acquired three trucks, 12 combines, 11 seed drills, a threshing machine, an 18-horsepower internal combustion engine, a large number of plows and other agricultural implements and machines.

The farm's money income in 1947 was 1,550,000 rubles. For the workdays they contributed, many of the farm families each received more than a ton of grain, three to four thousand rubles in money, and a large quantity of potatoes and other vegetables and fruit. To this must be added the income the collective farmers made from the crops they grew on their individual plots of land, and from their own livestock and poultry, consisting of a cow, sheep, pigs and chickens.

In a letter addressed to Joseph Stalin, the members of the Shevchenko Collective Farm pledged, earlier this year, to gather a large harvest by applying the methods of the foremost Soviet masters of high crop yields. And they fulfilled their pledge with honor. The average crop yield of rye, obtained on an area of 348 hectares, amounted to nearly two tons per hectare; and the crop yield of winter wheat, on an area of 45 hectares, was 2.2 tons per hectare. Some of the farm brigades secured a crop yield of as much as 3.3 tons of rye per hectare on the land which they worked.

This is the history of one collective farm which, from the rubble the Nazis left, has risen to even greater achievments than it had attained before the war. But this is more than the story of the Shevchenko Collective Farm—it is the story, in miniature, of reconstruction and achievement throughout the whole of the Soviet Union.

A Once-Poor Peasant

By V. Kornilov

"WHO of the local peasants was poorest before joining the collective farm?" we asked in the offices of the Budyonny Collective Farm in Rostov Region. This question perplexed those who were present.

"We have had no poor since we formed the collective farm," one man answered, and the others nodded in agreement. "And almost all of us lived poorly before the farm came into being," another peasant added.

Our question, nevertheless, gave rise to a lively conversation. The older collective farmers tried to recall the names of those who in the days of tsarism had most frequently tramped in search of a crust of bread, those who had most often hired themselves out as farm hands. And everyone present agreed that the poorest among them had been the family of Stepan Potapov.

Some remembered that Potapov, like his father, had never owned his own horse and had always starved. Others remembered that he had worked as a laborer on Popovsky's stud farm, and that his daughter had been employed as a general servant in the house of a kulak. But when the victory of the collective farm system was won, the position of the Potapov family changed completely, like that of millions of other Soviet peasant families.

From the Budyonny Farm's bookkeeper, Andrei Kolymkov, we learned what the Potapov family had received last year from the farm. Potapov, and his wife and elder daughter contributed 1,540 workdays (a measure of labor on collective farms) to the farm last year. This was approximately equal to the average number of workdays contributed by every other family that labored honestly. And last year the collective farm distributed, *per workday*, four kilograms* of grain, 11 kilograms of vegetables, one hundred grams** of honey, eight kilograms of fodder, 9.5 kilograms of fruit and 12 rubles in cash. For their workdays, therefore, the Potapov family received 6,160 kilograms of grain, 16,940 kilograms of vegetables, 154 kilograms of honey, 14,630 kilograms of fruit, 12,320 kilograms of fodder and 18,480 rubles in cash.

Potapov, like all other collective farmers, derives his main income from the collective farm. Potapov also obtains a small part of his income from the small plot of land, the domestic cattle, the apiary and the garden which he has for his own use and that of his family. From his truck garden he harvested about three metric tons*** of potatoes, a considerable quantity of other vegetables and more than a metric ton of maize. From his apiary he obtained 65 kilograms of pure honey.

The Potapov family sold a considerable part of this produce to the cooperatives and on the collective-farm market. The management of the collective farm provides its members with the means of transport for taking their produce to market. From the sale of his produce Potapov realized nearly nine thousand rubles. The Potapov family's money income last year thus exceeded 27 thousand rubles. Of this, about 10 thousand rubles went for daily expenses. Potapov sent three thousand rubles to his daughter, Valentina, a student at the Leningrad Medical Institute, for clothing, etc. The stipend she receives from the State provides her with sufficient funds for current expenses.

Last year Potapov acquired a radio, a bicycle, and many other items. The family spent about three hundred rubles on books—works on agriculture and *belles-lettres*. The Potapovs' home, a four-room house, is lit by electricity, and is well-furnished.

This year the Budyonny Collective Farm obtained a harvest even bigger than the 1947 harvest. The average crop yield of winter wheat is 2.3 metric tons per hectare—three hundred kilograms per hectare more than last year. This will increase the personal incomes of the collective farmers in comparison with last year.

* One kilogram=2.204 pounds.
** One gram=.002 of one pound.
*** One metric ton=2204.622 pounds.

Lysenko

(Continued from page 534)

and Morgan are built on the idea of accident—but genuine science is the enemy of accident. Michurin said that we cannot expect favors from nature, that it is our business to wrest favors from her.

The great transforming power of the Michurin doctrine lies in its close contact with the practical side of socialist agriculture, with the collective and state farms. Followers of Michurin are working out profound theoretical problems in constant contact with the tasks of practical importance in socialist agriculture. By deliberately and in planned fashion changing the conditions of life of plant and animal organisms, Michurin followers are changing the natu re, and thereby the heredity, of those organisms.

Michurin created more than three hundred kinds of fruits and berries, which, for yield, hardiness and flavor, are superior to many old varieties, particularly those brought from abroad. There are Michurin orchards throughout the entire country.

The great merit of Lysenko is that he carried forward the banner of Michurin in biology, developing Michurin's teaching and enriching socialist agriculture with outstanding achievements in agrobiological science. Great, too, are the achievements of our Michurin workers in livestock breeding.

The pseudoscientific doctrine of the Morgan-Mendelites, which is opposed to Michurin's science and which supports the theory of a special hereditary substance—independent of the organism and the conditions of existence—disarms scientists and practical workers in their struggle to change the nature of plants and animals, and therefore does harm to socialist agriculture.

Science which is divorced from the people, which does not give a clear perspective to practice and confidence in victory, does not deserve to be called science. It is not accidental, then, that the followers of "Weissmanism," who in their fruitless research are busy with experiments divorced from practice were unable to show any practical achievements at the recently-concluded session of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences.

The session of the All-Union Academy of Agriculture has summed up the results of the struggle of the two trends in biology, which has been going on for many years, and demonstrated the complete triumph of Michurin's teachings over Mendelism-Morganism, which is bankrupt in theory and practice.

Michurin's biological teaching is not only a legitimate heir of everything progressive contributed by the leading scientists of the whole world in biology, but, by creatively developing the progressive aspects of Darwinism, it courageously rejects everything reactionary.

By the indisputably materialist character of its main ideas, the Darwinian theory exploded the pseudoscientific notion of the divine origin of the appearance and development of living matter, but this theory contains several essential mistakes. One great mistake, for instance, is that, side by side with the materialist principle, Darwin included in his theory of evolution the ultra-reactionary theory of population of the British clergyman Malthus. The reactionary ideas of Malthus have been taken up and are being propagated in biology by the Weissmanites. The followers of Michurin, as true scientific biologists, do not keep silent about the erroneous aspects of Darwin's teaching but indeed decisively reject them.

Michurin's teaching on the laws of development of living nature represents a new and higher stage of development of human knowledge of agriculture, a new and higher stage in the development of materialist ideology. Progressive biological science is indebted to Stalin, the great continuer of Lenin's work, for rescuing Michurin's teaching, which is a valuable element in the treasury of scientific knowledge.

Progressive biological science rejects and exposes the vicious idea of the impossibility of controlling the nature of organisms by placing under man's control the conditions of life of plants, animals and micro-organisms. Science should teach research workers to be daring in their search for ways and methods of controlling nature on behalf of the needs of the people.

Mikhail Tarkhanov Dies

By Yurl Mikhailovich

THE Soviet theater suffered a great loss on August 18 with the death of Mikhail Tarkhanov, one of the oldest and most beloved actors of the Moscow Art Theater, a Stalin Prize winner, and a man upon whom had been conferred the title: People's Artist of the Soviet Union.

As a memorial to Tarkhanov, the Council of Ministers of the USSR has instituted scholarships in his name in the higher theatrical schools of the country.

His real name was Moskvin, and he was born and bred in Moscow, the son of a watchmaker. He and his brother —the late Ivan Moskvin, who became one of the most famous actors on the old Russian stage—were attracted to the theater very early in life.

He first played in the Moscow Art Theater in 1922, after some years in the provincial theater.

His first major role was that of Gradoboyev, in Ostrovsky's play, *The Ardent Heart,* and this was a great creative success.

After that, Tarkhanov played many and varied roles at the Moscow Art Theater.

Mikhail Tarkhanov was an actor who had a profound knowledge of Russian life. He was a master of the social-psychological portrait; he was an artist who could portray genuine human emotion, who invariably rose to the creation of imagery which vividly mirrored the many strata of old Russian society.

He was also known to the public as a distinguished motion picture actor. He was Art Director and Professor at the State Institute of Theater Art, a deputy to the Moscow Soviet of People's Deputies, and one of the directors of the All-Russian Theater Society. A Soviet patriot of firm convictions, a progressive citizen of his country, Tarkhanov became a member of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) several years ago.

Soviet Public and Private Housing

By T. Tirzbanurt

Official of the State Planning Commission of the USSR

THE Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, in order to establish uniform regulations throughout the country governing the terms of ownership and the building of privately-owned dwellings, recently issued a decree on the rights of citizens to buy and build private dwelling houses.

The decree stated that:

1. Every citizen has the right to buy or to build for himself or herself, on the basis of the Constitutional right to private ownership of personal housing, a dwelling house of one or two stories, consisting of from one to five rooms.*

2. Citizens shall receive, for the building of such dwellings, plots of land secured to their use with no time limitations.

Both of these provisions apply to both urban and rural areas.

The right to own a house in the USSR is not new. It is clearly stated in the Constitution of the USSR; and hundreds of thousands of Soviet citizens have owned their own houses for years.

What the new decree does is to set up uniform federal regulations on privately-owned housing, applicable throughout the USSR, and to secure the land on which his house stands to the home-owner so long as the land is used for this purpose.

In the past, housing regulations have been the responsibility of local authorities, and have varied considerably in different parts of the country. Land tenure, since no land is privately owned in the USSR, was generally based on long-term ground leases which expired after a period of years.

The new degree is expected to facilitate and encourage the building of privately-owned homes.

The size of the sites will be determined in each individual case by the territorial, city and district Soviets; however, the sites will range in size from three to six hundred square meters* in town, and from seven to 12 hundred square meters in suburban areas. Ground rent will be charged.

PUBLICLY OWNED HOUSES. Apartment houses for workers and other employees of the Stalingrad Tractor Plant. They were rebuilt after the war.

PRIVATELY OWNED DWELLINGS. Individual houses in the outskirts of the city of Kazan. They are owned and occupied mostly by industrial workers.

THE Soviet Government since its inception has considered good housing and municipal services for the working people an important responsibility of the State.

Soviet power, in the very first year of its existence, nationalized the land, industry, transport, the banks and municipal service enterprises (electric power stations, water supplies, bakeries, bathhouses, laundries etc.), and the houses of the bourgeoisie. Housing and municipal services ceased to be a means of additional exploitation of the working people and a source of profit of capitalists and landlords. In the hands of the socialist State, housing and municipal services became a means for raising the standard of living and culture of the working people. Millions of workers and their families moved from hovels and slums, from cellars and attics into pleasant apartments. In Moscow alone nearly one-half million persons moved into new, well-appointed flats.

But that was only the first step in improving the living conditions of the working people. The Soviet Government realized that the housing problem could be radically solved only by a forced development of housing construction. In executing this policy, the Soviet Government invested huge sums in building new dwellings. As a result of this the housing area belonging to

* Exclusive of auxiliary rooms such as kitchen, bath, hallways, storage space, etc. In Soviet housing terminology, these are not counted as rooms. Thus, a five-room house in the USSR would be considered a six-room house in most parts of the United States.

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

State and public bodies increased by 2.5 times between 1927 and 1941. Because of this, the housing conditions of the working people in the Soviet Union have improved tremendously since the 1917 Revolution.

A planned socialist economy enabled the Soviet State to apply big financial and material resources toward the development of housing construction. It did so without raising either rent or the price for municipal services. That is why rent and municipal rates in the Soviet Union constitute only about five per cent of the budget of a worker's family.

The Soviet State also encourages workers, peasants and office employees to build their own homes. For this purpose the State grants them long-term loans and supplies them with building materials at low prices. This, in its turn, improves the housing and living conditions generally of the Soviet people.

It is important to note that the State plans of housing construction in the USSR are always strictly co-ordinated with the general program of economic development of the country, and in particular, with the industrial development of new districts. It was precisely on this basis that in the years of Soviet power a large number of well-built new towns arose, including such comparatively large cities as Magnitogorsk, Stalinsk, Kuznetsk, Komsomolsk, Stalinogorsk, Karaganda, Khibinogorsk, Dzerzhinsk, Kramatorsk.

Along with this, local Soviets do much to extend, reconstruct and improve old cities which bear the imprint of past capitalism: slums, filth, haphazard (i.e., nonplanned) house building, etc. The measures carried through by the local Soviets have resulted in a rapid growth of the population of cities. For instance, the populations of Moscow, Leningrad and Kharkov doubled between 1926 and 1939, and that of Gorky almost trebled. Such cities as Sverdlovsk, Ivanovo-Voznesensk, Baku, Tashkent, Alma-Ata, Tbilisi and many other towns have been changed beyond recognition. In the old cities quite new and well-planned districts arose with splendid buildings, architectural monuments and a wide network of cultural institutions: theaters, palaces of culture, clubs, etc. Slums and neglected outskirts disappeared entirely, replaced by new, well-built blocks of dwelling houses. Today the outskirts in Soviet cities often have a better appearance than the centers of the cities, whose reconstruction in some cases has not been completed.

Municipal services of Soviet cities have markedly improved. As compared with pre-Revolutionary days, at the beginning of 1941 2.5 times as many towns had water supplies; the length of water mains was 3.5 times greater, and the quantity of water supplied was more than seven times greater.

The number of cities with streetcars has more than doubled, the number of streetcars has increased by 2.5 times, and the length of streetcar lines has increased even more. New forms of transport—autobusses, trolley busses, taxis—have become widespread since the establishment of Soviet power.

Much has been done by way of city improvements: asphalting of streets and squares, creation of new parks, gardens and boulevards, strengthening embankments and covering them with granite, building of new bridges, lighting of cities.

Moscow, the capital of the USSR, has entirely changed during Soviet times. Here a large number of beautiful apartment houses has been erected, hundreds of kilometers* of watermains, drainage and central heating pipes laid, and magnificent structures such as the Metro—the best subway in the world —have been built. The Moscow-Volga Canal has been completed, and the Saratov-Moscow gas pipe line has been laid. Many streets have been widened and straightened, and new splendid parks, gardens and roads have been laid out. The streets and squares of the capital have been asphalted; many new, wide and beautiful bridges have been built; and all the embankments of the Moscow River have been covered with granite. The Moscow outskirts have been converted into beautiful districts.

The war, forced upon the Soviet Union by fascist Germany, caused enormous damage to Soviet cities. The German fascist barbarians completely or partly devastated 1,710 cities. The Soviet people are now striving to heal these deep gaping wounds as quickly as possible. Intensive rehabilitation work has developed in all enemy-ravaged districts. All measures in this sphere as well as the necessary means for executing them are provided for in the postwar Five-Year Plan. Thereby, the Soviet State not only provides for the general direction of the rehabilitation of the ravaged economy of cities, but also—with the whole of its economic might—comes to the assistance of the districts devastated by the enemy.

In 1946, six million square meters* of housing area had been rehabilitated or newly built by state enterprises, institutions and local Soviets. Last year another nine million square meters of housing was rehabilitated or built from funds provided by the State; in addition, factory and office workers, with the aid of the State, built their own houses, totaling in area four million square meters.

Along with housing construction, much is also being done for the development of municipal services. Last year, in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic alone, water works were built and rehabilitated in nine cities, and water mains extended in 36; moreover, 20 municipal electric power stations were rehabilitated or newly built and the capacity of 24 was increased. The quantity of water now supplied in Moscow exceeds the prewar level by 21 per cent and the supply of gas has increased by almost 3.5 times. Since the war, steps have been taken to build a subway in Leningrad; the Dashava-Kiev and Kokhtla-Jarve-Leningrad gas pipe lines and a number of new water works, drainage and central heating systems are under construction. Other works for city improvements, provided for in the postwar Five-Year Plan, are being carried out on an ever-growing scale. The Soviet Government is paying particular attention to the rehabilitation of the oldest and most important cities devastated by the enemy: Leningrad, Stalingrad, Sevastopol, Odessa, Smolensk, Kursk, Orel, Rostov-on-Don, Voronezh and other cities. The goal of the Soviet State is to make the war-ravaged cities even more beautiful and well-planned than they were before the war. This problem is now being solved.

The facts and figures cited above illustrate the policy of the Soviet State on the housing question and development of municipal economy. It is a policy imbued with concern for the good of the people of the socialist country.

* One kilometer = .621 of one mile.

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

American Workers Visit Moscow

Recently four rank-and-file members of the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union were delegated by that union to make a report on political and economic conditions in Europe, after visiting a number of countries. The following article describing their stay in Moscow appeared in Trud, *official organ of the Soviet trade unions.*

THE delegation of rank-and-file American workers from the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union, which arrived in Moscow on August 18, spent five days in the Soviet capital, before leaving on August 23 for Leningrad.

In Moscow the delegation visited the Stalin Automobile Works, the Kaliber plant, which manufactures precision instruments, and inspected the shops and the majority of the communal and cultural institutions of these two plants—polyclinics, nurseries, dining halls, clubs, libraries, etc. The members of the delegation also inspected the Stalin Automobile Works' children's townlet. They acquainted themselves with the work of the Moscow River Port at Khimki and went on a trip along the Moscow Canal. They also inspected the Moscow Subway, visited the Dynamo Stadium, the Gorky Park of Culture and Rest, the Lenin Museum, and talked with the Chairman of the AUCCTU,* V. V. Kuznetsov, and some of the AUCCTU department heads.

Herman Stuyvelaar, of San Francisco, told a *Trud* correspondent: "I was in Moscow in 1930—18 years ago. This was in the first years of the first Five-Year Plan. Now I hardly recognize Moscow. You've done miracles. The new, magnificent buildings, the broad streets, parks, and squares, the subway, the new mills and factories—all these have radically changed the face of Moscow. Now I see the fruits of the tremendous efforts of the Soviet people. But it is the Soviet people themselves that amaze me most. Such calm confidence in themselves and in the future of the utility of their labor, such confidence in the firmness of their path toward a brighter future—this is something that the workers in capitalist countries do not have."

Summarizing the impressions of their stay in the Soviet capital, the delegates, Herman Stuyvelaar, Julian Napuunoa, Jovan Zuber, and Donald Brown, stated:

"During our stay in Moscow, we delegates of the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union visited the Stalin Automobile Works and the Kaliber Plant, talked to workers and management, visited many of the communal and cultural institutions of these two plants, and other such institutions in the city, and were highly impressed by the modern equipment and the excellent organization of production. All this is on a very high level in no way inferior to any of the best-developed industrial countries of the world.

"The communal and cultural institutions which attend to the needs of the workers and their families—dining halls, nurseries, pioneer camps, libraries, clubs; and other organizations called upon to care for the health of workers: dispensaries, polyclinics, hospitals, night sanatoriums, etc.—surprised us most.

"Our talks with Soviet workers convinced us that they have a friendly feeling for the American people. The Russians, like the other Slav peoples, are generous and hospitable.

"Everything we saw here is contrary to the lies poured on the Soviet Union by the American press and radio. The anti-Soviet slanders and insults we daily hear and read in the organs of reactionary American propaganda, have more than once given us a feeling of shame and awkwardness.

"Neither in the USSR nor in the countries of Eastern Europe which we visited did we see any sign of war psychosis or war propaganda—no calls for aggression against the United States or any other country. The Soviet people are engrossed in rehabilitation, engrossed in the development of their economy. They are absorbed in reconstruction, in creating better living conditions for themselves, a better future for their children. They are determined to see this structure rise to the very last brick.

"We are convinced that the Soviet people desire peace and wish to preserve peace among all the peoples of the world. We saw no evidence of forced labor. Everyone works in his own trade or profession and enjoys the rights granted him by the Soviet laws, and by the Soviet Constitution. We talked to many trade union workers in factories and in the AUCCTU and familiarized ourselves with the structure and activities of Soviet trade unions. We feel certain that many members of American trade unions would envy the democratic structure and democratic system of the Soviet trade unions.

"We use this occasion to express our profound gratitude to all plant administrations and factory workers, to the personnel of medical and cultural institutions that we visited, as well as to all Soviet trade unions, for the warm and friendly reception we have received. We shall never forget our impressions nor what we learned here about the Soviet Union. We assure all the Soviet people that on our return to the United States, we shall tell the members of our trade union—and all Americans whom our voices reach—the truth about the Soviet Union. We shall strengthen our statements with facts and figures collected during our stay in the USSR. We consider that these truths will promote better understanding, and will consolidate the friendship of the peoples of America and the USSR.

"The feeling of justice and honor is inherent in American workers and all common people in the United States. When they learn the truth, they will know how to repulse the attacks of the warmongers who sow rage and enmity against the Soviet Union. Long live the Soviet Union and all the democratic peoples of the world!"

* All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

Anniversary of Victory Over Japan

By P. Krainov
Soviet Journalist

THREE years ago, on September 2, 1945, imperialist Japan, Hitler's partner in the aggressive war against the Allies, surrendered unconditionally. For years the Japanese militarists had been tormenting China and plundering the occupied areas of the Far East. Long before Pearl Harbor, the militarist clique that ruled Japan had been planning aggression against the Soviet Union. Like Hitler, Tojo, the then Prime Minister of Japan, threatened to convert the whole world into a colony and to make abject slaves of the peoples of conquered lands.

The Soviet Union's entry into the war against militarist Japan had a decisive effect which greatly accelerated the debacle of the Japanese war machine. Public opinion throughout the world followed the Soviet Union's military operations against Japan with keen attention, correctly regarding those operations as an indication of a rapid outcome of the conflict in the Far East.

But today certain of the foreign press publications are belittling and underestimating the role played by the Soviet Union in achieving victory for the Allied cause in the Far East. These papers seek to "prove" that the Soviet Union made only a "minor contribution" to the successful pursuit of the war in the Pacific.

Disregarding the facts, these papers claim that the atom bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki alone decided the outcome of the war, brought about Japan's surrender.

It should be borne in mind that the war which the Nazis unleashed in the West, and the war the Japanese militarists waged in the East, was a single criminal plot against the peace. It was not a matter of two wars, but rather of two theatres of one war—the Western and Eastern. And the former was the chief theater. For in the West, where Hitler controlled the resources of all the occupied European countries and relied upon the support of his satellites, the destiny of the world was in the balance. Because of the delay in opening the second front in Europe, the Soviet Union had to bear the brunt of the war in the West.

LIBERATION. The people greet Soviet soldiers at Dairen.

In the Far East, hostilities were confined mainly to naval and air operations, and consequently Japan's land forces remained practically intact, even in 1945. The Kwantung Army, the elite troops of the Japanese war machine, had a firm grip on Manchuria and Korea, and the Japanese expeditionary forces had the upper hand in China and Southeast Asia. And in 1945, despite the fact that her sea might had been undermined by the American and British naval forces, Japan continued offensive operations in the Chinese theater.

The million-strong Kwantung Army stood at the frontiers of the Soviet Union, prepared to invade its territory. It awaited only the success of the Nazi armies in the West, expecting that the Soviet Union, bled white by the Wehrmacht, would denude its Far Eastern frontiers.

But that did not happen. The Soviet troops stationed on the Manchurian frontier immobilized large Japanese forces throughout the war. Subsequently, it became known that the Japanese

High Command, instead of removing any of its troops from the Manchurian and Korean areas for use elsewhere, actually dispatched reinforcements to this area. The influx of reinforcements increased especially after the Soviet Government, on April 5, 1945, renounced the Soviet-Japanese Pact.

Even before it actually entered the war against Japan, the USSR, therefore, was already immobilizing a very substantial part of the Japanese Army, and this facilitated the operations of the American and British Allies against Japan's expeditionary forces.

Having lost supremacy on the sea, the ruling militarist clique in Japan staked all its hopes on the Kwantung Army and on the expeditionary forces in Eastern Asia. And even after atom bombs had been dropped on Japan, her militarists continued to fight the Allies and to concentrate and deploy Japanese troops on the continent, hoping that by entrenching themselves there they might avert final defeat. The militarists relied on Japan's land forces which, practically intact, were not inclined to surrender. As a last way out of what seemed a hopeless situation, Japan planned to terminate the war by an "honorable" peace—that is, an agreement with the enemy on the basis of mutual cessation of military operations. This would have enabled Japan to retain a large part of her armed forces which could again be brought into play at the opportune moment.

Incidentally, after Japan's surrender, the opinion was expressed among Japanese ruling circles that Japan had not been defeated, strictly speaking, but had simply terminated the war by choice. This view was expressed, among others, by Hagiwara, a Japanese Foreign Office spokesman, in an interview with an Associated Press correspondent last October.

The plans of the Japanese High Command were upset by the Soviet Union's entry into the war in the Pacific. The decisive blows inflicted by Soviet troops, who began operations in Manchuria on August 9, 1945, knocked all of the Japanese calculations out of gear. The striking power of the Soviet troops operating in the Far East was no less than the striking power they displayed against Hitler Germany and its satellites in the West. In a remarkably brief space of time the Kwantung Army was crushed and compelled to lay down its arms under the hammer blows of the advancing Soviet forces. Following this, Japan's rulers had no choice but to ask for terms of surrender.

The following figures convey an idea of the scale and success of the Soviet Army's operations. During the course of one month, from August 9 to September 9, 1945, the Soviet troops took 594 thousand prisoners and captured 148 Japanese generals. Japan's losses amounted to 80 thousand in killed alone; moreover, the Soviet forces captured large quantities of war materiel.

To forget or belittle the part played by the Soviet Union in the defeat of Japan is tantamount to a deliberate falsification of history, tantamount to slandering the great efforts of the USSR in the common cause of the Allies and in the victory over the aggressor bloc.

There are other factors which also determined the part the USSR played in crushing the Far Eastern aggressor. The Soviet Union bore the brunt of the war against the German aggressor, and Japan, Hitler's partner, could not of course hope for victory without joint action with the Germans. Consequently, the defeat of Hitler Germany, accomplished in the main by Soviet forces, predetermined the collapse of the Japanese war machine and of Japan's imperialist policy.

Attempts to belittle the part played by the Soviet Union in the victorious termination of the war in the Far East are motivated by very definite aims. The first of these is to prove that the United States alone has the right to pass final judgment on Japan's postwar problems. This explains the attempts to disregard the Soviet Union in working out the Far Eastern peace settlement; it explains the appeals made by such men as Herbert Hoover to conclude a separate peace treaty with Japan—and with Germany, for that matter—without the USSR.

It may be worth while recalling, that in its statement of May 19, the American State Department tried without the least justification, to blame the USSR for the delay in concluding the peace treaty with Japan. Yet it is generally known that the USSR advocates an early peace settlement in the Far East. Moreover, the State Department has rejected the Soviet proposals regarding the preparation of the Japanese peace treaty in conformity with the Potsdam decisions.

The Soviet Union entered the war against militarist Japan in order to ensure a durable, just and lasting peace in the Far East. Its entire policy in the Far East is proof of this. Having liberated Manchuria, it withdrew its troops from that area, returning it to Chinese sovereignity. The Soviet Union has demonstrated its desire for a stable peace in the Far East by liberating Korea from Japanese domination and by its efforts to revive that country as an independent democratic state. Lastly, it has proved its desire for a stable peace by advancing concrete proposals which are designed to convert vanquished Japan into a peaceable democratic nation, deprived of any possibility of reviving aggression.

That the Soviet Union's desire for peace in the Far East is a disinterested one, may be seen from the fact that the Soviet proposals are meeting with warm response among the peoples who suffered from Japanese aggression. In China, Korea and other Far Eastern countries there is a widespread movement to settle the Japanese problem along the lines of the Soviet proposals. These proposals are based on the Potsdam decisions and their object is to make it impossible for Japan to repeat her aggression against other nations. The Soviet Union stands for a speedy conclusion of a peace treaty with Japan and for the withdrawal of the occupation forces. The position of the Soviet Government, announced by TASS on May 23,* is eloquent testimony to the fact that the Soviet Union actively champions a stable and just peace throughout the world—including the Far East. And because the Soviet Union pursues this noble aim, Soviet troops—on the orders of their Government—entered the war against Japan three years ago in order to wipe out the seat of war in the Far East.

*On May 19 the U. S. State Department publicly stated its position on 11 main points of difference between the U. S. and the USSR; on May 23, the position of the Soviet Government on these points of difference—one of which concerned the conclusion of a peace treaty with Japan—was published by TASS.

HONORS FOR MINER. Fine workers are honored in the USSR. L. Golokolosov, a miner, receives a decoration.

A Soviet Miner

By I. Zenin

On August 29, the Soviet people celebrated Miners' Day, a newly-instituted annual holiday in honor of the country's miners, for the first time.

Because the mines are tremendously important to the country's economy and its prosperity, the Soviet miner is held in high esteem, and many leading miners have been decorated with Orders and with medals for their production feats.

Meetings were held throughout the country to celebrate the successes of the miners, and in the mining areas themselves, the day was truly a gala one.

THE miner ascended the stage of the city theater. Stetsenko, Chairman of the Voroshilovgrad Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies, presented him with the Order of the Red Banner of Labor. Stetsenko warmly shook his hand, and said:

"I congratulate you, Smolyakov."

"I serve the Soviet Union!" the miner answered proudly, as he accepted the Order. He went back to his seat among the miners of the *Annenskaya* Mine. On that day the workers of the mine who had been decorated by the Government occupied an entire row in the theater. The mine itself had been awarded the Order of Lenin.

Smolyakov, a coal-cutting-machine operator, watched the miners—grey-haired veteran coal diggers, ex-servicemen, and women in their bright scarves—as they mounted the stage one after another.

And as he sat there, he thought: how much these people have done for their country! How many underground workings they have traversed; how much coal and rock they have delivered to the surface; how many timber frames they have erected and how much water they have drained from the mines!

He recalled the day when ground was first broken for the *Annenskaya*. It was in the spring, in the steppes overgrown with feather grass. Miners from the entire neighborhood had gathered for the event. The oldest and best-known miner of the Kadievka fields took a shovel and made four holes in the ground—soft after the May showers—at the corners of the roped-off square of the future shaft.

"And where are the golden rubles?" someone in the crowd asked jokingly.

Before the Revolution, when a mine owner launched a new mine, he would bury 10 golden rubles in the four corners of the shaft for good luck and high profits.

"Our gold, my friends, is down below, at a depth of a hundred meters,* the engineer from the trust answered.

And Smolyakov listened attentively as the engineer went on to describe the mine-to-be—a mine in which all the coal was to be transported by conveyors from the coal face directly into railway cars on the surface, a mine whose thick seams would afford plenty of room for the cutters to display their skill, a mine in which it would be a pleasure to work.

"Well, hurry up and sink the mine so I can get to work on the cutting machine," Smolyakov told the engineer.

The mine was opened in 1938 and Smolyakov began hewing coal.

In those days the coal-cutting-machine operators of the Snyezhnyan mines were famous for their great production achievements. Smolyakov had joined in the socialist competition of the cutters, and had raised the output of his machine to 200 thousand tons** a month. He was trying to raise it even higher when the war began and he went to the front. Leaving the mine he wrote on the iron gates of the elevator shaft: "We will soon come back to you, our dear *'Annenka.'*"

Smolyakov went all the way to Berlin. When he returned home at the end of 1946, he went to work enthusiastically. Since his return he has produced 60 thousand tons of first-grade coal above his quota.

The path trod by the miner to the underground treasure is not an easy one. The black gold lies deep in the cold strata of the earth and it is the cutting-machine operator who begins the extraction of coal. His machine, with its steel jaws, gnaws at the face of the coal. When Smolyakov digs the bar of his machine into the silvery wall he knows that the loaders, truckmen, motormen and the whole crew of the mine are behind him awaiting the coal. The hum of the motor is even and one can hear the coal cracking as the bar's steel fangs pierce it.

The success of the operator depends upon many seemingly insignificant de-

* One meter = 1.093 yards.

** All references are to metric tons; one metric ton = 2204.622 pounds.

tails. What does a coal cutter need? A good, strong cable. And a long one. By all means a long one. For the length of the cable determines the working stride of the machine. The face may extend one hundred meters. If the cable is 15 meters long the machine has to be stopped seven times every 15 or 20 minutes. But if the cable is 30 meters long the number of stops is cut in half. When Smolyakov cuts coal he uses the lengthened cable. For this purpose he takes a thinner cable in order to get it on the machine's reel. The length of the bar is two meters, but that does not mean that all operators undercut the face two meters deep. The face is often undercut 160 centimeters.*** Smolyakov calculated that if he cut the face 20 centimeters deeper his output would rise 30 tons a day. And now he undercuts the face to a depth of 180 centimeters.

Utilizing every opportunity, Smolyakov now undercuts a full face every day. Recently he succeeded in making 33 cycles in one month. For Smolyakov works in a hurry. He doesn't want to be outstripped by other operators and particularly by his friend, Dmitri Voronkov, a cutter in the fourth section.

Smolyakov was discharged from the Army at the end of the first year of the postwar Five-Year Plan. He began to compete with Voronkov, as he had before the war. In 1946 Voronkov produced twice his annual quota and was the first in the mine to pledge to fulfill his Five-Year Plan quota in two-and-one-half years—by July, 1948. Smolyakov also decided to complete his five-year quota in two-and-one-half years, which in his case would have been in 1949. During the course of their competition Smolyakov began to triple his daily quota, enabling him to complete his five-year quota at the same time as Voronkov—in May 1948!

He became the soul of the production cycle in the seam. He knew that his machine would work without a miss. But he knew quite well that by himself he could achieve nothing. So he worked out a system of work with the loaders. He cuts the loads of coal for them and they clear it away according to a strict schedule.

Among them there is the camaraderie of people working together in friendly co-operation.

When the morning shift of loaders comes down the seam, their team leader, Nikolai Sokolov, shouts:

"Ivan Nikiforovich, is the coal ready?"

"Ready!" the operator shouts back from the face.

"Attaboy!" Sokolov says.

Coming on night shift, Ivan Smolyakov, from far off in the drift, calls to the loaders of Ivan Ukalov's crew:

"Is all the coal cleared?"

"All of it," the loaders' crew leader responds.

And again Smolyakov's bars pierce the coal seam and continue until he reaches the upper draft and the completely undercut face is left behind. Then the operator says:

"I guess we have finished. We have cut off another slice of coal."

A slice of coal!

Every day Smolyakov carves out the black loaf of the coal seam a slice weighing almost three hundred tons. But he is not satisfied. He wants to make the slice even bigger, even more heavy.

SMOLYAKOV and I sat at the edge of a Donets gully which was overgrown with oaks and thorn. Below, a little brook babbled along its rocky bed. Here and there the miners' truck gardens sloped down to the brook. And the coal-cutting-machine operator continued his narrative:

"You know, a gully like this may be found near every Donets mine. Green vegetation is scarce in the Donbas. And the gully is the miners' favorite resting place. When we were kids we used to come here in the fall for wood apples. With the return of spring we would come out to the gully to 'discover' a springlet which during the winter had been covered with silt, twigs and leaves. But even through the rubbish, we could discern the clear live spring spouting from the earth. We would clear the rubbish away and behold a bright mirror, so crystal-clear and delicious that nothing in the world could equal it. And these springlets come to my mind because there is so much happening in the Donbas now . . ." and he stopped, seeking words.

"Yes, the Donbas has cleaned itself after the invasion of the Nazi vandals; we have cleared the rubbish and rubble from the surface of the flooded and damaged mines, we have set up new pit heads, got down to the coal beds and begun mining coal. And how many new sparkling springs of miners' initiative have burst forth. Everyone strives to complete his five-year quota ahead of schedule. Miners' Day is coming soon and it will be celebrated by all the people. We are undertaking new obligations, we're doing our best to get up more and more coal.

"Take me, for instance," he continued. "I want to cut even more coal than Gerasim Zaporozhets. I believe we can get much more coal out of every seam than we do now. What is most important is that I know what has to be done. Just listen: the cutting machine can undercut 56 centimeters a minute, more than 33 meters an hour. Now, the faces I work on extend 85 meters. Therefore, if we should let the machine go at full speed, the face can be undercut in two-and-one-half hours. All right, let's allow for various stoppages and make it four hours. Why, then, does the machine have to stand idle the other twenty hours? I asked myself and my friends: can't we make it just the reverse, have the machine cut coal for twenty hours and leave four hours for cleaning and repairs? What can we do in 20 hours? Why, in twenty hours we can make five cycles! In one cycle I get out 270 tons of coal and five cycles means 1,350 tons. That's in just one day. And in a month it would exceed 40 thousand tons from one face! Such figures are breathtaking, but let me tell you: this is absolutely feasible. Work has to be so scheduled that we can operate the cutting machine, the conveyors, and the other equipment full-time. That's what's on my mind now."

Smolyakov got up. The Order sparkled on his breast. This persistent man with the restless soul of an innovator knows how to get what he wants.

In the evening twilight, the black silhouette of the *Annenskaya* pit head stood out on the horizon. Beyond it, along the high Donets ridge stood the pit heads of the neighboring mines—they resembled a chain connected by the tall straight masts of the high tension power lines.

"My dear, rich land," the operator said aloud. And in his voice there rang his inexpressible pride in the Donbas, throbbing vibrantly with life again.

*** One centimeter = .393 of one inch.

Labor Safety in the USSR

By Vladimir Planovsky

Director, Moscow Labor Protection Scientific Research Institute

PROBLEMS of job safety command great attention in the Soviet Union. Five billion rubles are being spent to enhance job safety under the postwar Five-Year Plan (1946-1950). The All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions has nine scientific research institutes engaged on problems of job safety. All this is bearing fruit: during the past 17 years accidents on the job in the Soviet Union have been cut by nearly 75 per cent.

One of the institutes engaged in solving problems of job safety is the Moscow Labor Protection Scientific Research Institute. At a recent session of the Learned Council of this Institute a rather interesting fact was cited by a doctor who read a paper on safety-and-health conditions in hot shops. This doctor had come upon an issue of an American physiology journal which carried an article by a group of scientists on the treatment of heat prostration suffered by industrial workers. The article went on to say that in the course of one summer there had been 65 cases of heat prostration in one small American town. Physicians working in the town's clinic had tried various remedies before coming to the conclusion that heat prostration could be effectively treated by an injection of a hot salt solution into the veins. And so American physiologists arrived at the conclusion that it would be a good thing if workers in the hot shops of American factories could go to a drinking fountain on the job and drink water with salt in it.

The Soviet doctor recalled that in 1930 heat prostration in Soviet hot shops was eliminated. For in 1930, stands serving carbonated salt water were introduced in all such shops. This measure came as the practical result of the investigations which had been conducted for several years by Soviet labor protection institutes.

The salt-water episode, insignificant in itself, characterizes the concern of the Soviet State for the health of factory and office workers. The problem of job safety is of prime importance in the USSR. More than 2,200 full-time labor inspectors—official representatives of the trade unions—as well as 737 thousand inspectors who are rank-and-file members of job safety commissions elected by the trade union membership, watch hawk-like to see that Soviet labor-protection laws are observed in all factories and offices. Nine scientific research institutes maintained by the trade unions, and many well-equipped laboratories in factories, mills and mines are engaged in the study and application of measures designed to fully protect the health and safety of the workers.

The Moscow Labor Protection Institute is the biggest institution of its kind maintained by Soviet trade unions. It is a major research center which has splendid laboratories in Moscow, Gorky, Kalinin, Saratov and Kuibyshev. The Soviet Government assigns many millions of rubles for research work in this field.

Among the widely-applied job safety measures which have been developed by the Institute are air curtains which protect people working under high temperatures; and the aeration of large shops and removal of dust in certain production processes by special exhausts. The Institute has also developed ventilation and lighting systems for various branches of industry; it has designed many machine guards and safety devices. The Institute has written safety-first regulations for the operation of industrial equipment, regulations which help to provide guidance for engineers who design new machinery. The functions of the Institute include publicizing safety regulations, establishing safety offices in factories and mills, designing work clothes which enhance job safety and minimize fatigue, and designing various protective devices. Industrial hygiene regulations were developed after studies by members of the Institute; these have been made into law. The tolerance of workers for concentrations of gases, steam and dust in the air has been discovered; and this is the basis for the struggle that is being carried on against occupational toxications and diseases. Industrial sanitary and hygienic regulations concerning temperature, humidity and movement of air have been elaborated on a scientific basis.

During the 23 years of the Moscow Institute's existence, its laboratories, situated in a number of major industrial centers, have made more than 70 thousand analyses relating to the practical solution of job safety problems; the laboratories have conducted 10 thousand investigations of various industrial installations. In addition to this activity, the Institute has given practical advice in thousands of cases and has trained more than four thousand inspectors. As a result of its scientific research activity the Institute has issued 225 books, monographs and pamphlets and more than one hundred popular leaflets. Newspapers and magazines have published more than 1,100 articles by members of the Institute on various problems of job safety.

The Institute has on its staff dozens of distinguished specialists. The Institute has made a tremendous contribution to the reduction of industrial accidents and occupational diseases in the Soviet Union.

The Soviet trade unions since 1933 have had charge of all practical work in the field of labor protection. All factories and mills which have been erected in Soviet times are distinguished for their cleanliness, good ventilation, abundance of light and air, and the high degree of mechanization and automatization of the production processes.

During the First Five-Year Plan 460,000,000 rubles of State funds were expended for this purpose; during the Second, 500,000,000; during the three prewar years of the Third Five-Year Plan, 1,354,000,000. Expenditures to be made during the current Plan period reach almost 5,000,000,000 rubles.

Stakhanovite "Tuesdays-at-Home"

By P. Pronin

THE idea of organizing lectures by Stakhanovites, i.e., advanced representatives of the Soviet working class, originated last year in the editorial offices of *Trud*, organ of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. The purpose of these lectures as conceived by their initiators, is to enable the Stakhanovites to acquaint —in a scientific way—the largest possible number of persons with the methods of work which have helped the Stakhanovites to improve production processes, lighten labor and raise the productivity of labor for the benefit of all the people. It was decided to arrange these lectures on Tuesdays; and they have come to be known as Stakhanovite Tuesdays-at-Home.

Since last November, two or three Stakhanovite lectures have been arranged every Tuesday: one in Moscow and others in other industrial centers of the USSR. The initiative of the *Trud* editors received support from the Ministries and the trade union central committees, who offered their co-operation in this undertaking. The lectures were thereupon arranged under the joint sponsorship of *Trud*, and the corresponding Ministries and trade union central committees. These lectures are given wide publicity in the press, and invitations to the lectures are sent out to the workers of the trade or profession to which the lecturer belongs. Detailed reports of the lectures are published by *Trud*.

In the House of Technique— a club for the technical specialists of Leningrad—I heard a lecture by Alexander Pavlyutkin, a milling-machine operator in a Leningrad plant.

On this occasion, engineers, foremen, technicians and milling-machine operators of the Leningrad plants gathered for the lecture of their colleague. Charts put up on the stage showed the new shape of the cutter cog used by Pavlyutkin and there were charts showing how the lecturer fulfills his production targets.

The subject of the lecture was the accelerated speed of cutting. Employing new methods, worked out by Pavlyutkin with the co-operation of engineers, Pavlyutkin has raised the cutting speed to an unprecedentedly high level.

Confidently operating with different formulas, the lecturer described the composition of the metal used for his tool, and analyzed the speed regulations and the cutting process. The rank-and-file millwright emphasized the tremendous significance of the contact between science and practice; he described the assistance which the engineers had given him and he related the manner in which he has profited from this assistance, assistance which helps him to broaden his theoretical knowledge.

A rank-and-file Soviet worker, Pavlyutkin has achieved tremendous success by employing Stakhanovite methods; but hundreds of workers may achieve even better results by using his methods. And Alexander Pavlyutkin will be satisfied by this, for his primary interest is to help his comrades to raise their skill, efficiency and labor productivity. This is quite natural, for it is the essence of Stakhanov labor.

The lecture was followed by a discussion in which speakers from the floor took part. After the discussion the audience descended to the ground floor where the cutting laboratory is located. The laboratory has a collection of lathes of the latest designs. Taking his place behind a milling machine, the lecturer gave a practical demonstration of his methods.

Another lecture of this kind that I had occasion to attend was arranged in one of the shops of the Paris Commune Shoe Factory of Moscow. The lecturer was Efrosinya Ilyukhina, a worker in this factory. Her job—cutting the chinks off the shoe sole on a milling machine—may seem quite simple at first glance, but the operation demands a great deal of experience and skill. Although she is only 22 years old, Ilyukhina is the best worker in the shop, and perhaps the best in Moscow.

The lecture of this distinguished woman worker was attended by a Deputy Minister of the Light Industry of the USSR, by leaders of the central committee of the trade union of the leather industry workers and by executives of the factory. The shop, temporarily converted into a lecture hall, was filled with men and women shoe workers from all the factories of Moscow.

Again and again Efrosinya interrupted her lecture and went to her machine to give a practical demonstration of her methods.

And the young woman clad in a blue smock went on to tell how to calculate the motions, tune up the lathe, and fasten the cutter to prevent defects. All her statements were simple, understandable and technically substantiated. The Deputy Minister—who sat next to me—whispered in my ear: "We recently heard her report at a meeting of the collegium of our Ministry. A very capable young woman!"

These and all other "Stakhanovite Tuesdays-at-Home" I attended reflect the tremendous intellectual development of the Soviet worker. The intellectual power of the Soviet worker subordinates the machine, lathe and tool to his will, his reason, forcing the machine to give the most effective service to Soviet society. Nor are interests of Soviet workers confined to their particular trade or profession. They are people with a wide range of interests. The lectures mentioned in the present article are merely a small part of their interesting and rich activities.

I have attended many "Stakhanovite Tuesdays-at-Home." And as a rule each Stakhanovite spoke of his co-operation with the engineers, technicians and technologists. The representatives of science and engineering help the worker to broaden his theoretical knowledge, and the engineer profits from the practical experience and the skill of the worker. This co-operation between the men and women of science and of labor furthers the progress of the land of socialism.

"People With a Clear Conscience" — A Novel of the Partisans

By Major General Peter Vershigora

THE story of my life is told in my book, *People with a Clear Conscience*, the story of those Ukrainian partisans with whom I fought under Sidor Kovpak—Twice Hero of the Soviet Union—in the Second World War. I served in the ranks under Kovpak; became a company commander, later his assistant in reconnaissance, and, when Kovpak departed for the "Mainland"* in December, 1943, I was left in command of his troops. In 1944, when I was a Major General, the Soviet Government conferred on me the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

My life before the war certainly gave no indication that I would become a military man.

I was an orphan at twelve. I first worked as a shepherd in my native village of Severinovka, in Moldavia. When I was a young man I dreamed of being an agronomist. Instead, I became a shoemaker for a while, and then a trombone player, playing polkas and waltzes at weddings. I also headed the village little theater group. And when my turn came to serve my country in the Red Army, I became the bandmaster of an Odessa regiment.

While I was in Odessa, the roll and the smell of the sea attracted me, and for a while I thought of being a sailor. But the love of art was stronger: I entered an Odessa institute to study stage producing. I became an actor and producer, worked in various theaters, and taught for two years at a theater school. Then I resumed my studies, this time at the Motion Picture Academy, where I attended the lectures of many famous film producers, among them Eisenstein, Gerasimov, Yutkevich, and the Vasiliev brothers. I also began to write, and in the early part of June, 1941—just before the Nazis invaded our country—I finished a play called *Kotovsky's Oak*, which dealt with a Moldavian peasant revolt. I was graduated at about the same

Major General Peter Vershigora

time from the Academy, and began working as a producer in the Kiev film studios. Shortly after, war broke out. And on the fourth day of the war, I joined the Red Army.

When I reported to the regiment to which I had been assigned, I was made an assistant company commander. Subsequently I became a supply officer, reconnaissance officer, and battalion commander. And I headed a brigade of photographer-correspondents and drove to the forward positions in a captured German *Oppelblitz*.* But I wasn't satisfied. I kept wondering: what part am I best fitted to play in the struggle for my country's freedom? I had been tested under heavy fire. I had taken advantage of a photo-correspondent's privileges and had seen many things others were not privileged to see.

Finally I decided that my place was in the ranks of the partisans.

In the early spring of 1942, I was placed at the disposal of the Staff Department of the Briansk Front, and soon after that I flew across the front lines and bailed out—a parachutist in the enemy rear. An hour later I was introduced to the commander of the United Partisan Detachments.

And at this time a figure about whom there were legends, and whom the Germans held in mortal terror, broke through the Nazi lines and led his forces to the forests of Briansk. His name was Sidor Kovpak.

When he appeared in the neighborhood, I got into my one-horse cart and drove to see him.

My first impression of his detachment and the way they lived was that of a confident, easy rhythm of campaign life; I saw that his fighters were men who worked with a profound sense of their own dignity. When I had been among them a few days, I knew that I would fight with no one else. And I knew that should I ever have the power to write a book about them, that it must be called: *People With a Clear Conscience.*

Many of Kovpak's heroes are dead. Their graves are to be found scattered over the country from the forests of Briansk to the Pinsk Marshes, from Zhitomir to the Carpathians, from Volhynia to Przemysl, from Warsaw to Brest and Belostok. Unassuming men who did not look upon themselves as heroes, men who were the very flesh of the unconquerable Soviet people. Some were elderly; some were lads of 16; they came from all walks of life. And they were all men of crystal-clear and unblemished conscience.

I trod the roads of war with them, faced death and victory shoulder to shoulder with them—from the first months of the war until its glorious end.

That is truly how I became a writer.

Somewhere in the raging fires of war, my old manuscripts perished—the two novels and the play. I regretted their loss, but I knew that only when I had written *People With A Clear Conscience*, could I say I was a writer. And I realized that the other works had been mere experiments.

The Soviet people liked my novel.

* Soviet partisans fighting behind enemy lines referred to unoccupied Soviet territory as the "mainland."

* German military car roughly equivalent to the "jeep."

It was awarded the Stalin Prize in 1946, and has been placed in the *Library of Selected Works of Soviet Literature,* which was published for the 30th Anniversary of the October Revolution.

I enjoy being with my readers in libraries, clubs, at literary conferences, children's matinees and students' evenings. When I am speaking on the platform, it seems to me that the people in the audience are close friends, guests in my home, with whom I may speak plainly and intimately. And I tell them how a stout, good-humored producer, once a musician and actor, a passionate lover of nature, dreamer and philosopher, became the commander of a detachment of daring scouts, and then of a whole division which executed raids which had brilliant results.

Sometimes my audience and I exchange roles; my "guests" talk and I listen. Such was the case with the tryout of my play which was based on *People With a Clear Conscience.* The audience discussed it and criticized it, while the producer and I made notes of the remarks and criticisms. On the basis of these, we altered the play and its production, corrected it and made additions.

What an invaluable aid to Soviet writers is this close contact with those for whom we write!

I often have occasion to help young writers with their work. Several committees have been instituted in the Soviet Writers' Union for this express purpose; and the more experienced literary novelists, poets and critics help beginners, as well as those who live at some distance from the writers' center, and writers of the various national republics.

I am the chairman of one of these committees, and consequently have many opportunities to talk to the young people who write about our Soviet Army and the Second World War. I read their work, analyze and criticize it and advise them.

But my main work now is the third part of the novel: *People With A Clear Conscience,* the concluding account of the last stage of the partisan warfare in which Kovpak's division took part—of the last part of the war, and of victory.

New Soviet Music

by George Polyanovsky

SOVIET composers are now working intensively on many new operas, on new concertos for violin and piano, and on symphonies and ballades. And the themes of most of them are the heroic years of the war—for in wartime the finest traits of the Soviet character emerged: courage, self-sacrificing heroism, and supreme devotion to country.

Sergei Prokofieff, for instance, is attempting in his new music to embody the spirit of the young Soviet soldier. He is using Boris Polevoi's documentary novel, *The Tale of A Real Man,* as the basis for his new opera, in which the melodies and intonations of Russian folk songs will play a dominant role. *The Tale of A Real Man* is the story of Alexei Maresyev, a Soviet pilot who lost his feet as the result of a combat injury, yet returned to fight again in the air and was subsequently honored with the title, Hero of the Soviet Union.

Dmitri Shostakovich recently completed a violin concerto and is now engaged in writing music for the film based on the novel, *The Young Guard,* by Alexander Fadeyev. He also intends to write an opera based on this novel. *The Young Guard* is the true story of those teenage boys and girls of Krasnodon, in the Soviet Ukraine, who, when the Germans invaded their land, carried on guerrilla activity against the enemy. Their exploits were amazing: they blew up bridges, derailed trains, and killed Germans. Many of them were finally caught and executed.

Vladimir Krukov, the composer of several operas based on Pushkin's works, and the composer of the historical opera, *Dmitri Donskoy,* is now writing an opera based on Emmanuel Kazakevich's novel *The Star,* which deals with the exploits of Soviet reconnaissance-fighters during the recent war. Dmitri Kabalevsky is writing an opera based on Constantine Paustovsky's *Nastya, the Lacemaker,* a narrative whose action takes place during the recent war. And Alexei Muravlev, one of the most able of that group of young composers who show a preference for choral music, ballades and mass songs, is engaged now in composing a series of ballades. Muravlev's latest is *March of the Guards,* a highly melodic ballade distinguished by its depth of conception and sincerity of mood. Sergei Grigoriev, another young composer who prefers the vocal genre, is attempting to bring to life in his oratorio *Zoya,* a true and vivid conception of the dauntless girl partisan, Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, who was caught and hanged by the Germans.

On another level is Reinhold Gliere's new ballet, *The Bronze Rider,* which Gliere completed in piano. This work is based on Pushkin's famous work of the same name.

Many composers, attracted by the difficult and challenging task of creating a Soviet opera, are returning to the rich spring of their country's pre-Revolutionary history for inspiration. Constantine Dankevich, for instance, a Ukrainian composer, is now completing an historical-heroic opera, an opera woven around the national hero of the Ukraine, Bogdan Khmelnitsky.

Anatole Alexandrov, the composer of many works for string quartets, and many piano sonatas and ballades, as well as an opera based on Mikhail Lermontov's *Bela,* has given us a new series of children's piano selections, for which, to a certain extent, his six-year-old granddaughter Lialya is co-composer. These pieces, simple in technique—*Raindrops Are Pattering, A Bear is Playing the Fiddle,* and others—are intended for musicians of Lialya's age, and are likely to become popular among students at many children's music schools throughout the country. Alexandrov has also just finished his symphonic overture on Russian folk-song themes.

The Bolshoi Theater in Moscow has accepted a new ballet for production. It is called *Mirandolina* and was composed by Sergei Vasilenko, one of the oldest Soviet composers. It is an adaption of Goldoni's play, *La Locandiera.* Vasilenko finished a long cantata not long ago.

Soviet composers are enthusiastically working in all genres, and the fall concert season promises to be interesting.

A Muscovite's Diary

A FRIEND OF MINE, an engineer from the coal-rich Donbas, dropped in the other day for a glass of tea and some of our sweet Moscow pastries. Though he was spending his vacation in Moscow, he could talk nothing but shop: specifically, he was full of stories about "daylight mines."

It seems that for three years now the *Gigant* Mine, which though wrecked by the Nazis was one of the first to be restored, has been testing daylight lamps in the mines. Since the tests have been highly successful, this innovation is now being applied in other mines.

An explosion-proof, luminescent lighting unit suitable for any mine has been perfected. Its latest form is a luminescent glass tube about 15 inches long, encased in a light metal casing. A safe wiring plan has also been devised, and a number of mines in various parts of the USSR are now worked entirely by "daylight."

MY FRIEND HAD SPENT the first week of his vacation in Leningrad, and told me that he had gone to the premiere of *Kingsblood Royal,* the play adapted from the novel of the same name by the American writer, Sinclair Lewis. V. Limanovskaya and M. Mendelson did the adaptation for the Leningrad New Drama Theater, and the lead is played by A. Kuznetsov. The play is a moving one, my friend said, and has been playing to full houses.

HE HAD ALSO GONE out to the suburban town of Pushkin (formerly Tsarskoye Selo), where the great writer Pushkin spent his youth. He was happy to find that the Leningraders have managed to remove most of the traces of the destruction perpetrated by Nazi barbarism. The town is to be made into a center for the study of Pushkin's life and work, and the Pushkin museum will be moved there next year.

OUR FARMS in a short time can expect even better tractors than the ones which have helped to produce this year's splendid harvest. For I read that the Altai Tractor Plant in Siberia has completed tests on new diesel types of tractors, which are cheaper to operate than other types, and very efficient. They're now to be manufactured on a large scale.

ALTHOUGH I'M NOT in the tractor class of farmer myself, I might be if I had a slightly larger garden.

The smallest tractor in the world, one-twelfth the size of the Soviet C-8C tractor, has been designed by the All-Union Agricultural Machine-Building Institute and has proved a splendid little machine for large gardens. It is powered with an air-cooled, one-cylinder, three-horsepower engine. Small implements especially designed for it can be easily attached.

The "tractor-driver" walks behind the midget machine, holding handles fitted with controls. The baby tractor is fitted with a pulley, which enables its engine to drive small dynamo machines, root cutters, pumps, and so forth. It is to be produced in large numbers, and I expect to see some of these little machines puffing about the Moscow suburbs next spring.

I HAD A BIT OF BUSINESS at the Ministry of the Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas of the USSR a fortnight ago, and as I was leaving, the lettering on a door caught my eye. It said: "Alexei Grigoryevich Stakhanov."

Everyone knows that Stakhanov is the man for whom the nationwide Stakhanov movement for high labor production was named after his extraordinary success in that field 13 years ago, when he was a Donbas miner.

I met Stakhanov years ago when he was still a miner and I lived in the Ukraine. So now I went in to renew our acquaintance. Stakhanov, who is now 43, looks much the same. He is a mining engineer, and handles matters bearing on socialist competition among the miners. Hundreds of thousands of miners are participating in these competitions, he told me, and millions of rubles have been allocated for premiums to be paid to mine sections and mining crews for outstanding work.

Stakhanov is now a confirmed Muscovite, and has a pleasant apartment for himself, his wife and four children.

"Come to see us on Miners' Day, August 29," he said. "It's a great holiday and we'll be holding open house."

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

September 13—September 26

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from September 13 to September 26 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Monday, Tuesday, and Thursdays, September 14, 16, 20, 23—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays and Friday, September 15, 22, 24—Scientific and cultural programs.

Friday, September 17—Program for youth.

Monday and Tuesday, September 13 and 21—Trade unions.

Thursday, September 16—Program for farmers.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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USSR

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SEPTEMBER 22, 1948

AUTUMN FLOWERS. A collective farm girl picks flowers for market. FRONT COVER. Rural electrification is proceeding swiftly. A farm woman watches as wiring is installed in her house. BACK COVER. Ukrainian schoolchildren with their music teacher.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Text of Soviet Statement on Violations Of Decisions Concerning Japan

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, acting in his capacity as Soviet representative to the Far Eastern Commission, on September 16 presented the following statement to the Commission:

STATEMENT BY THE SOVIET REPRESENTATIVE ON THE FAR EASTERN COMMISSION, CONCERNING THE VIOLATION BY GENERAL MACARTHUR OF THE FEC DECISIONS FEC-014/9, "BASIC POST-SURRENDER POLICY FOR JAPAN," AND FEC-045/5, "PRINCIPLES FOR JAPANESE TRADE UNIONS."

On July 22, 1948, the Supreme Commander of the occupation troops in Japan, General MacArthur, without consultation with the Allied Council for Japan, sent to Prime Minister Ashida a letter which contained a demand that a full revision of the National Public Service Law, adopted by the session of the Japanese Diet on October 16, 1947, be undertaken immediately. In compliance with this letter the Japanese Government issued, on July 31, 1948, a special order which acquired the force of law and was immediately put into effect. By this order the workers and employees of government enterprises and institutions were forbidden to bargain collectively and to resort to strikes. Simultaneously all previously concluded agreements were declared null and void.

Immediately after the coming into force of this order the Japanese Government and the agencies of local authority launched a broad campaign of repressive measures against the workers and employees of government enterprises and institutions. Mass dismissals from work and numerous arrests of striking workers, employees and leaders of trade unions were carried out. Thus, for example, according to the data of the Japanese Government published in the press, as of September 1 there were issued 915 orders for the arrest of workers and four hundred persons were arrested.

The said actions of the Supreme Commander and the Japanese Government were in violation of paragraph 10 of the Potsdam Declaration of July 26, 1945, as well as in violation of the policy decisions of the Far Eastern Commission FEC-045/5 *Principles for Japanese Trade Unions,* of December 9, 1946, and FEC-014/9 *Basic Post-Surrender Policy for Japan,* of June 20, 1947.

In view of this the Soviet representative on the Allied Council sent to the Supreme Commander on August 11 a letter in which he insisted that the directive of July 22, issued by SCAP to the Japanese Government, be revoked. However, no measures for the remedy of the situation followed on the part of the Supreme Commander. On August 27 the Soviet representative on the Allied Council requested the convocation of a special meeting of the Allied Council, which took place on August 28. At that meeting Major General Kislenko submitted a recommendation to the Supreme Commander that the directive of July 22 issued by him to the Japanese Government, as well as the order of the Japanese Government of July 31, be revoked, and that the repressions against the workers and employees of the government enterprises and institutions be discontinued.

Chairman of the Allied Council Mr. Sebald, who, as is known, expresses the opinion of the Supreme Commander, permitted himself at that meeting to make a distorted interpretation of the FEC decisions mentioned above. He asserted that the FEC decision FEC-045/5 concerning *Principles for Japanese Trade Unions* allegedly did not apply to the workers and employees of government enterprises and institutions, and that therefore the prohibition of strikes and of the conclusion of collective agreements by workers and employees of government enterprises and institutions did not, allegedly, contradict FEC policy.

This interpretation given by the Chairman of the Allied Council is undoubtedly incorrect.

In paragraph 10 of the Potsdam Declaration of July 26, 1945, it is said that ". . . the Japanese Government shall remove all obstacles to the revival and strengthening of democratic tendencies among the Japanese people. Freedom of speech and religion and of thought, as well as respect for the fundamental human rights, shall be established."

In paragraph 2*c*, part I, of the FEC policy decision FEC-014/9 *Basic Post-Surrender Policy for Japan* it is said that the Japanese people "shall be encouraged to form democratic and representative organizations."

Finally, in the FEC decision FEC-045/5 *Principles for Japanese Trade Unions* it is specifically provided that "Japanese workers should be encouraged to form themselves into trade unions for the purpose of preserving and improving conditions of work, participating in industrial negotiations to this end, and otherwise assisting the legitimate trade union interests of workers, including organized participation in building up a peaceful and democratic Japan" (paragraph 1); that "trade unions should be encouraged to negotiate with the employers on behalf of their members regarding terms and conditions of employment" (paragraph 4); that "no police or other government agencies should be employed in spying on workers, breaking strikes, or suppressing legitimate union activities" (paragraph 13).

It is clear from the abovesaid that no exceptions in regard to the workers and employees of governmental enterprises and institutions were made in the decisions mentioned above, and that the interpretation attached to these decisions by the Chairman of the Allied Council has no foundation whatsoever. The Soviet Delegation considers that the Far Eastern Commission cannot bypass such a gross violation by the Supreme Commander of the above-mentioned decisions.

Based upon Article A-2, Part II,

(Continued on page 562)

VORONEZH REBUILT. A street in the city of Voronezh, Russian SFSR, which suffered great damage at the hands of the Nazi armies. Eugenia Gorshkova, a teacher, and her daughter occupy one of the new apartments.

Factories, Farms Too

Homes Restored To 13 Million

From articles by A. Palladin and Ivan Evenko

HOMES and apartments for almost 13.5 million Soviet citizens have been built or restored in war-torn areas of the USSR since August, 1943.

This gigantic undertaking in construction is matched by similar tremendous programs in the revival of agriculture and industry in the devastated zones.

The Soviet Government and the Central Committee of the Communist Party decided five years ago to take immediate measures for the rehabilitation of the areas. At this time the war was at its height; the Red Army had launched a sweeping offensive along its vast front. The Hitlerites were being driven back from Soviet soil.

By midyear, 1948, the reconstruction and rehabilitation program in liberated areas of the USSR had fully restored all waterworks, sewers, and streetcar service in every city liberated from the Nazis.

At the same time the number of workers and employees engaged in construction in these areas was one and one-half times the prewar figure, and the total number of all workers in these zones is now above the prewar total.

Special attention was paid to the restoration of dwelling houses. Thus by June, 1948, 980 thousand dwellings accommodating 4.5 million collective farmers had been built in villages of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. In the Ukraine 705 thousand houses were built, providing homes for 2.6 million people, while in Byelorussia, 340 thousand houses were built for 1.8 million citizens. In cities which suffered from Nazi bomb and torch, 4.5 million people have moved into houses that have been restored or built anew.

An idea of how the Soviet state moved into action on this vast undertaking may be gained from the fact that by the autumn of 1943, the liberated areas had received more than 1,700,000 head of livestock. Of these, 630 thousand head were returned from points to which they had been evacuated as the German hordes approached. The rest were supplied as fraternal help by collective and state farms in the interior.

Also during 1943, collective and state farms in the former war zones received 120 thousand tons of seed, and 326 thousand homes were built to provide shelter for two million people.

In 1943, the Government spent 3,000,000,000 rubles on rehabilitation and in 1944 this figure rose to 14,000,000,000 rubles.

The Five-Year Plan was launched in 1946, and during the past two and one-half years (to mid-1948), more than 43,000,000,000 rubles were spent in restoration—not counting expendi-

tures of local authorities. Thousands of industrial establishments have been rebuilt with these funds.

Industrial output is rapidly mounting. In 1946, total industrial output of the liberated areas rose by 28 per cent over 1945; in 1947 by 33 per cent more over 1946, and in the second quarter of 1948 by 42 per cent additional.

Output of pig iron has registered a gain of 39 per cent; steel, 51, and rolled metal, 55 per cent.

It should be remembered that the damage done by the Nazis in the invaded areas of the Soviet Union amounted to two-thirds of its total national wealth before the war. In the cities, the Germans destroyed more than a million homes, or half of their total residential floor space. In the rural areas the havoc wrought by the Nazis cost more than one-third of the residential space.

More than 31 thousand factories, plants and other industrial enterprises were fully or partially demolished and looted.

Soviet agriculture also suffered heavily from the war. The invaders destroyed about 100 thousand collective farms, 1,876 state farms and 2,890 machine-and-tractor stations.

All in all, the direct material damage sustained by the Soviet Union and its people amounts to 679,000,000,000 rubles at prewar, state prices. This is equivalent to 128,000,000,000 dollars in United States currency.

An estimated 25 million persons were made homeless in Soviet towns and villages by the destruction of some 6 million buildings.

The postwar reconstruction program (Five-Year Plan) has aroused the people to the task yet ahead. A few weeks ago the leading personnel of 35 Moscow mills and factories published a letter to the workers saying, that in taking stock of their prospects, these enterprises have decided that by cutting costs, they can yield in this year additional socialist accumulations of 172 million rubles.

Enterprises in the Donbas, Zaporozhye, Kiev, Byelorussia and other regions which suffered heavily from the Nazis, are doing likewise. Factory collectives everywhere are reconsidering their pledges and outlook with a view to yielding billions of rubles in accumulations over and above the plan by cutting production costs.

Great successes have also been scored in agriculture. Despite widespread damage from invasion and the war, sown acreage in most districts are close to prewar figures.

Among the regions which have completed grain deliveries ahead of time are the Nikolayev, Zaporozhye, and Stalino Regions of the Ukraine, the Gomel, Polotsk and Baranovichi Regions of Byelorussia. Each of these Regions was among the worst sufferers. during the war.

Orel provides another splendid example of the success of postwar restoration. Orel is one of the Soviet cities that suffered most severely from Nazi barbarism. Total losses approximated 1,000,000,000 rubles. Since liberation, 54 industrial enterprises have been rebuilt and commissioned, and more than 74 thousand square meters* of living floor space, 23 schools, two moving picture houses, two museums and 14 kilometers** of streetcar lines restored. The city's water mains are now longer than they were before the war. And more than three hundred enterprises have been rehabilitated in Orel Region.

Altogether, the creative efforts of the Soviet people are fast healing the wounds of war in the liberated areas. All of them are making great strides, both economically and culturally today.

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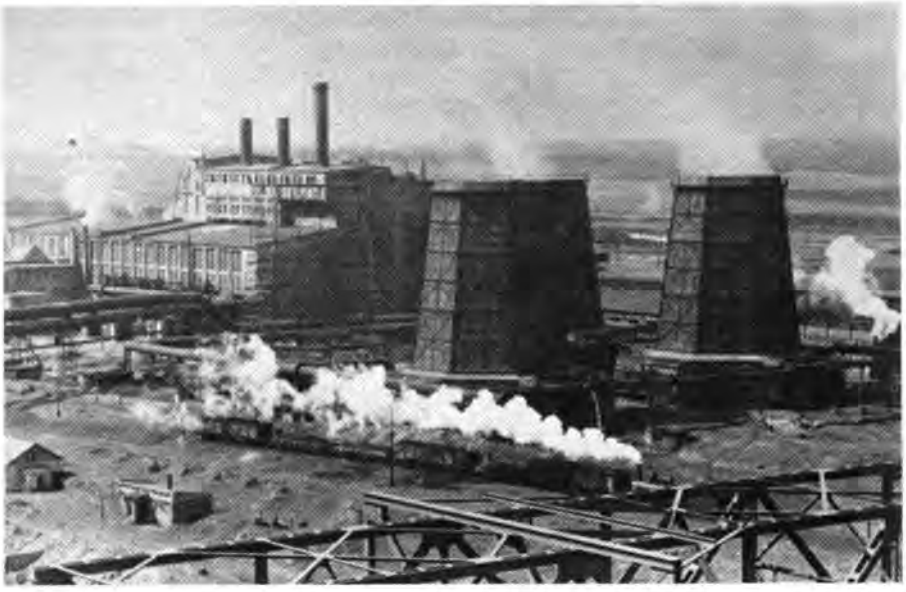
*One square meter = 10.764 square feet.
**One kilometer = .621 of one mile.



POWER STATION. The rebuilt station at the Voroshilov Iron and Steel Mill, the Ukraine.

AGRICULTURE. Restored farm buildings and new herds of a Soviet farm.

PRACTICAL RESEARCH. Academician Lysenko (right), measures, with farmers, the rate of growth of wheat.

Fruit, Grain Flourish In Soviet Arctic

Condensed from an Article by Gennadi Fish

DESPITE attacks from traditionalists in the field of biology, Soviet science has proved that nature can be modified for the benefit of mankind and society.

Fruit trees are bearing in Siberia where they were unknown 20 years ago; orchards, on a commercial scale, bloom within the Arctic circle in European Russia.

Collective farmers, faced with waving oceans of simultaneously ripening wheat that meant long workdays, have been given a variety that ripens five days earlier than old types—and thus eases their labor by making it possible to stagger the dates of harvest.

An early-ripening potato gives farmers of the Soviet north a new crop, while those farther south are rewarded with two crops where one grew before.

These are only a few of the successes won by Soviet experts working in the field of agrobiological science as first advanced by Ivan Michurin, one of the greatest biologists of modern times.

In order to attain these successes, Soviet biologists had to discard the old "idealist" science of Weismann, Mendel and Morgan. These men held that variations in organisms from conditions of life are not inherited; that there is a hereditary substance, which is immortal and not subject to change.

This traditional theory has been exposed and dialectical materialism has won again over metaphysics.

At the recent session of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences in Moscow, attended by seven hundred scientific workers, the main report was delivered by Trofim Lysenko, president of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences.

Lysenko and other followers of Michurin have given the Soviet Union the idea of *yarovization* (vernalization) of seeds, which adds millions of tons of grain to the harvest yearly.

In the southern sections of the Soviet Union, the potato was degenerating, and potatoes had to be imported. In Odessa, for instance, potatoes cost more than grapes. Dozens of explanations were offered by scientists, but none could improve the situation. Then Lysenko, on the basis of the theory of the development of plants by stages, suggested summer planting of the potatoes. This solved the potato problem in the south, while the Morganists and Mendelists went on writing books to prove it was not possible of solution.

Academician Eichfeld told the session that during and since the recent war, the All-Union Institute of Plant Breeding has "produced about 170 strains of various cultivated plants. Discoveries have been made opening up opportunities for farming north of the Arctic circle and in desert zones. At Khibiny, we have produced a strain of early-ripening potatoes which farther south gives two harvests a year."

Winter wheat in Siberia was a problem of national economic importance. In line with a decision of the February 1947 Plenum of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), calling for work on this problem, Lysenko solved the age-old riddle. There is no strain of winter wheat which cannot now winter in Siberia.

This year, according to Director G. Vysokos of the Siberian Scientific Research Institute of Grain Farming, the winter wheat yield in Siberia will average 18.27 metric centners* per hectare** and will reach 30 metric centners per hectare.

In horticulture too, the Michurin method is meeting great successes. At present some 208 new varieties of fruits and berries cultivated by Michurin and

*One metric centner=220.46 pounds.
**One hectare=2.471 acres.

ARCTIC TOMATOES. They are grown above the Arctic Circle.

his pupils have been introduced into agricultural production in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. In their yield, frost-resistance and taste, these considerably excel many old Russian and foreign varieties.

In the Far East, the Urals, Siberia and the northern districts of the European part of the USSR, where formerly there were no orchards at all, save single trees grown by individual amateurs, there are more than 20 thousand hectares of orchards in collective and state farms and in the private gardens of collective farmers, factory and office workers. Orchards and berry patches are now being laid out even in the Far North, beyond the Arctic circle.

In the Minusin District, Krasnoyarsk Territory, not a single fruit tree grew before the October Revolution. At present orchards in the territory cover a total of 1,500 hectares.

The Altai Territory is becoming a region of gardens. In the city of Gorno-Altaisk, where no fruit trees were grown previously, factory and office workers have two thousand gardens in which Michurin varieties and new varieties propagated by Siberian selectors are growing. Michurin apple and cherry trees, bearing large fruit, are successfully grown in Siberia in the so-called "trailing" form.

Professor Nikolai Nuzhdin, assistant director of the Institute of Genetics, of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, wrote of the Lysenko report that it "expresses the new, advanced, materialist and progressive trend in the development of biological science. From now on Soviet biology will progress along the path indicated by Michurin, the path of Soviet, creative Darwinism. This trend reflects the highest stage of development of materialist biology. . ."

Nuzhdin commented that the teachings of the Weismann-Mendel-Morgan school proceed from the allegation "that two large categories of living matter exist: the 'hereditary substance' (idioplasm) and the 'nutritive substance' or trophoplasm (soma). The hereditary substance, according to Weismannism, is deathless and never renewed. . . . The entire conception of the Mendelist-Morganists leads to teachings on the incomprehensibility of the causes of variations in organisms,

FAR NORTHERN WHEAT. Harvesting in the Yakut ASSR, in the zone of eternal frost. Not only grain of various types, but vegetables and fruit trees of the ground-hugging Michurin type, flourish now in the Soviet North.

"SNOW FLAKES." This variety of potato has been acclimatized in the Arctic. It grows well in cold climates, and is now being extensively cultivated.

to a denial of the possibility of controlling this variation and obtaining in planned fashion, the forms of animals and plants necessary to man."

Michurin's teachings, continued by Lysenko, refute the theory that heredity does not depend on environment, and as Nuzhdin wrote recently, "the victory of the collective system of farming has created all the conditions for the development of advanced Michurin teachings."

As Michurin was about to hand over his work to others, he wrote: "I see that the collective farm system by means of which the Communist Party is beginning to carry out the great work of renewing the earth, will lead the working people to true power over the forces of nature. A great future for the whole of our natural science lies in the collective and state farms."

This explains why the Soviet people cherish with such loving care the great legacy left by Michurin and disdain the slander against him pronounced by avid reactionaries of Europe and North America.

Soviet Power Means Electricity, Too

LENIN'S dream of total rural electrification is moving with great strides toward complete fulfillment in the Soviet Union today.

Before the Revolution of 1917, there were only 80 rural power plants in the whole of Russia. By 1924 there were 450, and these increased to 10,825 in 1940, with a proportionate capacity boost in these plants.

The barbaric Nazis did considerable damage to the electrification of Soviet agriculture, but by 1943 rural power plants had regained their prewar power. Since then the program has been stepped up and by January 1, 1948, the capacity of rural power plants had doubled to 525,700 kilowatts. Electric power became available to 17,700 collective farms and several thousand state machine-and-tractor-stations.

The postwar Five-Year Plan provides for an increase in the capacity of village power plants by one million kilowatts. This will be achieved through the construction of small hydroelectric plants. The Plan allocates 7,200,000,000 rubles for this specific purpose.

In Sverdlovsk Region in the Urals, whose main center is the city of Sverdlovsk (932 miles from Moscow), a small number of communities, during the prewar period, received power from industrial enterprises or from their own small power stations. But the Uralites were not satisfied—they dreamed of electric lights in every village and hamlet and humming motors on every collective farm.

And before the war was over a broad program of rural electrification was undertaken in Sverdlovsk Region.

This work began in two directions. First, those districts through which high-power lines ran to factories and plants, tapped these high-power lines with branch lines.

Second, where no industrial transmission lines existed, it was necessary to build small rural power stations. These were mostly hydroelectric plants. There are many small mountain streams in the Urals, and villages near these streams built dams and erected power stations.

FARKHAD. Main switchboard of the Farkhad Hydroelectric Station, an important new station of Soviet Central Asia.

Rural electrification became a real movement among the people of this Region, and by the end of 1947, every collective farm in all of Sverdlovsk Region had electricity.

Alexandra Rozdyakonova, one of the women-members of the Projector Collective Farm in Achitsk District, commenting on the new power, declared:

"Electricity has made our work much easier, especially for the women. It was no easy matter to carry water from the well or to turn the straw-cutter by hand. Now all you have to do is turn on the switch."

Another example comes from the Dawn Collective Farm, also in Sverdlovsk Region. About 25 years ago this was just a small village. Fifteen years ago the collective farm was founded, with a total estimated value at the time of 25 thousand rubles. Its value now is estimated at five million rubles. During the five-year period preceding electrification, the farm produced 7,800 metric centners* of grain. In the five-year period since electrification, it has produced 20 thousand metric centners of grain.

The Dawn Collective Farm has more than 7,400 acres of land, of which 4,153 are planted with grain crops.

This collective farm has a blacksmith shop and other workshops in which all machines are operated by electricity.

The farm has two power stations of two hundred kilowatts each. One is a steam plant; the other a hydroelectric station.

Electricity also plays a vital part in the cultural development of the Soviet people in the Urals. Because of the new power, every Village Soviet now has a stationary sound-picture projector. The use of radio is becoming widespread. Hospitals, schools and village clubs all give better service because of electricity. Bright electric light has replaced the flickering kerosene lamp.

Rural electrification is fast becoming a reality across the Soviet land; the Soviet people are making Lenin's dream come true.

* One metric centner = 220.46 pounds.

Soviet Zone of Germany Thrives

By I. Kabin

THE Soviet occupation zone in Germany has registered further economic progress in recent months. Output of peacetime industry and agriculture is increasing. Peaceful economic development is the result of the democratic reforms effected in the Soviet zone on the basis of the Yalta and Potsdam agreements of the three great powers.

It is known that the decisions of the Potsdam Conference envisaged the destruction within the shortest possible time of excessive concentration of economic power, represented by cartels, syndicates, trusts and other monopolistic organizations.

As distinct from the Western zones of occupation in Germany where the magnates of capital have preserved their economic positions, in the Soviet zone all large concerns, cartels, trusts and other monopolies have been eliminated. They comprised the might of German monopoly capital, carrier of the insane aggressive plans for German world domination. The property of war criminals has been confiscated in the Soviet zone. Nearly all (97.3 per cent) enterprises of the mining industry have been turned over to regional and municipal self-government authorities as well as more than half (52.5 per cent) of the metallurgical plants, 60.1 per cent of power plants, 42.5 per cent of the machinery factories and most of the chemical factories and pulp and paper mills. Together with the publicly-owned industry there are also about 37 thousand small and medium-sized industrial establishments and 274 thousand handicraft shops.

The private and selfish interests of the capitalists who formerly owned the large concerns no longer determine economic policy in this part of Germany. All conditions for avoiding economic crises have been created in the Soviet zone as a result of planned direction of economy and rational financial policy directed to the interests of the working people. The democratic constitutions of the Laender and of the provinces assure the people control over the economy. Production councils and trade unions are guaranteed the right of participation in the management of industry. At the same time, private capitalist enterprises have the opportunity within the framework of the general tasks, to display economic initiative and thus to take part in economic recovery, in improving the living standards of the people.

As a result of democratic reforms, tens of thousands of men and women from the ranks of labor have been advanced to management of industrial and business institutions. Among the managers of industrial establishments, 38.3 per cent are former workers, 29.1 per cent office employees; 13.3 per cent engineers and 15.2 per cent former businessmen.

All workers who are members of trade unions are covered by social insurance and have the right to an annual vacation with pay. The system of labor protection at factories and mills has been reorganized.

Particular attention is being paid in the Soviet zone to the development of peaceful industry, the rise of labor productivity and the increase in output of consumer goods. An honest and conscientious attitude to labor is being developed among the workers. This work is particularly successful at enterprises which have become the property of the people. Progressive wage scales introduced for greater output provide a great stimulus to better work.

Great possibilities for advancing industry and substantially improving the people's living standards are offered by Marshal Sokolovsky's Order No. 234 issued in October, 1947. This order outlines concrete measures for stimulating greater output, developing labor competition, combating absenteeism, black marketeers, etc.

The order was acclaimed by the people and ushered in control by the masses, control which is exercised through Committees of People's Control. Such committees have been set up in the entire zone and enjoy the full support of the population. These committees include, in addition to the delegates of the trade unions, representatives of other public organizations. The committees wage a struggle against profiteers and idlers and are uncovering hidden stocks of food, raw materials, etc.

The agrarian reform is one of the most important democratic changes contributing to the successful economic recovery of the Soviet occupation zone. The Junkers and landlords, who have always been the mainstay of reaction and militarism in Germany and who, together with monopoly capital, nurtured German fascism and brought Hitler to power, were deprived by the agrarian reform of their material foundation.

Thousands of Junker and landlord estates totaling three million hectares,* were confiscated under the agrarian reform. This land was distributed among 500 thousand families of peasants having small plots or no land at all. In addition, peasants of Eastern Germany received 440 thousand head of cattle, six thousand tractors and 270 thousand assorted agricultural machines which had belonged to the landlords. The newly established farmsteads have been given credits to the amount of 350 million marks.

In the process of the agrarian reform a powerful peasant organization came into being, the Peasant Mutual Aid Union, which unites nearly 500 thousand households. As many as 11,922 local societies of this union help the peasants with tractors, agricultural equipment, implements, seed, etc. Agricultural co-operatives have been restored and are developing their activities along new, democratic lines. These co-operatives now have 872 thousand members in 6,198 rural co-operative societies.

These democratic reforms in industry and agriculture have made for

* One hectare=2.471 acres.

swift and effective economic development in the Soviet occupation zone.

At the end of 1947 industrial output in Eastern Germany was 56.2 per cent of prewar output. The production program for the first quarter of 1948 was fulfilled by 136 per cent and for the first six months by 132 per cent. The work of transport has improved considerably. The plan for freight carriage has been fulfilled by 104 per cent on the railways, 110 per cent on inland waterways and 116 per cent by automotive transport. The volume of wholesale and retail trade has increased.

The successes scored in reviving peaceful industry in the Soviet zone are particularly striking against the background of stagnation in Western Germany, where industrial output in May was only 40 per cent of the prewar level.

If we take the situation in agriculture in the Soviet zone we find that the area sown in grain and other food crops increased by 450,800 hectares during 1946 and 1947. During the same period cattle increased by 18.6 per cent, hogs by 83.3 per cent, sheep and goats by 45.9 per cent and poultry by 126.6 per cent. In 1948 the sown area was further extended. The peasants in the Soviet zone have raised a bigger crop this year than last.

It is interesting to note that in Western Germany the productivity of agriculture is only 50 per cent of the prewar level. Far from increasing, the sown area is declining and large tracts of arable land belonging to landlords remain untilled, while tens of thousands of peasants have no land of their own whatever.

In 1948 the Soviet zone has entered a new stage in its political and economic development. The German Economic Commission has drafted and adopted a two-year plan for economic development which envisages a substantial increase in industrial output. The object is to improve the operation of publicly-owned enterprises and to eliminate bottlenecks in the production of pig iron, steel and rolled metal. Agriculture has as its aim a resolute advance in order to speed the end of rationing.

The democratic development of the peaceful economy of the Soviet zone in Germany provides all the requisites for realizing this plan.

Germans in Soviet Zone To Get More Food

On September 3, Marshal of the Soviet Union Sokolovsky, commander-in-chief of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, signed Order No. 151 on raising the food rations for the population of the Soviet zone of occupation in Germany.

In accordance with this order, the decision of the German Economic Commission increasing the food rations for the population of the Soviet zone as of October 1, 1948, has been approved. The number of industrial workers and office employees receiving additional hot meals in accordance with Order No. 234 is to be increased from October 1, 1948, by 500 thousand, which will bring it up to 1,500,000 persons. Increased food rations established for 16 large towns of the Soviet zone in Germany will also be introduced in workers' settlements in the province of Brandenburg around Berlin, which has a total population of 200 thousand.

In connection with Marshal Sokolovsky's order introducing higher food rations for the population of the Soviet occupation zone, Heinrich Rau, chairman of the German Economic Commission, declared this meant an important improvement of food conditions in the Soviet zone and that the order would benefit some 16 million persons. The first category, rations for workers, will now amount to 2,314 calories. Rations for children five to fifteen years of age will be considerably raised. In the case of the hot meals for industrial and office workers, all will receive an additional 645 calories daily.

Herr Rau stated that the German Economic Commission had instructed the governments of the Laender to take all necessary steps to insure the proper functioning of the new system of supply. The necessary food stocks are available.

This important measure was made possible by food deliveries from the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Poland and other countries, as well as by a satisfactory crop in the Soviet occupation zone.

It follows several measures adopted by Soviet authorities ensuring adequate supplies of food to Berlin.

On July 19, 1948, the Council of Ministers of the USSR issued a decree stating that "In view of the request of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany, the Council of Ministers of the USSR has decided to put at the disposal of the Soviet Military Administration in Germany 100 thousand (metric) tons of wheat and a corresponding quantity of other foodstuffs from the state reserves of the USSR for the supply of Berlin, including its Western Sectors."

In accordance with this decree, wheat and other foodstuffs sufficient to meet the then existing rations for every citizen of Berlin were supplied to the city, beginning August 1. At the same time, steps were taken to buy food for Berlin from other countries.

Soviet Statement on Japan

(Continued from page 555)

of the Terms of Reference of the Far Eastern Commission, which provides for the Commission the right "to review . . . any action taken by the Supreme Commander involving policy decisions within the jurisdiction of the Commission," the Soviet Delegation submits a proposal to adopt a policy decision of the following substance:

1. In accordance with Article III-2 of the Terms of Reference of the Far Eastern Commission, the Supreme Commander should be requested to revoke his directive of July 22 and the ordinance of the Japanese Government of July 31 concerning the prohibition of strikes and collective bargaining for the workers and employees of governmental enterprises and institutions, as being contrary to the decisions of the Far Eastern Commission FEC-014/9 and FEC-045/5 and as violating the principles for democratization of Japan.

2. Repressive measures against the workers and employees of governmental enterprises and institutions should be discontinued.

Nations Trade with USSR Without "Conditions"

By Alexander Stepanov

STRICT and scrupulous observance of the obligations assumed under treaties and agreements has always been characteristic of Soviet foreign policy and Soviet policy in the sphere of foreign trade. This is a fact known to the entire world, and even enemies of the Soviet Union concede it. The trade treaties and agreements between the Soviet Union and foreign countries are fully reciprocal and contain nothing prejudicial to the political independence of the parties involved.

Basing its foreign-trade policy on the principle of good-neighborly relations with all countries desiring to extend their trade with it, the Soviet Union, before the Second World War, had established trade relations with practically all the countries with which it maintained diplomatic relations.

Stalin said in his report to the 18th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks):

"We stand for peace and the strengthening of business relations with all countries. That is our position, and we shall adhere to this position as long as these countries maintain like relations with the Soviet Union, and as long as they make no attempt to trespass on the interests of our country."

Soon after the end of the Second World War the Soviet Union concluded trade treaties with Poland, Denmark, Hungary, Finland, Romania, France, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland and Bulgaria. More recently, the Soviet Union concluded long-term trade agreements with Denmark, Hungary, Finland, Norway, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, the Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union, Switzerland and the Netherlands.

During the three postwar years, the Soviet Union has carried on a lively trade with the countries of Central and Southeastern Europe and other European countries. This has been in the mutual interests of the countries concerned and has furthered the re-establishment and development of international ties disrupted by the Second World War.

With the people's democracies, which suffered most from the war, the Soviet Union has concluded agreements granting them credits, and providing for deliveries of industrial equipment and for technical assistance to rehabilitate their national economies. Such agreements have been concluded with Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria and Poland.

When a number of countries—such as Bulgaria, France, Romania, Hungary, Poland, Finland, and Czechoslovakia—suffered from a scarcity of food products, the Soviet Union supplied them with grain out of its own stocks (even when these stocks were limited), without demanding any particular privileges or advantages in return.

The latest trade agreements with Poland and Czechoslovakia are a clear example of the Soviet Union's policy of friendly co-operation and assistance in the restoration and strengthening of the national economies of these countries. Since there is a mutual desire to extend economic relations and ensure the conditions for uninterrupted trade, the agreements have been concluded for a term of five years.

The agreement on trade and payments between the USSR and the Czechoslovak Republic, signed on December 11, 1947, sets definite quotas of mutual deliveries of goods for 1948 and at the same time establishes the volume of trade for the coming four years; the value of deliveries on each side will amount to about 5,000,000,000 Czechoslovak crowns a year. Since it would have been difficult for Czechoslovakia in 1948 to pay fully with her own goods for the goods delivered by the Soviet Union, a short-term credit was granted.

In the debate on this trade agreement in the Czechoslovak National Assembly on February 4, 1948, Deputy Fierlinger, speaking for the Parliamentary foreign trade committee, stressed the benefits which Czechoslovakia derived from her economic relations with the Soviet Union. The agreement, he said, guaranteed supplies of raw materials and orders to Czechoslovakia for a period of five years.

There were no political or economic strings attached, he said, to the aid the Soviet Union was rendering to various countries.

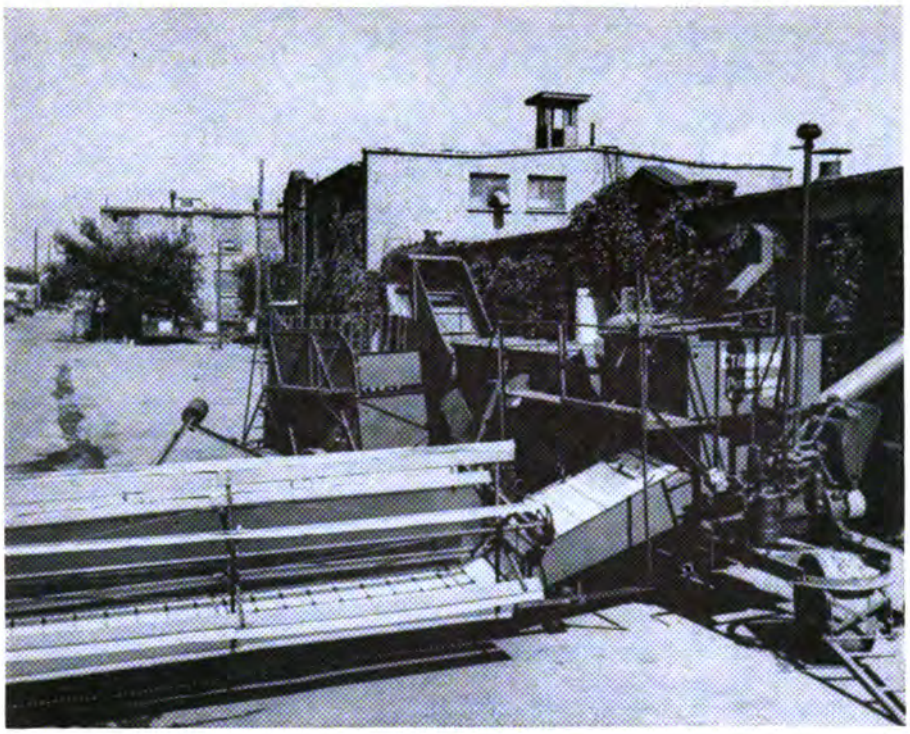
The agreement on mutual deliveries for the period of 1948-1952 between the USSR and the Polish Republic, signed on January 26, 1948, establishes the principal types of goods to be exchanged during the five-year period, the quotas for each year to be fixed three months before its beginning. The total value of deliveries from either side is set at 500 million dollars. The Soviet Union will supply Poland with iron, chromium and manganese ores, oil products, cotton, aluminum, asbestos, motor vehicles, tractors, etc. Poland will send the USSR coal, coke, textile goods, sugar, zinc, steel manufactures, rolling stock, cement, etc.

Commenting on the agreements with the Soviet Union, the Polish Prime Minister, Cyrankiewicz, on January 29, 1948, declared that "these agreements do not in the least infringe on Poland's independence and may serve as a model for agreements between countries."

A number of agreements concluded in the autumn of 1946 re-established the commercial relations between the Soviet Union and Sweden, which had been interrupted by the war. On October 7, 1946, a protocol was signed extending for five years the agreement on trade and payments which the Soviet Union and Sweden had concluded on September 7, 1940, and fixing the quotas of mutual deliveries for 1947. (A protocol fixing the quotas of mutual deliveries for 1948 was signed on December 31, 1947.)

Further, a credit agreement was

(Continued on page 581)



"SHIP OF THE STEPPES." So the Soviet farmers call the Stalinets-6 combine, made at Rostselmash.

Rebuilt Rostselmash Pours Out Combines

By E. Orlov

As the country which first turned to deliberate mechanization of agriculture, the Soviet Union is proud of its rank as first in the world in the production of agricultural machinery. It is also proud of its postwar reconstruction program in which the big Stalin Rostselmash agricultural machine-building plant plays a great part.

Constructed during the First Five-Year Plan, the Rostselmash plant is well-known throughout the world. Hundreds of thousands of combines, plows, sowers, binders, mowers and rakes bearing the Rostselmash trademark work the fields of the Soviet Union.

The Nazis reduced Rostselmash to rubble, and it appeared that many years would pass before it could again produce machinery. But because of the heroic efforts of the Soviet people, the plant was back in operation in 1947 (the first section began operation in October), and socialist agriculture began to receive new, highly efficient combines—the *Stalinets-6* model—with the Rostselmash trade mark. The Rostselmash workers have pledged to bring the plant to prewar capacity by November 7—the 31st Anniversary of the Great October Revolution. When the second section goes into operation next year, the plant will have reached the production level scheduled for 1950 under the postwar Five-Year Plan.

Last July 30 was a great day for the plant. It was then that the five-thousandth combine rolled off the factory assembly line. These five thousand combines harvested 2,500,000 hectares* and threshed 300 million poods** of grain this year.

On the eve of the Second World War the USSR produced 40 percent of the world's tractor output. The equipping of Soviet agriculture with a large variety of machines has brought about the mechanization of farm work, and Soviet farming has become highly productive and the most mechanized in the world.

In the year before the war, Soviet agriculture used more than 500 thousand tractors, 165 thousand combines, more than 200 thousand trucks and hundreds of thousands of threshers, tractor plows, sowers, cultivators, etc.

In 1940, 71 percent of the fall plowing, 82 percent of the summer plowing, 59 percent of the grain sowing and 46 percent of the grain harvesting was done by machinery in the Soviet Union.

Soviet agriculture suffered very heavily from the Nazi invasion. The Germans burned down or otherwise destroyed 70 thousand villages, 98 thousand collective farms, nearly two thousand state farms and about three thousand machine-and-tractor stations. They seized, shipped out or destroyed 137 thousand tractors, 49 thousand combines, about four million plows, harrows and other agricultural implements, 265 thousand sowing and planting machines, and 885 thousand harvesters and sorting machines. They greatly damaged the agricultural machine-building industry. The Rostselmash plant was one of many agricultural machine-building plants the Nazis razed.

Before the war was over, the Soviet Government set out to revive agriculture and the production of farm machinery in the briefest possible time. The postwar Five-Year Plan is designed to raise both agricultural and farm-machinery production above the prewar level.

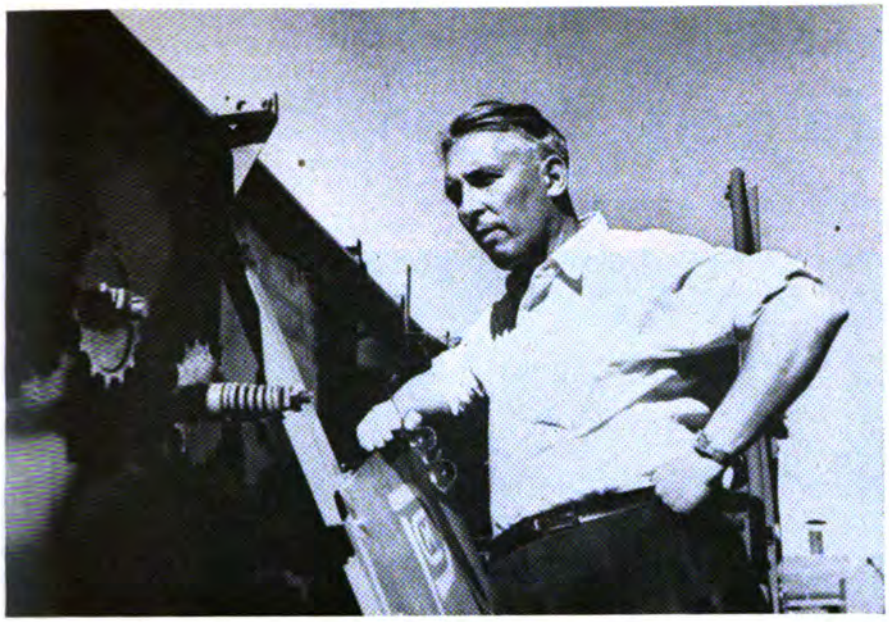
The Soviet people are fulfilling the postwar Five-Year Plan. In the second year of the Five-Year Plan, the production of agricultural machinery already exceeded prewar production. In 1947, Soviet agriculture scored a magnificent victory by equaling the prewar grain harvest.

Soviet farmers are not only being supplied with a tremendous number of machines—these machines are also of the most modern design. And by the end of the Five-Year Plan nearly one hundred machine models will be redesigned and more than one hundred new types will be in production.

The Rostselmash workers are playing an important role in this program. And the fame of this huge Soviet agricultural machine-building plant has been fully re-established.

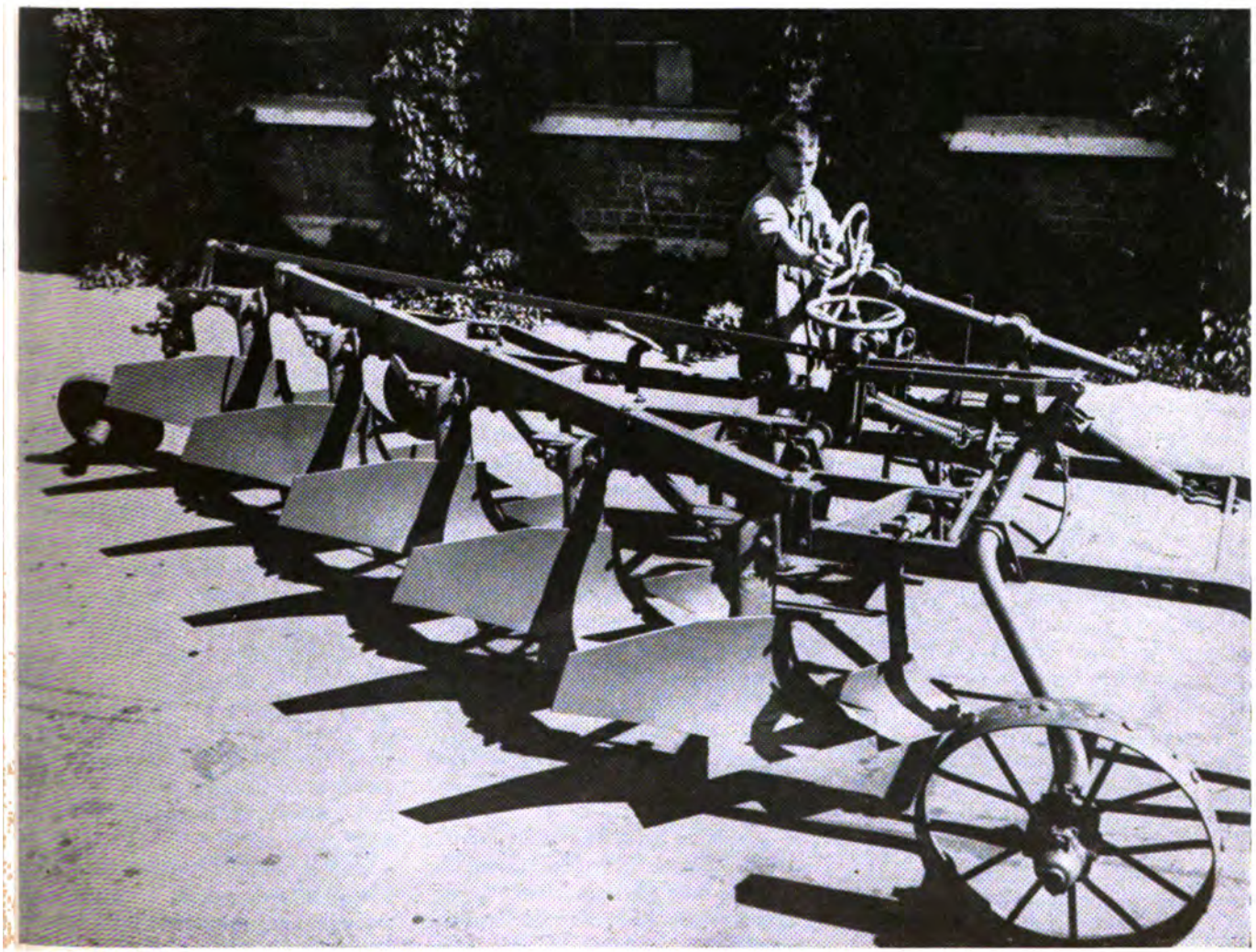
* One hectare=2.471 acres.

** One pood=36.113 pounds.



DESIGNER. Alexander Krasnichenko, chief designer of the plant. With three others, he holds the Stalin Prize for his combine design.

WORKER. Alexander Rudikov, a production record-breaker.



MULTIPLE PLOW. Five-furrow plows like this are also an important Rostselmash product.

"Stand Back, Drought!" Is Farmers' Slogan

By A. Agronovsky

IRRIGATION development, hitherto unheard of in the black-earth belt of the Central Russian Plateau, is now in full swing in the Kursk, Orel, Voronezh and Tambov Regions.

I have just returned from those parts and saw how enthusiastically the people worked.

The Government has extended the peasants tremendous aid. An ordinary, average-sized collective farm in the village of Paniki, Medvin District, has received 200 thousand rubles in cash, an 150-horsepower engine and 1,500 meters* of piping.

That is just one collective farm and the same is true of thousands of others. The Government has alloted the collective farms of the Central Russian Plateau 45 million rubles for planning and designing work alone. It has sent them two thousand engines, thousands of kilometers** of piping and hundreds of specialists—irrigation engineers, surveyors, hydrologists, hydrotechnologists, soil scientists, construction engineers, economists, to guide and conduct the work.

And the collective farmers have taken to this work with exceptional enthusiasm and energy.

Building gangs and assembly teams have been formed in the collective farms to erect hydroelectric plants and pumping stations. Courses and schools to train irrigation specialists have been opened in all the four regions, and young people, the first to master this fascinating new work, are flocking to these schools and courses. Four research stations have been opened to tackle theoretical problems that may arise in the process of work.

Everything is being utilized for irrigation: the broad river Saym and the tiny riverlet Tsna; large lakes and village ponds; ravines that accumulate melted snow; subterranean springs pumped up from a 100-meter depth, by powerful wind engines. Already this year an area of 20 thousand hectares* will be watered by "artificial rain" in the Kursk Region alone. By the end of the Five-Year Plan, this area will spread to 114 thousand hectares, while in all the four black-earth regions of central Russia, 600 thousand hectares will be irrigated.

IRRIGATION DITCH. Small canals like this water once-arid fields in many parts of the Soviet Union.

I consulted the archives for data on the past history of these regions to learn how many droughts these Kursk and Orel villages have lived through and how they fared.

In the 88 years immediately preceding 1917, the Kursk peasants suffered 34 droughts. Many of them occurred year after year, bringing ruin to the peasants.

There have been four crop failures since the October Revolution, and the worst one took place in 1946.

Now, I have just returned from the Kosar Collective Farm in the village of Volokonovka. In 1946, everything was scorched here by the drought. They could not even gather seed. Nevertheless, Volokonovka raised a bumper crop in 1947 for which 26 collective farmers were decorated with Orders and a young girl, Natalia Slavgorodskaya, who raised more than three metric tons of grain per hectare* was awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor. The Kosar Collective Farm eliminated the effects of the drought in a single year.

Not only this collective farm, but the entire Kursk Region raised a good crop in 1947, having received tremendous government aid in the way of seeds, foodstuffs, financial credits, and machinery.

But the Soviet people always look ahead. In the past 30 years they went through four droughts; now they are determined that there shall be no more droughts in the Soviet land. Artificial

* One meter = 1.093 yards.
** One kilometer = .621 miles.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

irrigation guarantees a good harvest and assures the peasant that his labor will not be in vain. More than that, on irrigated land two crops may be harvested in one year. This has been proved in actual practice by many experimental stations.

By decisions of the Soviet Government and the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the offensive against the drought began on the fields of the Central Russian Plateau. Next follow the Volga regions, Siberia, and the Ukraine.

In a letter to Stalin, the collective farmers of the Altai Region pledged to irrigate 20 thousand hectares under grain this year. The peasants found subterranean water in the arid and sandy Kulundin steppe and now there is a practical possibility here of effecting complete and oasis-like irrigation of millions of hectares of land. In the village of Baibuzy in the Kiev district, the peasants worked out a plan of irrigating all their cultivated land—1,516 hectares. And in the village of Zmogailovka, 50 kilometers* from Baibuzy, the peasants began pumping water from the Dnieper last year and harvested a bumper crop.

Philip Fetisov, Hero of Socialist Labor, and chairman of the Bolshevik Banner Collective Farm in the Stalingrad Region is also dreaming about irrigation. This fact is very significant because the Bolshevik Banner collective farmers have made droughts impossible even without irrigation. They have applied the latest achievements of agronomy, such as grass crop rotation and afforestation, for quite some time. Here in the steppe they have raised a forest which can be seen 10 kilometers away. This forest intersects the fields of the collective farm, protecting them from dry winds in the summer and retaining the snow in winter. But in this collective farm, too, the peasants always look ahead. Since there was no river nearby, they decided to cement the ravines and gullies in order to collect the rain water and melted snow.

The newspaper *Kurskaya Pravda* recently came out with the slogan: "Stand back, drought!" And today this slogan has been caught up by thousands and thousands of Soviet peasants.

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* One kilometer=.621 of one mile.

City of Lenin Rebuilds Botanical Gardens

By Elena Kalinina

ALTHOUGH the city of Lenin heroically withstood the siege of the German invaders, its losses from bomb and shell were not confined to human, military and industrial targets.

The Leningrad Botanical Gardens, founded in February, 1714 and known throughout the world of science as the best in the Soviet Union, also suffered severely.

Recently I was taken through the gardens by Professor B. K. Shishkin, corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and director of the Botanical Institute. Shishkin is chief editor of *The Flora of the USSR*, a fundamental work which gives detailed descriptions of almost 15 thousand plants.

As we walked through the gardens, my host showed me that enemy bombs did not spare this peaceful, blooming corner of Leningrad. They destroyed many hothouses, ruining up to 80 per cent of the tropical plants collected in the course of centuries. Shells destroyed rare herbs, and some three hundred trees.

"Until the Second World War," Shishkin said, "our hothouses were considered the world's best for their wealth of collection. Thousand-year-old ferns, world-famed eucalyptus trees, casuarinas, evergreens representing the flora of Japan, China and North America were found here. Twenty-eight hothouses were filled with tropical and subtropical plants and a valuable collection of sago trees."

The director related how restoration of the gardens, the 235th anniversary of which will soon be celebrated, was begun while the city was still blockaded. At present 14 hothouses are open, and thousands upon thousands of young trees have been planted.

In one hothouse we passed a basin with floating water lilies, Indian lotuses, little wooden rafts on which rice, sugar cane and water caltrops grow. On the wide window sills stand pots with papyrus and climbing plants. There are mimosas so delicate that one's breath will make them fade.

Under the open sky nearby, palms, agaves, cacti and other desert xerophytes have been planted. Eucalyptus trees and bamboo are growing and the Japanese mushmulla is budding.

Professor Shishkin, with other scientists of the institute, visited Brazil last year to bring back seedlings. They visited Rio de Janeiro and Santos. They also went to Holland.

Shishkin said the Leningrad Botanical Gardens exchanges seeds with, and sends catalogues of some 2,500 plants to 145 botanical institutions and gardens in various countries, as well as to the gardens of the USSR, including Sukhumi, Batumi, Sochi, Moscow and Yalta.

The "gem of the gardens" is a hothouse named after the late Academician V. L. Komarov, who worked here 45 years and continued his research even after becoming President of the Academy of Sciences and Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. This hothouse holds unusual, rare plants which are being tested before being transplanted to the gardens.

The reconstruction of this botanical paradise is continuing. This year research expeditions have been sent out to fill in war-made gaps. A group of scientists is in the Caucasus looking for cuttings, tubers and bulbs of mountain plants. An expedition has also been sent to South Sakhalin to collect samples of Sakhalin trees. All costs incurred in connection with these expeditions are paid by the State.

In one hothouse of tropical flora, I learned, there are over 75 varieties of palms, all of them still quite young with leaves beginning to show on only a few of them in fan-like shape.

"The garden's accumulated its riches for centuries," Shishkin told me. "It was developed particularly after the October Socialist Revolution. Under Soviet rule, the gardens have been reorganized into a scientific institution and have acquired world-wide fame."

Millions Enroll in Soviet Schools As New Fall Term Begins

From articles by Alexander Voznessensky* and V. Svetlov**

*Minister of Education of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.
**Vice Minister of Higher Education of the USSR.

THREE weeks ago, throughout the Soviet Union, tens of millions of Soviet children and young people returned to school.

Young Soviet adults returned to their laboratories and classrooms, anxious to resume the upward road toward the professions. And Soviet children returned to their desks, suntanned from a summer in the open countryside, eager for new adventures in learning.

PRIMARY and secondary schools enrolled more than 33,200,000 Soviet children on September 1.*

The Soviet Government had allocated large sums for the repair of school buildings and for the acquisition of new school equipment during the summer. In the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic the sum of 450 million rubles was assigned for this purpose, apart from the 150 million rubles allocated for the construction of new school buildings. Although in 1947 the number of functioning schools exceeded the total originally planned for 1950 under the Five-Year Plan, an additional 380 new schools in towns, and 680 in rural localities of the Soviet Union, have opened this fall.

The organization of school boardinghouses is essential in establishing seven-grade and secondary school education in the rural districts. Therefore hundreds of new boardinghouses operated by the village schools opened this year to accommodate students from the farms.

Many additional school lunchrooms have been organized where the children are given hot low-cost meals. Many collective farms have allotted special plots of land for the supply of school lunchrooms with vegetable produce.

In the USSR, the education of children is by law general and obligatory. The responsibility for the execution of the law rests with the local Soviets of Working People's Deputies. In the Soviet Union no situation can possibly arise where children of school age fail to attend school. If a child fails to attend school for some reason, immediate measures are taken to remove the obstacle.

All schools have been supplied with textbooks. By September 1, the publishing house of the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR had issued 80 million copies of various textbooks in the Russian language. Publishing houses in constituent and autonomous republics and autonomous regions have printed millions of textbooks in the languages of the various nationalities of the Soviet Union.

The school libraries have added to their stocks of classical writings and books by modern Soviet writers. A special children's publishing house of the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR publishes books for young people. During the course of the first six months of 1948 this publishing house issued nine million children's books. Publications also include a special "school library" consisting of the best works of Russian and world literature and the work of modern Soviet writers. More than 50 titles have already been issued.

Soviet schools now employ more than 1,100,000 teachers. This army of Soviet teachers is annually supplemented by graduates of the pedagogical institutes. Nearly 45 thousand young teachers were recently commissioned to schools in the RSFSR alone, and are working at schools in various parts of the Republic.

The series of special decisions adopted by the Government on schools and teachers (improvement of the material and economic base of the schools, higher salaries for teachers, the establishment of new privileges and advantages for them, etc.) will play an extremely important role in the development of Soviet education. The facilities provided for raising the qualifications of teachers answer the same purpose.

The education and rearing of children in the Soviet school is not confined to class study. Large-scale extracurricular work is also carried on. Each school has dozens of hobby groups and circles, where students broaden their knowl-

*Figures compiled as of September 15, 1948.

MOSCOW. Schoolgirls Olya Pronina and Nina Brandukova in the library of their school.

edge, participate in the arts, or in sports. In addition to this, there are thousands of various extracurricular institutions (Pioneer palaces, children's laboratories, young naturalists' tourist stations, houses for artistic activity) to which the children flock when the school day is at an end.

MORE than one million Soviet university students and students of the higher technical schools also returned to their classrooms and laboratories on September 1. Of these students, 180 thousand were new students (46 thousand more than the total enrollment expected by 1950, according to the provisions of the Five-Year Plan).

Soviet universities and institutes made thorough preparations for the current educational year. For instance, many institutes organized "Open Door Days," in order to give candidates opportunity to acquaint themselves in detail with the nature of the studies which lay before them, their laboratories, etc. Free consultation of teachers on the subjects of the entrance examinations were organized almost everywhere. This is typical of the Soviet concern for the welfare of the youth, who represent the country's greatest riches. Every effort is made—through teacher-student conferences, etc.—to prepare the young people for the work that lies before them.

Special attention is being paid to veterans of the Second World War. This year, as in previous years, former servicemen were given a number of privileges. Those who had been graduated from secondary schools with honors (irrespective of the year of graduation) were admitted to institutes, without having to take entrance examinations. Other demobilized servicemen who successfully passed the entrance examinations were given priority of admission to institutes and colleges: they did not have to take the competitive examinations required of other candidates. In many institutes, review lectures by leading teachers were organized for veterans free of charge, to enable them to refresh their knowledge.

A particularly large number of applications for admission was received this year by the Moscow institutes—for Moscow is not only the administrative, but the most important cultural center of the Soviet Union. In Moscow there are 90 higher educational establishments, attended by 25 per cent of the total number of students of such schools in the USSR.

IN THE PAMIRS. School began, too, in the most remote regions. Schoolgirls of the Pamir Mountains, called "The Roof of the World."

Nearly 25 thousand students were admitted this year to higher educational establishments in the Soviet capital. More than three thousand of them, on finishing secondary school had been presented with gold or silver medals. According to the rules obtaining in the USSR, medalists are admitted to institutes without entrance examinations, except to institutes of architecture and building; arts; music, and physical culture.

Most popular among the Soviet youth is the Moscow University, the oldest in the country. This year it admitted 1,750 new students.

In Leningrad, another leading cultural center, 49 schools of higher learning are functioning this year.

Great preparations for admitting new students were made by the Leningrad institutes. Special brochures and leaflets were issued long before the beginning of the examinations. Each of these publications described in detail the course of training of the given institute, and the branch of the national economy and the enterprises offering employment to graduates in various fields.

A special reference book was issued which dealt with all the higher educational establishments of Leningrad. Special commissions were sent to the most important cities in the Soviet Union—Sverdlovsk, Rostov-on-Don, Novosibirsk, Tallin, Riga—to conduct entrance examinations for Leningrad higher schools.

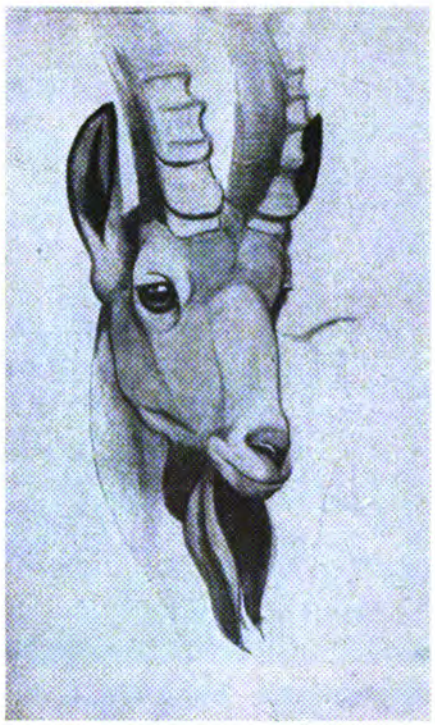
During the course of the new educational year, 24 new higher educational establishments are to be opened, among them the Tajik University, the Omsk River Transport School, the Kaliningrad and Kaluga Pedagogical Institutes, 12 pedagogical institutes of foreign languages, the Armavir, Kaunas and Jalai-Abad teachers' institutes, and the Riga Theatrical Institute. Evening classes and correspondence departments opened this year in 16 higher educational establishments of the USSR. A new Institute of Trading, with a course of three years training, opened in Moscow on September 1.

With the object of further improving educational and teaching work, more than 40 new departments of learning, and scores of laboratories, equipped entirely with the most modern apparatus, have been organized in Soviet higher schools.

The 1948-1949 educational year brilliantly signalizes the completion of the period of restoration of the school system from the ravages of Nazi barbarism, and the beginning of the transition to the further development of all Soviet schools.

Soviet News in Pictures

MARKER. Highway markers of this elaborate type stand on main Soviet roads.



WATERCOLOR. "Mountain Goat," by Vassili Vatagin. It was recently exhibited in Moscow.

MODEL PLANE MEET. At the recent All-Soviet Mold

KINDERGARTEN. Children of Leningrad play as their teacher watches. The kindergarten recently returned from its summer home in the suburbs.

FRIENDS. At the model plane meet, P... model designer, ch...

g Models Contest, Evgeni Pronoz of this plane.

thail Anoschenko, an eminent flying ng model-builders.

HOUSING PLANS. At the recent Architectural Exhibition, these models of workers' standard houses were shown.

RESTORED. East side of the Cathedral of St. Sophia, in the museum-city of Novgorod. The gold-plated cupolas were removed by the Nazis.

Soviet Consumers Reap Benefits As National Income Grows

By S. Gurovich, M.Sc.

THE national income is growing year by year in the Soviet Union. By the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan (scheduled for completion in 1950) it will exceed the prewar level by 38 per cent. The scale of the income of the Soviet people may be judged by the fact that this increase in absolute figures will amount to 48,700,000,000 rubles. This means that the increase only of the national income during the five-year period will exceed the entire national income of tsarist Russia (in comparable prices) by more than two and one-fourth times.

In the USSR, the national income belongs to those who produce it—the working people. It comes entirely into the hands of the people, personified in the Soviet State, and is used in the interests of the working people. It therefore follows that the sole object of the distribution of the national income in the USSR is systematically to raise the standard of living and culture of the population and steadily to expand socialist production in town and countryside. Growth of production and consumption, in turn, ensures a further increase in the national income and enables the State to satisfy to an ever greater degree the growing requirements of the people. And this is one of the chief tasks of the Soviet State.

At the end of the postwar Five-Year Plan, the amount of the national income in the USSR (in 1926-1927 prices) will attain 177,000,000,000 rubles against 21,000,000,000 rubles (in comparative prices) in 1913.

The proportion of the national income spent on consumption has been continuously growing in the USSR from the very first postwar year. During the postwar Five-Year Plan period, as a result of the reduction in military expenditure, the share of consumption in the country's national income will increase to approximately 73 per cent,

SHOPPERS. Muscovites before a gift shop on the eve of May Day, when Soviet citizens give each other gifts.

the share of the accumulation fund will constitute 21 per cent, and of state reserves about six per cent. One of the most important tasks of the Five-Year Plan is steadily to improve the material and cultural conditions of the Soviet people.

This task is solved in several ways. Wages are rising and prices of consumer goods steadily falling. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period, the average annual earnings of factory and office workers will exceed the prewar level by 48 per cent.* The achievements of the Soviet Union in the postwar restoration and development of the national economy made it possible, at the end of the second year of the Five-Year Plan (in December, 1947), to abolish the rationing system and to reduce sharply the prices of all consumer goods sold in state and co-operative stores, which are the principal suppliers to the population in the USSR. This was followed by corresponding reduction of prices in urban markets.

Wages form only part of the consumption fund constituting almost two-thirds of the country's entire national income. In addition to their individual wages, all members of Soviet society receive other benefits from the consumption fund. Every Soviet citizen, irrespective of his position in society—whether he be a rank-and-file worker or a factory director, a school watchman or an Academician, a simple peasant or an eminent statesman—is guaranteed the full opportunity, at state expense, to raise the level of his education and professional qualification, to educate his children in elementary, secondary and higher schools, to receive free medical aid, including treatment by eminent physicians and medical professors, and to enjoy many other services for which factory and office workers in capitalist countries have to spend a very considerable part of their income.

More than 15 per cent of the State Budget of the USSR is spent on education. During the current year nearly 60,000,000,000 rubles will be spent on education and more than 20,500,000,000 on public health.

Besides the wages paid by the Soviet State to factory and office workers, the State pays into a special fund—the social insurance fund—a definite amount equal to a certain percentage of the

* Money, or nominal wages. The increase in real wages (computed on purchasing power) is higher.

wages. In the event of sickness, working people receive during the period of illness their average wages out of this insurance fund. Factory and office workers are guaranteed pensions in invalidism and old age. This year the Soviet State is spending 38,300,000,000 rubles on social insurance and pensions.

Expenditures for improving the health of Soviet workers, manual and mental, are also effected out of the state social insurance fund. If, for instance, a worker or a clerk requires for his recuperation a cure in a health resort (which before the Revolution was accessible only to the propertied classes) he receives at the expense of the State, or by paying a small part of the cost, accommodation in a splendid sanatorium. While the worker is undergoing a cure in the health resort, he is paid his average earnings. The numerous state health resorts are utilized by the working people not only for cures, but also as places in which to spend their annual vacations, during which they receive their full pay and which are guaranteed by law. This, too, comes out of the part of the national income allocated to the consumption fund.

Nearly 10,000,000,000 rubles were spent from the consumption fund last year on protection of mothers and children, as well as for aid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers. State expenditures for these purposes will again increase in the current year.

The following account is an illustration of the foregoing. A foreigner, who came on a visit to the USSR, in the course of a conversation with a rank-and-file Russian worker learned from him that he recently had had an increase in his family. The foreigner asked the Russian worker what amount he had to spend in connection with that joyous event. From the conversation he learned that the worker's wife, during the whole period of her pregnancy, was under constant medical observation. The expectant mother received maternity leave from her factory before confinement for 35 days on full pay at state expense. When her time came, she was heartily welcomed in the maternity home where she was to be confined. A gynecological specialist superintended the birth of the child. Both mother and child received excellent care. When the time arrived for her discharge from the maternity home qualified nurses and a physician gave the mother the necessary advice on how to nurse and look after her baby.

The foreigner was surprised to learn that all this is entirely free of charge in the USSR. He was also surprised at the fact that rent constitutes only five to six per cent of a worker's budget, and the Soviet people look upon all this as a matter of course. Socialism has become part and parcel of the everyday life of Soviet people.

Continuing his chat with the Russian worker, the foreigner gleaned a few more interesting details. On the day of the return of the worker's wife from the maternity home, a representative of the trade union organization in the factory where she works visited the parents of the newborn baby. He congratulated them on behalf of the workers in the factory and presented them with a gift for the baby. That has become a tradition in the Soviet Union.

On the same day, without having been summoned, a physician—a children's specialist—accompanied by a nurse, also visited the mother. They had been sent by the children's medical consultation center which had been advised by the maternity home of the birth of the new Soviet citizen. These visits are regularly paid during the first months of the baby's life, and subsequently the mother will regularly bring her baby to the consultation center for examination. This center watches the development of babies and if necessary provides special diets and medical treatment.

A CONSUMER TOO. Free medical aid is an important part of the Soviet standard of living.

After the birth of her child, the working mother is allowed, by the factory or other enterprise, leave for a month and one-half on full pay at the expense of the State. This leave both before and after confinement is allowed over and above the regular annual vacation. If the mother is unmarried or if there are many children in her family, the State renders her monetary assistance.

Special funds are set aside by the Soviet State for the care of disabled veterans of the Second World War. Disabled veterans are given special care by the Soviet State, care which bears no resemblance to charity. In the Soviet Union, all disabled veterans are given pensions by the State, pensions guaranteed by the Soviet Constitution. Immense importance is attached in the USSR to medical aid for disabled veterans; a huge network of various types of medical institutions, special sanatoriums and rest homes in the most favorable climatic zones, etc., has been placed at their disposal.

The foregoing does not by any means exhaust the list of benefits which working people in the USSR enjoy from the collective part of the consumption fund. It will be easily realized that this greatly increases the real wages of workers. This is one of the greatest achievements of socialism, which entirely predominates in the USSR. It is hardly necessary to belabor the point that under these conditions the amounts of the wages, taken alone, of a Soviet worker and those of a worker in capitalist countries are entirely incomparable. And if such "comparisons" are made they are calculated to delude people who are not acquainted with Soviet life.

Out of the consumption fund, the Soviet State is spending this year 116,300,000,000 rubles — almost a third of all the expenditure under the State Budget of the USSR—on social and cultural measures. Expenditures for these purposes are growing in the USSR year by year.

Housing and Production Gains Planned in Textiles, Coal

FURTHER improvements in housing and in methods to increase production in order speedily to fulfill and overfulfill quotas in the postwar Five-Year Plan, and thus to increase the national prosperity and raise living standards, were goals set at the 18th plenum of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions held recently in Moscow. The principal questions discussed were the progress being made in carrying out the collective agreements in the collieries of both the eastern and western districts, and the improvement of textile workers' living conditions throughout the USSR.

A special feature of the 18th AUCCTU plenum was that it raised still higher the importance of the collective agreements negotiated between the trade union organizations and the administrations of given enterprises. The role of the agreement as a powerful medium for mobilizing workers to meet and exceed the production goal and to improve their conditions was stressed. Stress is laid in these agreements on the mechanization of production processes, development of new and higher forms of socialist competition, training and organization of qualified personnel, the safeguarding of labor and further improvement of safety devices. Trade union agreements under discussion enumerated measures to raise the living standard of the people and to improve their conditions and cultural services.

The problems of the coal industry were discussed by Minister Zasadko of the Coal Industry of the Western Areas of the USSR; Minister Onika of the Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas; Chairman Zaitsev of the central committee of the coal miners' trade union in the western districts; and Chairman Smirnov of the central committee of the coal miners' trade union of the eastern districts.

Resolutions adopted after their reports before the AUCCTU plenum pointed out that for the first half of 1948, the plan for coal production in the western districts had been carried out by 102.4 percent and that compared with the same period a year ago, production had increased 22.2 percent. Pits in the Donets Basin, which suffered so heavily from damage during the German-fascist occupation, finished the six-month plan ahead of schedule and increased production 26 percent over that for the same period in 1947.

Miners in the Moscow District coal field ended their six-month period with a production record of 105.3 per cent and increased coal output 2.3 times as compared with prewar records.

Coal miners of the eastern districts of the USSR were no less successful. In these mines the plan for the first six months of 1948 was completed 101.6 percent for extraction and 101.4 for preparatory operations.

Soviet coal miners, employing new technical methods and improving technological processes, are increasing productivity month by month as a result of the widespread socialist competition to complete the Five-Year Plan in four years. In the Donets and Moscow District fields, for instance, many of the pits are turning out as much as was scheduled for 1950, the last year of the postwar plan. Productivity of the miners in the first half of 1948 is 11 per cent over the same period in 1947.

Evidence of the practical realization of the housing projects for both eastern and western colliery districts was contained in the resolution approved by the AUCCTU plenum. The housing plan for 1948 has been completed ahead of time in eastern districts, while in the western area, the amount of newly built housing is 300 thousand square meters* above the total planned for the first six months of 1948.

Mobilization of the miners for the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the state plan for coal production is considered as one of the most important tasks of the administrative and trade union organizations, according to the plenum resolution.

At the same time, the resolution pointed out, it is highly necessary to ensure the steady realization of the plans for buildings for cultural and other purposes, and for the further all-around improvement of the general and cultural services for workers, engineers, technicians and white-collar workers.

The plenum resolution proposed to the trade-union and economic organizations that they seek to extend the miners' socialist competition for fulfillment of the pledges undertaken in their letters to Joseph Stalin, promising the completion of the Five-Year Plan for coal production before 1950. The resolution places responsibility for organizing regular production meetings on the central, regional, district and mines' committees of the trade unions. At these meetings the work of the foremost miners will be discussed as will questions of the organization of labor and measures to obtain the fulfillment and overfulfillment of work quotas by each worker. The plenum resolution stressed the necessity of daily and active control over the practical application of all resolutions taken at production meetings, and for regular reports at meetings of pit-committees and of workers, by those in charge of the pits, on measures for safeguarding of labor and improvement of safety devices.

Trade-union organizations were urged in the resolution to seek further improvement in services for miners in stores and dining rooms, to add to the number of refreshment stands in the offices where orders for work are issued, and also in the dormitories for students of the factory schools and workers who have lately come from the country and who as yet have no apartments or houses. They were asked to see to the improvement of food in the factory dining rooms and its caloric

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

value and to try to cheapen its cost to the consumer. Much attention was devoted to the extension of the school system, of clubs, outpatients' departments, hospitals, polyclinics, nurseries and kindergartens, mother-and-child consultation centers, Young Pioneer centers, music schools, rest homes, motion picture houses, stadiums, etc.

These are only some of the practical measures for improvements of cultural services for miners included in the resolution, which also asked improvement of trading facilities in the mining districts, in supplies of food and manufactured goods of wider assortment, the extension of individual and collective gardening and other similar questions.

The 18th plenum expressed confidence that in response to the care and consideration shown them by the Government, workers in the coal industry would introduce socialist competition on a still wider scale and by their highly productive labor, achieve new successes in the drive for the early accomplishment of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

As to the textile workers, the plenum heard and discussed reports of Minister Sedin of the Textile Industry and Chairman Muravieva of the central committee of the textile workers' union. It was pointed out in the resolution that marked improvements had been realized in the material conditions of the textile workers of the USSR. Every year the Soviet Government allots substantial sums for housing projects. The postwar plan for the textile industry provides for the investment of 1,800,000,000 rubles on housing by the end of 1950.

Soviet textile workers, like their coworkers in the coal pits, are steadily increasing their productivity and the output of goods.

Their 1947 production program was completed by 103 percent, and the plan for the first half of 1948 was completed by 105.2 percent. The plenum set as a most important task for the administrative and trade union organizations in the textile industry the further improvement of the living conditions of men and women workers, engineers, technicians and office employees as one of the chief methods of attaining greater labor productivity and completion of the Five-Year Plan by the mills ahead of schedule.

The Minister of the Textile Industry told the plenum that his Ministry guarantees completion of the 1948 plan for housing and buildings for cultural purposes. He particularly stressed the necessity for using to fullest advantage the funds alloted by the State for individual housing projects for textile workers. Trade union organizations, it was pointed out, should make socialist competition more widespread among workers in order to finish the yearly plan ahead of time and also to organize the demonstration of the achievements of the foremost workers.

The plenum resolution indicated practical measures for the finishing of all houses and dormitories for textile workers before winter sets in. The central committee of the textile workers' trade union also was urged to arrange a general inspection of dormitories, houses and buildings for communal purposes, to ascertain the extent of their readiness for winter, and to see that large numbers of active workers take part in this. Measures for the further improvement of the work of dining rooms, stores, medical institutions, and clubs, and for the extension of bookselling are to be carried out under the resolution.

In summary, it was felt that the textile workers, feeling the constant consideration and care of the Soviet State, would seek to turn out an increasing quantity of high-quality, attractive goods to meet the growing requirements of the Soviet people. The textile workers guaranteed that they will supply the country with millions of meters of fabric in excess of the 1948 plan.

A Soviet Miner's Life

By Yevgraf Lozhkin

Member of the Plenum, All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions

FORTY years ago I first went into a coal pit in our Urals district. At that time mine work was difficult and dangerous. The handpick and sled were the only tools the miner had.

Today, as a timberman in this mine, operating under our socialist system, I find the old days just a bad dream.

In the old times we miners lived in filthy, damp barracks, each housing forty miners.

Today our miners work under floodlights and with powerful ventilators pumping in fresh air. The old handpick is a museum piece, replaced by powerful cutting machines and pneumatic picks. All processes of hewing and removing the coal to the surface have been mechanized.

Not only this, but the productivity of the miners has increased at least 10 times. Those old barracks have been torn down, replaced by well-equipped apartment houses or cozy, one-family cottages.

We have our own stores, hospital, polyclinic, bathhouse, and nurseries. We have a club with a hall seating five hundred persons where the best Soviet and foreign films are shown, and where visiting artists present plays or concerts.

My family and I live in a comfortable cottage of four rooms which has a spacious porch. We have a big plot of land and I spend my spare time in the garden in which we raise fine crops of potatoes, cabbage, carrots and other vegetables.

This cottage belongs to me; it was a gift from the mine management in recognition of my years of service.

Miners the world over are a hospitable lot, as everyone knows. We frequently go visiting. My neighbor, Ivan Dmitriev, is a cutting-machine operator and earns up to four thousand rubles per month and often gets a bonus. After the war Ivan bought his own house, aided by a loan from the miners' mutual-aid fund. He, too, has a big truck garden, some chickens and he recently bought a cow.

There are other cases I could cite, but it's apparent that the living standards of our miners have improved greatly—and even more through the recent monetary reform, the abolition of rationing and the new price cuts.

Siberian City of Stalinsk Thrives Under the Sun of Socialism

By A. Philippov

GROWING from a remote, sparsely-settled village into a large industrial center within twenty short years, the city of Stalinsk (formerly Kuznetsk) holds a story that throws penetrating light into the meaning of Soviet life to the people and the country.

The rapidly-growing city of Stalinsk is in far-off Siberia, in a land once pictured as all but uninhabitable because of its frozen earth, its ice, its forbidding cold.

Twenty years ago the tiny settlement of Kuznetsk was apparently isolated. Adjacent to the remote taiga settlement of Kuzedeevo, it lay in the southern part of the Kuznetzk Basin. And further on, to the very border of China, stretched a vast territory covered with almost impassable mountains, a territory that had been neither explored nor investigated. Here, in narrow valleys surrounded by majestic mountain ranges, lived a few Ulus Shorians who occupied themselves mainly with hunting and gathering cedar nuts.

Severe yet fascinating, this is a region where winter temperatures drop to 40 and 50 degrees below zero, a region where the snow lies six feet deep. Twenty years ago it had not yet been studied by geologists, topographers or cartographers. Yet authors of numerous works on Siberia deplored the fact that this region was not endowed with iron ore. The whole region—from the Urals to the Pacific—was believed to have only a few small deposits whose quality was supposedly poor. Several "experts" went so far as to claim that because of Siberia's specific geological conditions, it could not possibly contain iron ore!

In 1930 the news spread through the taiga that a huge iron-and-steel plant was going up in Kuznetsk. It was to operate on local coking coal and on ore that had to be transported from the Urals.

Then, when the giant plant had begun to work at full capacity, wonderful news came from the depths of the taiga. For the old Shorian hunter,

STEEL WORKER. Stalinsk has many skilled workers.

Vassili Skvortsov, had found an odd-looking stone on one of his hunting trips, and, in his old boat, he had rowed for a long time on the mountain river Kondoma, until he had reached a geologist. The latter had immediately declared the stone to be iron!

COAL MINE. One of the great secrets of the region's prosperity is its coal, only recently discovered.

Shortly after, through Skvortsov's alertness, similarly rich layers of ore were found in Shalym. These two discoveries were destined to change the appearance of the entire region.

After a while, good news again swept the taiga: a hunter named Sheregeshev had discovered another rich deposit of iron ore! He had hunted many years ago in a remote district of the taiga and even then suspected that iron ore was present there. On learning that local ore could be used by the Kuznetsk plant, Sheregeshev traced his way, by following the trees that he had notched there long ago, to the place where he had once hunted. Soon he brought a sample of the ore to a geologist. And the large deposit that was found in Sheregeshev's old hunting ground has been named after him.

Subsequently, a large expedition headed by the noted geologist, Alexei Kuzmin, went deep into the interior of mountainous Shoria. This was the first time in history that a geological investigation in Siberia had been undertaken during the winter. The expedition entered the mountains late in autumn. Skvortsov, Sheregeshev and other hunters were the guides. They had hardly set up camp when a severe frost descended. But work continued despite the frost.

On summarizing the results of their extensive investigations, the geologists concluded that the old "theories" that held that Siberia had little iron ore, were completely without basis in fact —Siberia has rich ore deposits.

Now the face of the wild, deserted and mountainous Shorian region has been changed forever. A railway two hundred kilometers* long stretches far into the mountains. This railway was not easy to build: every kilometer meant strenuous work in leveling the ground, for the mountains and the taiga obstructed the way of the builders. But they surmounted all difficulties, and now a whole chain of workers' settlements may be found along the railway. The railway terminates at Tashtagol, which, in the Shorian language, means "a city on the palm." And indeed, it lies in a flat valley surrounded by mountains. This is where the largest

* One kilometer=.621 of a mile.

ENGINEER. P. R. Lozovoi, dispatcher at the steel plant. Technical skill reaches a high level at Stalinsk.

mine is functioning, a mine whose ore does not require concentration.

This mine was developed very rapidly during the war. Through the efforts of its highly-qualified permanent staff, by 1947 its output had increased eight times over its 1941 output.

The streets of Tashtagol run along the slope of the mountain; here the schoo's, club and hospital are located. The town has become the industrial and cultural center of the whole of mountainous Shoria. The town adjoining Tashtagol is Temir Tau, where the mine is worked subterraneously for a distance of twenty kilometers.

Lying midway between Stalinsk and Tashtagol is the town of Mundybash, which has a concentration plant serving the mines of Temir Tau and Odrabash. The Odrabash mine was begun during the war. Odrabash and Mundybash are connected by a cable road suspended in the air; an endless string of carts with ore moves along the cable road day and night.

Fifteen years ago the Kuznetsk iron-and-steel plant was forced to "import" most of its ore from the Urals. Last year Shoria fed the Kuznetsk furnaces with more than two-thirds of their required ore. This year Shoria is providing 80 percent of the ore. By the end of the first postwar Five-Year Plan (1950) the plant will use local materials exclusively.

Extensive new construction is now in full swing in Shoria. In October, 1947, a branch-line railway was laid which connects the new town of Shalym with other industrial centers in the Kuznetsk Basin. On November 7 the first train arrived in Shalym. The building of dwelling houses goes on winter and summer. The first sections of this town are taking shape in the thick taiga forest. A club, school and kindergarten are under construction.

Chief-of-construction Alexander Polyansky told me: "You have witnessed the birth of a new town. Come here two years hence and you will see a new industrial center with large buildings and straight, broad streets and boulevards."

This, in brief, is the story of how a new iron-ore basin came into being in the USSR. It is further confirmation of the mighty industrial development of Siberia—whose wealth, like all the riches of the USSR, is placed exclusively at the service of the people.

Siberian City's Opera House Dwarfs Moscow's Bolshoi

By V. Cherkashin

It is significant of the transformation of Siberia since the establishment of Soviet power that the largest opera house in the entire Soviet Union—a country world-famed for its attention to the cultural life of its people—should be found in the Siberian city of Novosibirsk.

The citizens of Novosibirsk call their opera house the "contemporary of victory." It was formally opened on May 12, 1945, and is twice the size of the famous Bolshoi Theater in Moscow, the nation's capital.

Erected during the Second World War, the Novosibirsk opera house is also the finest structure of its kind in the Soviet Union. It covers an area of 11,500 square meters* and boasts a stage with a working area of more than one thousand square meters.

The initial production in this new opera house was *Ivan Susanin* by the great Russian composer, Mikhail Glinka. The subject is the patriotism and love of liberty of the Russian people.

*One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

The auditorium, embellished with antique statuary, was filled to capacity for the big opening and the size of the opera house pleased both the public and the artists. Productions with immensely large casts can be presented in the new theater and there is scope for all types of intricate stage effects.

A high level of technique and an exacting attitude toward their art are characteristic of the producers, actors and artists of the Novosibirsk Theater, the youngest opera house in the Soviet Union.

Igor Morozov, a young composer, works regularly for this theater. In cooperation with the opera company, he created that remarkable fairy tale ballet *Doctor Aibo'it*. Its production at the Novosibirsk theater won the title of Stalin Prize winner for the composer as well as for the following: Conductor Isidore Zak, Balletmaster Mikhail Moiseyev, the artist, Boris Knoblock, and the ballerina, Ariadne Belova.

The theater's repertory includes the best Russian and foreign classics and the works of Soviet composers. The fourth year of the theater's existence is to be highlighted with the production of *Libusha,* by the famous Czech composer, Smetana.

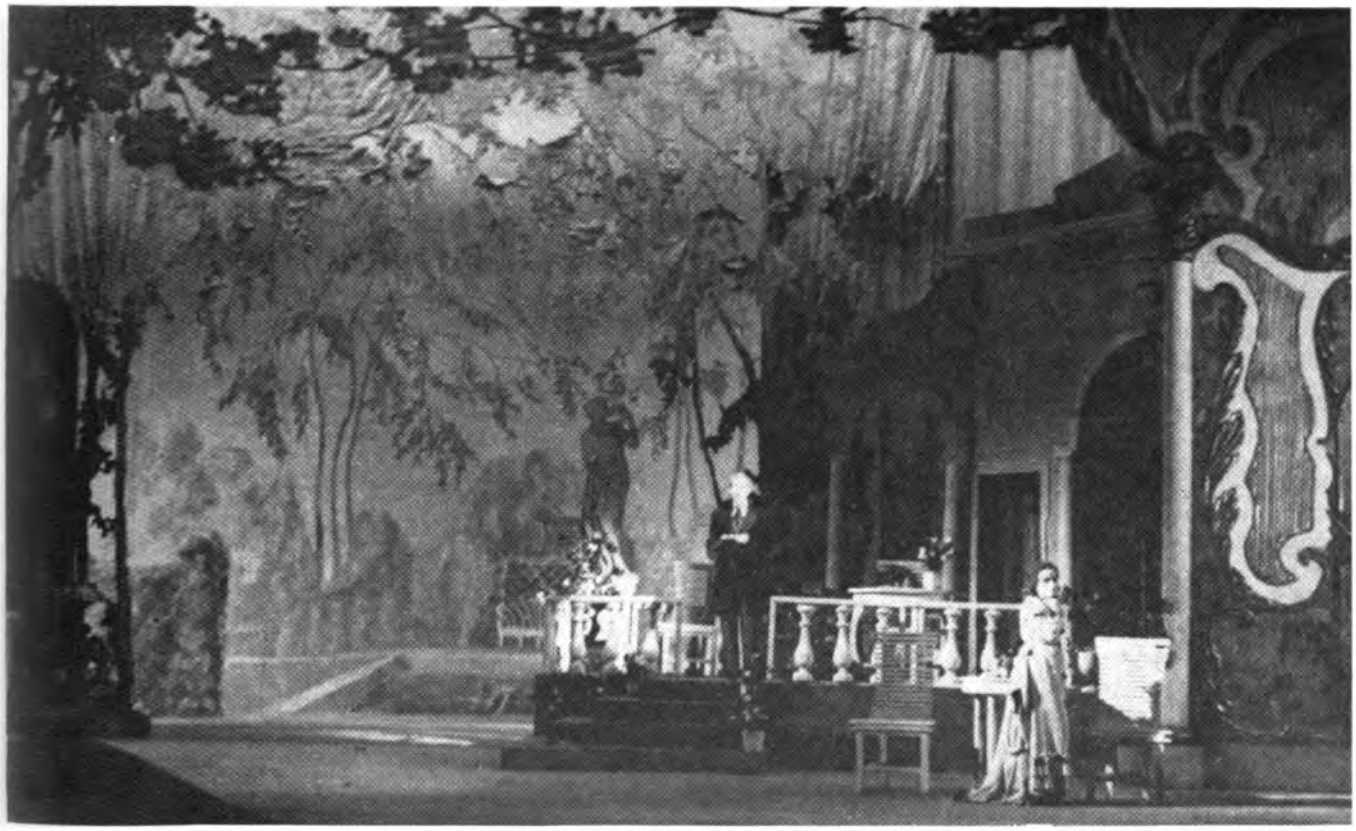
Novosibirsk also has its theater for plays and drama, like other towns in the Soviet Union. It is called the Red Torch Theater and was founded in the early Soviet years. It has earned a reputation as being one of the very best in the country. Its repertory shows great variety.

The Juvenile Theater is very popular with the young folk in Novosibirsk. It has a special children's repertory. Then there is the mobile dramatic theater that tours all parts of the region. The city has a philharmonic hall, several movie houses, and a circus. In addition there are excellent culture palaces and clubs in the factory districts.

Although the Siberian city of Novosibirsk is far from the metropolitan center of Moscow, its theater life is both vital and interesting. It, too, is contributing to the building of the cultural life of the Soviet people.

THE COUNTRY'S FINEST. In Siberia, where once there were few cultural facilities, this great opera and ballet theater has been built.

FOYER. This graceful lobby leads to the auditorium proper. It is handsomely decorated and brilliantly illuminated.



"EUGENE ONEGIN." A performance of Tchaikovsky's great opera at the Novosibirsk State Theater of Opera and Ballet.

Rural Siberian Deputy Is Farmer Who Works for His People

By Sergei Danilin
Soviet Journalist

More than 2,400 miles from Moscow in the ancient Siberian village of Brazhnoye lives 50-year-old Nikita Gorbach, deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, and chairman of the Behest of Lenin Collective Farm.

Deputy Gorbach has headed the farm for 18 consecutive years and he has attained excellent results on this farm which unites 255 farmsteads and which is widely known for its fine crop production.

Himself a peasant, Deputy Gorbach took the floor at the second session of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR in the debate on the state budget for 1948. He held the attention of his fellow deputies when he described the needs of his native Krasnoyarsk Territory.

"The Krasnoyarsk Territory, which I represent," he said, "spreads from the Arctic Ocean to the southern boundaries of our country. In natural resources it occupies a prominent place in the RSFSR. The Territory has immense deposits of coal, graphite, iron, nickel, gold and other minerals. Over one-fourth of all the forests of the Soviet Union are in the Krasnoyarsk Territory. These vast riches must be fully put to the service of socialist construction."

Deputy Gorbach spoke from long and full acquaintance of the needs of his Territory and the immediate measures which would have to be taken in order to boost agriculture there. He insisted that the Minister of Trade improve delivery of goods to distant Siberian villages, and urged the Minister of the Agriculture Machinery Industry to supply more tractors, combines, cultivators, and spare parts to the Territory.

Standing in the speaker's box, Gorbach appealed to the workers, the engineers and the technicians of the Altai Tractor Works, and of the Ural and Gorky Automobile Factories to do still better at mastering the production of new types of agricultural machinery, so that his countrymen could get them in time for the new harvest.

LAWMAKERS. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR—workers, farmers, sons and daughters of the people.

After a discussion of Gorbach's proposals, the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR increased the items in the budget dealing with further expansion of construction in the Krasnoyarsk Territory.

In 1947, the Behest of Lenin Collective Farm harvested 31.3 metric centners* of wheat per hectare** over an area of 78.62 hectares. For his leadership in this achievement, the title of Hero of Socialist Labor was conferred upon Nikita Gorbach. This title was also conferred upon 70-year-old Stepan Vinokurov, a brigade leader; his 63-year-old wife, Ksenya Vinokurova, a team leader and five other members of the collective farm.

From the earnings of this good harvest, the collective farm is now doing a great deal of construction. On the outskirts of the village, a new, well-built settlement has gone up for the workers of the local state machine-and-tractor station; the collective farm has built a 10-year secondary school in which three hundred children of the collective farmers are enrolled; it has built a club, library, radio station (which broadcasts news of the collective farm), a motion picture theater, a large restaurant and two retail stores.

In the center of the village the farmers have laid out a park of culture and rest.

Not long ago I visited Nikita Gorbach. Despite the early hour of my arrival, the headquarters office of the collective farm was crowded. War invalids, school teachers, doctors and old

*One metric centner=220.46 pounds.
**One hectare=2.471 acres.

pensioners from other villages were talking with the old-timers of Brazhnoye.

"They all came to see our deputy," the office watchman explained.

The people did not have long to wait. Deputy Gorbach soon returned from the field camps where he had spent the night with combine operators and farmers preparing for the harvest. (That is the way Gorbach works—always on the scene where the main problem is being solved.)

It was one of the war invalids who addressed Gorbach first. A row of medals decorated his chest. He said:

"We're from the Ilanski District, and have come for advice on some questions concerning land for gardens."

After listening to the veteran attentively, the deputy wrote a note to the Ilanski Soviet on a Member-of-Government's form, directing the Soviet to satisfy the request of the invalids. Then Gorbach inquired about their lives and had a friendly conversation with them on various subjects.

The teachers told Gorbach of their plans to extend the school network in the Kansk District. Gorbach assured them he would communicate with the Minister of Education and the territorial board of education, and would do everything possible to have money allocated for building new schools and enlarging the older ones.

A request to intercede with the Kansk Town Soviet to have land allotted for enlargement of the town hospital was made by the doctors. Gorbach immediately phoned the chairman of the Town Soviet and, after a short conversation, was told that the land would be made available. The doctors heartily thanked the deputy for the quick solution of their problem.

Representatives of all strata of the population come to Gorbach for help and advice. They include chairmen of Village Soviets and collective farms, scientific workers, agronomists, demobilized soldiers, representatives of local and central trading organizations. Editors of newspapers and magazines often ask him to write articles on problems of Soviet construction.

"My election district," Gorbach told me, "includes two towns, Ilanski and Kansk, and three agricultural districts, the Kansk, Ilanski and Irbeiskoe. Since the elections I have been in each several times."

Constant association with his people helps the deputy to understand the growing needs of the people. Because of this, Gorbach succeeded in securing an important decision involving the erection of a power station in the Ilanski District, which now supplies electricity to scores of villages.

Gorbach has studied his people well. He knows their capabilities, and is quick to support any new ideas that are brought forward by the collective farmers in order to improve methods and operations.

He was quick, for example, to support the initiative of the leading brigade leader, Stepan Vinokurov, who first suggested the team system of work. Now the collective farm has 25 such teams, work has considerably improved, and the responsibility of the farmers for their tasks has increased.

"To direct is to foresee." These words of Stalin characterize the type of leadership Gorbach represents. He insisted, for instance, that five-year plans for economic development be adopted at the Behest of Lenin Farm and all the neighboring collective farms. The farmers prepare for their high harvests in advance; their plans give them the opportunity to look into their future. Under the advice of their deputy, they have introduced ten-field systems of crop rotation; they are building brick factories and subsidiary enterprises and they are making preparations to rebuild and improve their villages.

Nikita Gorbach heads a large family. His eldest daughter will soon finish secondary school, and is preparing to enter college. His 16-year-old son, Volodya, is training to become a carpenter; Gorbach's wife teaches at the public nursery of the collective farm.

Nations Trade with USSR

(Continued from page 565)

signed, under which the Swedish Government granted the Soviet Union credits amounting to 1,000,000,000 Swedish crowns. Swedish deliveries, by the terms of this agreement, are to consist primarily of equipment of various types.

It was pointed out in Swedish business circles that the implementation of these agreements would keep some of Sweden's major industries going for a long time to come. The conservative *Svenska Dagbladet* wrote that "every Swedish industrialist is fully aware of the benefits our country and Swedish industry stand to gain from an extension of commercial ties with the East, for experience shows that the Soviet Union can be fully trusted as a business partner."

On December 27, 1947, the protocol of an agreement on trade and financial questions was signed between the USSR and Great Britain. The Government of Great Britain agreed to change the terms for the repayment of wartime credits by the Soviet Union. The Government of the USSR will supply Britain with urgently needed fodder grains. The Government of Great Britain, in its turn, pledged to supply the Soviet Union with narrow-gauge rails and to assist Soviet import organizations to place orders in Britain for equipment, to help these import organizations purchase wool, rubber, aluminum, cocoa beans, coffee and other goods.

The understanding reached between the Governments of the USSR and of Great Britain has created favorable conditions for the further development of Soviet-British trade, to the mutual interests of both countries.

On March 3, 1948 the Governments of the USSR and of Egypt concluded an agreement on questions of trade, under which Egypt is to supply cotton to the USSR in exchange for timber, grain, ammonium sulphate, etc. At the same time a protocol was also signed providing for most-favored nation treatment in trade between the USSR and Egypt in the interim period before the conclusion of a general commercial treaty between the two countries.

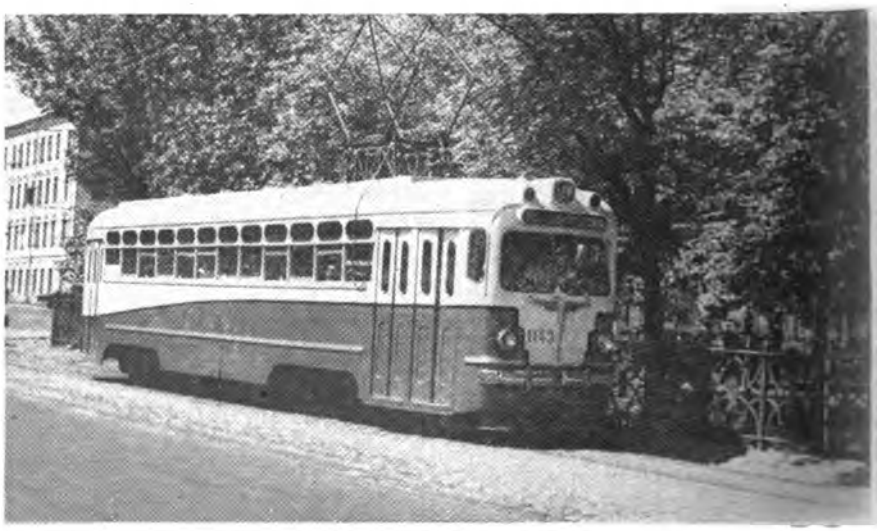
In connection with the understanding reached between the USSR and Norway concerning trade between the two countries in 1948, the Norwegian newspaper *Dagbladet* wrote: "Purely from the point of view of international relations, the expansion of Russia's foreign trade is one of the most encouraging recent developments. It shows that the USSR intends to build the future on the basis of peaceful co-operation with its neighbors and other countries."

SUBWAY ENTRANCE. The Moscow Subway's fame often overshadows the capital's other means of transport, shown on these pages.

Transport in Moscow

STREET SCENE. Thousands of taxis, busses and streetcars traverse Moscow's streets. This is Gorky Street, near its juncture with the Leningrad highway.

ON THE MOSCOW RIVER. These boats are popular with Muscovites who want to relax for an hour or two.



STREETCAR. Moscow's cars, which carry 53 per cent of the city's passengers, carried an even greater percentage before the subway was built. This is a new, all-metal type.

"BAGGAGE TAXIS." Two hundred of these vehicles provide quick transport for travelers' luggage.

RUSH HOUR. Electric trains take thousands of Moscow suburbanites to and from their homes. Here early-morning arrivals jam the Kazan Station platform.

CAB STAND. Taxicabs at a railway station wait for the morning train from Latvia.

THE OLD AND THE NEW. The relatively old streetcars at the left are rapidly being replaced by the most modern busses. In 1950, Moscow's bus network will have expanded 50 per cent over its 1945 level.

DOUBLE-DECKER. Moscow's busses carry 940 thousand passengers every day.

Elektrostal Shines on Soviet Map As New Steel Center

By Y. Tsvetov

At the very gate of Elektrostal—at the bustling railway station—each new arrival becomes thoroughly aware that he has stepped into a big industrial center. Among the passengers that 15 daily trains bring to this young town only 50-odd miles from Moscow, are engineers, skilled workers, representatives of government institutions, students. And at the freight yards, loading and unloading continues day and night.

When I had ascended the metal viaduct I saw an imposing panorama of industrial enterprises—huge factory buildings, a forest of smokestacks and a ramified network of railway lines connecting the different shops.

The town lay a little farther away. Tall buildings arranged in well-planned ensembles were decorated with balustrades, balconies and columns. There were schools, pharmacies, shops and restaurants. The monumental theater building faced a wide asphalted square. At the end of a street leading from a shady little square were the beautiful, tall buildings of the hospital.

Elektrostal is one of the youngest Soviet towns.

Ten years ago when the builders came, there was dense forest here, a railroad crossing and about a dozen houses. A few years passed and factory buildings arose, and electric ovens, open-hearth furnaces, rolling mills and a huge amount of machinery went into operation. Houses arose in rapid succession along broad, straight streets laid out where before there had been forest paths.

And the Elektrostal Works became the pride of this new Soviet industrial center. The Elektrostal Works supply the country with the highest grades of steel and are a leader in the electric smelting process. The works produce dozens of new types of steel and alloys which are manufactured nowhere else in Europe.

Another nationally famous enterprise in this town is the Stalin Heavy-Machine - building Plant. Powerful cranes, oil pumps and other machinery are daily shipped from here to all parts of the country. The plant manufactured dozens of complex aggregates and parts of the unique rolling mills for the restoration of the Zaporozhstal Steel Works. Much of the equipment manufactured here is earmarked for the rehabilitation of electric power stations and the mines of the Donets and Moscow coal basins.

Elektrostal is a town that has produced many an outstanding innovator and skilled craftsman. The master steel maker A. Zhuravlev, now a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, came to the fore here. He began at the plant as an ordinary schist hauler, attended the free technical courses here and acquired a trade, then soon distinguished himself as one of the best steel makers. P. Beskorovainy, famed as one of the designers of a new type of electric hoist for mines, has had a career similar to Zhuravlev's. Other noted inventors and rationalizers at the Elektrostal works are Stalin Prize winners V. Kultygin, Y. Golovanov and V. Olshevsky. The present chairman of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, Vassili Kuznetsov, also worked at one of the plants in this town at one time. I. Tevosyan, Minister of the Iron and Steel Industry, was at one time a foreman at the Elektrostal works. This list could go on and on.

The industrial enterprises continue to expand and Elektrostal is growing steadily. It still lacks the finished touch of older towns. There is a smell of fresh paint. The Palace of Culture is still under construction. Asphalt is being laid in the streets, and paths in the squares are being leveled. But on a large map of the town, through the

ELEKTROSTAL. Apartment houses for workers in the new Soviet city.

lines, circles and squares drawn on it, one can see the future of this young town. It has great prospects for further development as an industrial center, and it is no wonder that one-third of its population are building workers. New construction sites are constantly arising in the western section of the town, and everywhere one may see stacks of bricks, cement mixers, electric cranes and excavating work. Among the new sites are those of the House of Soviets, a theater, an industrial training school, a House of Communications, several schools and kindergartens. These buildings will form a unified architectural ensemble circled by a chain of grassy squares and gardens. In the eastern section of Elektrostal there will be dozens of new streets. Bus and trolley service will connect the two sections of the town.

An idea of the speed of the building work can be gained from the fact that last year alone ten new streets were laid out, and tall, well-appointed, modern houses built upon them.

A local resident was asked where the center of the town was. He thought for a moment and then said, as though thinking aloud:

"Now what street could we consider the main one? Sovietskaya? Krasnaya? or Oktyabrskaya? I guess all of them would be considered the main streets."

This was true. Elektrostal has no old, out-of-date sections, nor has it any narrow crooked alleys or old houses. The socialist principle in town building is evident everywhere. Among the first buildings erected in Elektrostal were seven schools, well-appointed houses, dining rooms, a large hospital with nine sections, polyclinics, three outpatient clinics, women's and children's medical consultation centers, a sanatorium and a club. Only after all these had been built, was work begun on the industrial enterprises now so well known throughout the country.

Before the Revolution there was one school in the entire area. It had eighty-five pupils, taught by two teachers. There are now 250 teachers and 10 thousand pupils in the schools of Elektrostal. At one time there was a medical station here run by a lone surgeon's assistant. Elektrostal now has 20 medical institutions which employ hundreds of doctors and nurses.

And Elektrostal still continues to grow.

Machine-and-Tractor Stations Mechanize Farm Work

From an article by N. Yefimov

Assistant Head of the MTS Administration of the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR

Soviet socialist agriculture has at its disposal the most powerful machine technique in the world. With the aid of the state MTS (machine-and-tractor stations), which possess hundreds of thousands of tractors, harvester combines and other highly productive machines, sowing areas in the current year increased by more than 11 million hectares. And sowings of spring wheat, a most valuable crop, were 5,500,000 hectares more than last year.

The MTS—which tills the fields and reaps the harvests on collective farm lands under contract with the respective collective farms—this year plowed 80 per cent of the collective farm fields, carried out 90 per cent of the cultivation, sowed more than 50 per cent of the spring crops, and did most of the harvesting. In such major grain districts of the country as the Ukraine, the North Caucasus, etc., grain sowings were carried out by the MTS in six or seven days—twice as quickly as last year. The tractors of the MTS tilled 16 million hectares more land of the collective farms than it tilled in 1947.

The complete mechanization of agricultural work is being achieved in the USSR because of the steady increase of machines in the MTS and because of the rise in productivity of those machines. In the first half of the current year, the MTS received, from Soviet factories, more than double the number of tractors, combines and other intricate agricultural machines than it had received in the corresponding period of 1947. Many machines of new "make," produced since the war, worked the fields of collective farms this year. The Rostov Agricultural Machine-building Plant and other agricultural machine-building plants are producing tens of thousands of the powerful new, improved, *Stalinets-6* combines. Thousands of new self-propelled combines have been produced in the current year and were used in this year's harvest on a large scale. New combines for harvesting flax, cotton, maize, beet and other crops have already been delivered to many machine-and-tractor stations and are in use.

This year, combines harvested more than 60 percent of the grain in the Kuban, the Volga area, and Siberia, and 80 percent of the grain in the Stalingrad and Saratov Regions.

The highly qualified MTS men and women—tractor and combine drivers, mechanics, etc.—reared on Soviet farms, are increasing the productivity of their agricultural machines year by year. In the spring of this year, for instance, the average work done by a tractor exceeded the average work done by a tractor in 1947 by 10 percent, and that of 1940 by 30 per cent.

The skill of the MTS men and women manifested itself most strikingly in the gathering of this year's harvest. The seasonal average of work by one combine had been planned to be 300-350 hectares. Many combine operators, however, surpassed this average.

The high output of Soviet combine operators is to be explained by their skill and thorough knowledge of their work. This year, long before the time of harvest, more than 50 thousand combine operators attended special schools in order to raise their qualifications, schools organized by machine-and-tractor stations.

This year's splendid harvest was completed rapidly and in a highly organized manner because of the energetic assistance of the MTS and the high labor activity of Soviet farmers. The harvest was completed in the main in the Crimea and in many districts of Transcaucasia and Central Asia by early July. And by that time, the area harvested in the Ukraine was four million hectares greater than the area that had been harvested by the same date last year.

120th Anniversary Marked

Leo Tolstoy, Giant of Literature

Condensed from Articles by Professor Nikolai Rodionov
Editor-in-Chief of the Academy Edition of Tolstoy's Works

RUSSIA'S great genius of the novel, Leo Tolstoy, is best appreciated in his own native land where more than 29 million copies of his works have been published since the Revolution.

The Soviet Union and the world marked the 120th anniversary of Tolstoy's birth on Sept. 9.

Tolstoy, whose most popular novels are *War and Peace* and *Anna Karenina,* died in 1910. Shortly before his death, the novelist and author wrote the following on the role of the writer:

"The artist should always bear in mind the whole mass of the working people, that is, all mankind, with few exceptions, and not merely some idle people . . . Art . . . has always been, is and will remain, a recreation from labor for the working man, and not the amusement of the idle minority of parasites, living on the sap of the people. True art, then, should have in mind the whole mass of the people. Upon this the content of art depends."

Writing on June 9, 1910, just four months before his death, Tolstoy came to the following conclusion: "As soon as art ceases to be art for the whole people, and becomes an art for a small class of the rich, it ceases to be necessary and important and becomes an idle amusement."

Tolstoy's manuscripts, collected from scattered archives in many countries, were assembled by direction of the Council of People's Commisars in 1925 in order to publish a complete academic edition of his works.

By the outbreak of the Second World War, 38 volumes of this edition had been published. The completed edition will total 89 volumes, and most of it is now ready for the press.

This edition, under the direction of a State Editorial Committee, is intended for philologists, and on the basis of this text, mass editions of separate works and of Tolstoy's selected works will be issued.

Tolstoy's thorough knowledge of the

STATUE OF TOLSTOY. By the sculptor Maniser.

Russian people, combined with his own five years in the army, helped him to write the national historical saga, *War and Peace.* Written, as it were, in two planes, one—the Patriotic War of 1812, and the other—the peacetime life of the Russian people, it has no equal in the world's literature.

The novel is presently appearing in its fourth postwar edition; each edition consisted of 150 thousand to 350 thousand copies.

Tolstoy's genius was apparent in his early literary works. During his first period (1852-1862) he wrote the trilogy, *Childhood, Adolescence* and *Youth; Sevastopol Stories; Two Hussars; Lucerne; Cossacks* and others.

The salient traits of his creative work, traits that were to make it immortal, can be discerned in this period.

Tolstoy's second period begins after 1862, with the writing of *War and Peace,* which consumed ten years.

In 1872, after finishing *War and Peace,* Tolstoy became engrossed in pedagogical interests and undertook the writing of an *Alphabet* for which he wrote more than six hundred stories, fairy tales, and legends. Research scholars consider this work exceptional as a school text.

In 1873 Tolstoy began work on *Ann Karenina,* a novel of literary, social and psychological significance, which reflects with the power so natural to Tolstoy, the manner of living of Russian society at the close of the sixties and the beginning of the seventies.

Tolstoy's fourth period opened in 1879 with his unsparing exposure of the landowning, bourgeois system of tsarist Russia. He came to the conclusion that all the leading organs of authority in Russia—the church, courts, land offices and so on—had but one purpose. This, he said, was to stupefy and keep the people in slavery, so that these institutions and the class they represented might maintain power.

From 1881, Tolstoy spent every winter in Moscow, and he observed the life of the city's poor. His observations were summed up in a long social-political treatise—*So What is to be Done?*

The literary work that followed: *The Power of Evil; The Fruits of Enlightenment* and finally, the last long novel, *Resurrection*—reflect Tolstoy's increasing preoccupation with the peasant.

Tolstoy described the idle, easy life of plenty led by the landowning gentry; he protested indignantly against all state institutions aimed at the enslavement of men and particularly of the working and destitute masses.

In his last thirty years, Tolstoy wrote fiction of a psychological nature, including *The Death of Ivan Ilyich.* The famous French writer, Guy de Maupassant, on reading *The Death of Ivan Ilyich* shortly before his own fatal illness, said: "I see that all my work has gone for nothing."

Tolstoy's life and work brought him to his conclusion that unless art serves the whole people "it ceases to be necessary and important and becomes an idle amusement." This is the principle on which Soviet writers, too, work.

A Muscovite's Diary

PERHAPS IT'S BECAUSE I remember so well how women were treated in the old days that I glow with pleasure whenever I hear of some new achievement of our Soviet women. For instance, I read in the papers the other day that an Armenian girl engineer named Marya Babadjanyan has invented a new method of electrothermic smelting of glass. Her invention is of considerable importance for the national economy, because of the tremendous need for cheap glass that can be produced on a large scale for reconstruction purposes. Now the first electrothermic glass-smelting shop in the country has been set up, with Babadjanyan in charge. The oven—of her design—is four times the size of the oven in general use, and can operate much longer without major repairs. What's more, glass produced by her method costs less than half as much as other types.

A GOOD FRIEND who just returned from Soviet Georgia dropped by the other night and no sooner had he come in the door than he began singing the praises of a stage production of the ancient Greek tragedy *Oedipus Rex*, which he had seen in the Georgian port-city of Batumi. A motion-picture actor, he was on location down in Georgia when he heard that the Batumi State Drama Theater was staging it, and he made a special trip to Batumi to see it. He told me that it was one of the most exciting productions that he had ever seen. There was no curtain. The ancient tragedy of a man who unwittingly marries his mother was enacted without intermission against a background of majestic proportions—a broad staircase began practically from the first row of the orchestra and soared up to meet a huge backdrop depicting a Greek temple. The lights did not go out at first—as the audience grew more and more engrossed, the lights gradually dimmed to darkness. And the old Greek tragedy was played as it was originally written, with only slight cuts. My friend declared that it was produced and acted with such verve and speed that he didn't even notice the absence of intermissions. But what impressed him most was the group's interpretation of the play, an interpretation which transmuted what Sophocles intended as a tragedy of fate, into a human tragedy that deeply moved its Soviet audience—to whom the mysticism of "fate" is totally alien.

His enthusiasm was contagious, and I certainly hope that the Batumi State Theater brings its production of *Oedipus Rex* to Moscow.

LIKE MANY PERSONS in every country, I have been interested in railways since I was a small boy with a toy locomotive which ran on a track around my father's study, and though I would be of little use in the cab of a locomotive, I read the railway journals every month. Thus I learned that the Institute of Transport Engineers in Dnepropetrovsk has introduced an interesting innovation in testing new locomotives.

While the new locomotive was running at top speed, they made a slow-motion film of it, using from three thousand to six thousand shots per second. Thus, when the film was run back, they could detect flaws in its operation not visible to even the expert eye. The Ministry of Railways of the USSR has now decided to apply this method generally.

I PICKED UP the paper the other day and was startled to see the rugged visage of Heino Lipp smiling out at me. The reason for the occasion was his setting a new Soviet record in the decathlon—that most difficult of all track and field events—in Kharkov. I met him when he was a soldier during the war, and knew he was an athlete, but I didn't know he was that good. He ran up a total of 7,584—over 400 points better than the 7,139 points scored by Robert Mathias, the American winner of the decathlon at the Olympics held recently in London. Heino broke a record made only a few days before by Vladimir Volkov, also in Kharkov. Volkov had set a new Soviet record of 7,229 points. Only three other athletes in the past have ever exceeded the number of points Lipp piled up, and none in recent years.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

September 27—October 10

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from September 27 to October 10 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88, and 11.87 megacycles, and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31 and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays and Thursdays, September 27, 30, October 4, 7—Economic affairs.

Tuesday and Fridays, September 30, October 1 and 8—Scientific and cultural programs.

Tuesday, October 5—Program for youth.

Wednesday, October 6—Trade unions.

Tuesday, September 28—Program for farmers.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talks and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

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USSR

Information Bulletin

OCTOBER 6, 1948

CIRCUS REHEARSAL. The Moscow Circus has a winter season. People's Artist Boris Eder trains bear cubs. FRONT COVER. Children of Moscow textile workers learn the accordion at factory club. BACK COVER. New apartment house rises on Moscow's Gorky Street.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Official Tass Statement

The Soviet Position on Berlin

The text of the Tass statement of the Soviet Government's position on the Berlin situation, as published September 26 in the Soviet press:

TASS has been authorized to make a statement on the subject of the situation in Berlin and of the negotiations which were held during August and September of this year on this question among the Governments of the USSR, the U.S.A., Great Britain and France. This is all the more necessary since reports on this question which have appeared in the Anglo-American and French press, as well as the statements of official persons, including Mr. Bevin's speech in the House of Commons on September 22, do not give a true picture of the situation in Berlin and the aforementioned negotiations and not infrequently mislead public opinion.

In its note addressed to the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France on July 14 of this year, the Soviet Government declared that the situation which had arisen in Berlin constituted the result of the violation by the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France of decisions adopted previously at the Potsdam Conference as well as the Four-Power Agreement on the control machinery in Germany and Berlin.

This violation consists of the carrying out of a separate currency reform by the three powers, the introduction of special currency for the Western sectors of Berlin, and in the policy of dismembering Germany.

The situation brought about by the separate actions of the Western Powers means that the three Governments are not content with their absolute rule in the Western zones of Germany, but desire to rule simultaneously in monetary and financial matters in the Soviet occupation zone as well, by means of introducing their special currency in Berlin, which is in the center of the Soviet zone, and thereby disorganizing the economy in the Eastern zone of Germany and eventually dislodging the USSR from there.

This compelled the Soviet command in Germany to take steps for restricting transport communications between Berlin and the Western occupation zones of Germany in order to safeguard the interests of the German population and to protect the economic life of the Soviet zone against disorganization.

Since, however, at the close of July the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France addressed a proposal to the Government of the USSR jointly to examine the situation in Berlin and the broader issues involved in it, the Soviet Government agreed to this proposal.

As a result of the negotiations held in Moscow during the course of August, the four Governments reached an understanding that the following measures would be carried out simultaneously, provided the four Commanders-in-Chief in Berlin reached agreement concerning their practical implementation.

(A)—The recently introduced restrictions of transportation and trade between Berlin and the Western zones, as well as of the movement of freight to and from the Soviet zone of Germany, would be lifted; and (B)—simultaneously with this the German mark of the Soviet zone would be introduced as the only currency for Berlin, while the Western "B" mark would be withdrawn from circulation in Berlin.

At the same time an agreement was reached to the effect that the introduction of the German mark of the Soviet zone as the only currency for Berlin and a number of functions in regard to the subsequent regulation of currency circulation in Berlin would be under quadripartite control.

The four Commanders-in-Chief in Berlin were accordingly instructed to work out concrete measures for implementing the understanding achieved in Moscow, and the continuation of negotiations in Moscow on other issues connected with the situation in Germany was envisaged.

The negotiations among the four Commanders-in-Chief, held in Berlin early in September, were not completed in view of the fact that the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France referred certain differences that arose among the Commanders-in-Chief for joint examination with the Government of the USSR in Moscow.

The aforementioned differences concern three issues, the Soviet Government's stand on these issues being as follows:

1. The Soviet Government insists on establishment of control by the Soviet command over transportation of commercial cargoes and passengers by air between Berlin and the Western zones; similarly over transportation by rail, water and highway. Air routes cannot remain outside of control since the four Governments have reached an understanding that the agreement should envisage the establishment of appropriate control over money circulation in Berlin and trade between Berlin and the Western zones.

2. The Soviet Government believes it necessary strictly to adhere to the agreement reached by the four Governments in Moscow concerning the quadripartite financial commission and its functions with the introduction and circulation of a single currency in Berlin. The Soviet Government cannot agree to such an extension of the functions of the financial commission as would result in the latter's intervention into the regulation of money circulation in the Soviet zone as a whole.

3. The Soviet Government expressed consent to the wishes of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France concerning the establishment of quadripartite control over Berlin's trade with the Western zones and third countries, including issuance of appropriate licenses, thus

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In UN General Assembly

USSR Urges Steps Toward Peace

By Boris Izakov

Soviet Journalist

THE third session of the United Nations General Assembly has elected its leadership: the chairman and alternate chairman of the session, and the chairmen of its committees. The general committee then proceeded to draft the agenda. Thus, the session began its work. Frankly speaking, however, it is an unsuccessful beginning from our point of view. It should be remembered that the United Nations was conceived by the peoples who fought against fascism, conceived as an instrument of international co-operation. This key idea lies at the basis of the Charter, which was solemnly adopted in San Francisco. And it is the mission of the United Nations, in the interests of world peace, to make concerted decisions on important international problems.

Not much time has passed since the United Nations edifice was erected. Yet, the rafters of this edifice are already being corroded. The talk about the "world leadership" of the English-speaking countries is expressed in practice in attempts to subordinate this organization—which was founded by the peoples of the world—to Anglo-American interests.

But the persons who are quite stubbornly pursuing this aim overlook one simple thing: as soon as the United Nations becomes a branch of the State Department, it will cease to exist as an international organization—even if the old signboard is still retained.

The drive to bring about a radical change in the character of the United Nations has, in our view, manifested itself during the very first days of the Paris session. Particularly characteristic in this respect was the choice of the chairman of the session and the choice of the chairmen of the various committees. These are key positions at the sessions of the General Assembly. The persons who occupy these posts wield considerable influence during the sessions. At the two previous sessions of the General Assembly, the elections to these posts were based upon the principle of geographical representation. It will suffice to recall that at the first session in 1946, the chairman of the first (political) and second (economic) committees were delegates of the Ukraine and Poland. At the second session of the General Assembly in 1947, a Polish delegate was elected as chairman of the third committee (on social and humanitarian questions and on questions of culture.)

An entirely different procedure was adopted in the elections at the present session. Evatt, the representative from Australia—one of the British Dominions—was elected chairman of the session. The role that Evatt has consistently played in the United Nations and at the Paris Peace Conference has gained him a very definite reputation. And it is not an accident that in its very first comment on the election of Evatt—broadcast on September 21—Radio Paris noted his long record of hostility toward the Soviet Union and the peoples' democracies of Eastern Europe.

The same reputation is enjoyed by the Belgian, Spaak, who is one of the pillars of the so-called Western Union. At this session Spaak was advanced to the post of chairman of the highly important political committee. Representatives of Chile, Lebanon, Iran, Canada, and Panama have been elected to preside over other committees. And candidates proposed by the delegations of the Slav countries were rejected by the Anglo-American bloc. The picture was not much improved by the fact that the delegates of the USSR and Poland were included among the seven alternate chairmen of the session: for the post of alternate chairman of the session is mainly an honorary one—it is not a working position.

One cannot fail to see that these elections in Chaillot Palace were influenced by the United States delegation, which plays a decisive role in the so-called Western Bloc. That nation's influence was also evident in the general committee, where Austin, the United States delegate, supported an unprecedented proposal by Argentina to include in the preliminary agenda—in violation of rules recorded in the Charter—a point on the radical revision of procedure governing the admission of new members to the United Nations. Characteristically enough, this obviously unlawful proposal—which runs counter to the Charter—was made after the speech of the American delegate; the proposal was accepted by a majority of only one vote.

This beginning at Chaillot Palace shows how little the Anglo-American bloc is inclined to reckon with the principles of internationl co-operation which were adopted as the basis for the entire work of the United Nations.

THE representatives of all countries listened with great interest to the speech of Andrei Vyshinsky, head of the Soviet delegation; for the proposals Vyshinsky made in the name of the USSR are dictated by a concern for the interests of world peace. The Soviet socialist State has always been guided by this noble concern, in its foreign policy in general, and in its activities in the United Nations in particular. It will be remembered that at the first session of the General Assembly in New York, in 1946, the Soviet delegation proposed a general arms reduction and the prohibition of atomic energy production for war purposes. This proposal occupied prominent place in the work of the first session and was accepted in main by the first session.

A year later, at the second session, the Soviet delegation proposed the condemnation of the criminal propaganda for a new war, which had assumed —and still assumes—dangerous forms in a number of countries. Everybody still remembers the heated fight around this proposal. In the end, the session adopted the Soviet proposal as a basis

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Peace Record Proved, USSR Seeks New Disarmament Pact

By V. Stambulov

THE Soviet State was born 31 years ago. It was only a few hours old when its historic appeal to the belligerent nations to stop the bloodshed and conclude a just peace rang out through the world.

It was not by sheer chance that one of the first acts of the new State was the Decree on Peace. The Decree on Peace stemmed organically from the principles of the Great October Socialist Revolution. This Revolution was the greatest victory of democracy, and genuine democracy rejects armed force as a means of arbitrating international conflicts. The deep conviction that the peoples of the world can and must live in peace, and that wars merely bring incalculable privations and suffering, has from the very outset been the cornerstone of Soviet foreign policy.

Since the Revolution, the Soviet Government has consistently and without deviation exerted every effort to preserve and maintain world peace, mercilessly exposing before the peoples of the world every danger of new war. As early as 1927, the Soviet Government proposed general disarmament; the realization of this proposal would undoubtedly have become a most effective means of preventing the then approaching war. The Soviet Union has never ignored what Stalin graphically described as any "little mound" that could in any way hinder war and further the cause of peace. One of the first states to ratify the Briand-Kellogg Pact on the rejection of war as an instrument of national policy, the Soviet Government tried its utmost to make this purely nominal act—which was calculated to lull the vigilance of the peoples—as effective as possible. And although the Soviet Union harbored no illusions concerning the essence of the League of Nations, it joined the League in the hope of using the slight potentiality it held for preserving peace. Before the Second World War, the USSR did everything within its power to unite the peace-loving nations for the purpose of staying the aggressors' hands. And the USSR is not to blame for the fact that its efforts were frustrated by those who regarded war as a means for realizing their secret plans. Only after the conflagration of war was in full blaze did the farsightedness and correctness of the Soviet policy receive universal recognition. Even the enemies of the USSR dared no longer deny that the Soviet Union had pointed out the only correct way of saving peace.

Some people were inclined to interpret the peace-loving policy of the USSR as a sign of its "military weakness." This absurd invention was vividly disproved by experience. At present no one continues to doubt the invincible might of the USSR. But the USSR uses its might in support of the cause of peace—not for the purpose of destruction. Its policy is determined not by "fear of defeat," but by the democratic and humanitarian principles which lie at the basis of its ideology and make it an implacable enemy of wars, predatory adventures, and violations of the peaceful life of nations. It needs no conquests and lays no claim to foreign territories, or to domination over other peoples. It does not force its system upon anyone, and is firmly convinced of the possibility and necessity of co-operation among all the states interested in the preservation of peace.

The Second World War caused monstrous destruction and took a heavy toll of life. It doomed the peoples of the world to many years of severe privation, even after the war had ended. It is natural, therefore, that mankind does not wish any more wars, for wars threaten the very basis of civilization. The United Nations Charter begins with solemn assurances of the determination of the UN to save future generations from the calamities of war. These words express the will and hope of hundreds of millions. Unfortunately, however, forces hostile to peace are trying to reduce this international commitment and many others to scraps of paper.

Not much time has passed since the end of the war, yet certain powers have already initiated an armaments race on a scale unparalleled in history. Their war factories are working at full capacity. They have converted the world into a gigantic armaments market. New weapons for the wholesale destruction of human life are being feverishly produced and accumulated. Hundreds of powerful strategic bases are being built at places thousands of miles away from these countries. Foreign troops are stationed on the territories of member-states of the UN as if they were conquered countries. The expenditures on armaments in certain states have increased to many times the prewar expenditures. Allocations for schools, hospitals and housing construction are being slashed in these countries in order to finance the construction of army barracks. Billions are being spent on the restoration of the German war potential and the traditional arsenal of aggression—the Ruhr. Blocs directed against the USSR and the people's democracies are being feverishly knocked together, and frantic propaganda in favor of a new war is being conducted entirely unhindered. The reactionary gutter-press and the responsible representatives of governments alike are making bellicose sermons and blatantly advertising their plans for aggression. A war psychosis is being artificially induced. The sinister term "cold war" is being increasingly cultivated in the international vocabulary. "Small wars" continue in China, Greece, Indonesia, Viet-Nam and Palestine. All this causes justifiable anxiety to the Soviet people and all the other peace-loving peoples.

Consideration for the most vital interests of the peoples of the world prompts the USSR to counterpoise its policy of defending and reinforcing

the peace against the policy of the war incendiaries.

Regarding as its paramount task the elimination of all the material and spiritual factors that nurture the war danger, the USSR submitted to the UN its proposals for a general arms reduction and for ending criminal propaganda for new wars. There is hardly any need to prove the beneficial results that the rapid realization of these proposals would have, if they were carried out. The whole world would be relieved of the burden of military expenditures, and tremendous funds could be diverted to peaceful construction and to eliminating the ravages of the last war; the anxiety of the peoples of the world would be relieved and a favorable ground created for mutual understanding and confidence. But although the proposals made by the USSR were accepted by the UN General Assembly, unfortunately they are not being executed.

Working for the normalization of international relations, the USSR attaches special significance to the speediest conclusion of a peace treaty with Germany and the withdrawal of occupation forces from that country. It is not difficult to understand that this would not only create favorable conditions for the restoration of Germany, her democratization and fruitful participation in world economic life, but would also eliminate a serious source of friction and differences between the occupying powers, thus serving to strengthen the cause of peace. The same is true of the Soviet proposal concerning the conclusion of a Japanese peace treaty; and the withdrawal of the occupation troops from Korea and from the territories of all other member-states of UN.

The USSR constantly bears in mind the fact that unity among the great powers is the most essential guarantee of world peace and security—a fact unanimously recognized some time ago by the heads of governments of the great powers, and at the Yalta and San Francisco conferences in particular. The USSR therefore offers vigorous resistance to all efforts to split the world into two hostile camps, to cause a clash between them; and it resolutely defends the inviolability of the principle of unanimity of the great powers in the UN Security Council, for this principle is the basis of unity. At the same time the USSR has proved in practice that it leaves the door wide open for any negotiations that may assist in the establishment of general agreement and co-operation.

The bulwark of peace, the USSR stands on guard for democracy—for democracy alone is capable of securing to the world peoples a just and stable international order; it is the very factor that will block the way to new wars.

Meeting People's Request

Soviet Forces in North Korea Start Home This Month

Following is the statement of the Foreign Ministry of the USSR on the evacuation of Soviet troops from Korea as published September 19 by the Moscow press:

ON September 10 the Supreme National Assembly of Korea issued an appeal to the Governments of the USSR and the USA requesting the simultaneous withdrawal of Soviet and American troops from Korea. It declared that the formation of the Supreme National Assembly of Korea, and the creation by that Assembly of a united Korean Government composed of representatives of various political trends of North and South Korea, representing the overwhelming majority of the population of North and South Korea, was a guarantee that during and after the withdrawal of foreign troops complete law and order would be preserved all over Korea.

It is known that in the autumn of 1945, after routing the Japanese Kwantung Army, the Soviet troops liberated Korea from the Japanese occupationists, and in conformity with the agreement between the Allies, remained in Korea north of the 38th Parallel, while American troops remained on Korean territory south of the 38th Parallel.

Remaining in North Korean territory, the Soviet troops gave the North Korean population ample opportunity to create organs of democratic administration, and constantly rendered friendly assistance to Korea's national revival. The number of Soviet troops in North Korea was steadily reduced.

In September, 1947, the Soviet Government proposed to the United States Government that there should be simultaneous withdrawal of Soviet and American troops from Korea. It has subsequently confirmed on many occasions its readiness to withdraw Soviet troops from North Korea at once if the United States Government simultaneously withdrew the American troops from South Korea. The United States Government has not so far agreed to these proposals.

The request put forward by the Korean Supreme National Assembly for the simultaneous withdrawal of Soviet and American troops from Korea was referred by the Soviet Government to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, which examined the request of the Korean Supreme National Assembly and decided that it was time to evacuate the Soviet troops from North Korea. The Presidium expressed the hope that the United States Government will agree to withdrawal of the United States troops from South Korea, in accordance with the desire of the Supreme National Assembly of Korea.

In conformity with the decision passed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Council of Ministers of the USSR has decreed:

1. To withdraw to the territory of the USSR the Soviet troops remaining on the territory of North Korea.

2. To instruct the Ministry of the Armed Forces of the USSR to begin the evacuation of Soviet troops from North Korea not later than in the second half of October, 1948, and to complete it by January 1, 1949.

Curb on War Potential of Japan Urged By Ambassador Panyushkin

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, in his capacity as Soviet representative on the Far Eastern Commission, presented the following statement to the Commission on September 23, 1948.

STATEMENT OF THE SOVIET REPRESENTATIVE ON THE FAR EASTERN COMMISSION ON THE QUESTION OF THE LEVEL OF ECONOMIC LIFE IN JAPAN AND THE POLICY TOWARD JAPANESE INDUSTRY.

THE question of the level of industrial development for Japan is one of the most important questions requiring settlement. The determination of the level for the development of Japanese industry will predetermine the future economic development of Japan.

However, while considering this question it is necessary to understand clearly what industry is to be developed. Industry may work to meet the peaceful requirements of the country. But it is also known that industry may work for the purpose of military preparation, as was the case earlier in Japan.

Therefore, from the very beginning it is necessary to clarify this question and then to determine one's attitude toward one or another proposal concerning the level of the future industrial capacity of Japan. Besides, it should be remembered that Japan will have to satisfy legitimate claims for reparations on the part of those states which suffered from Japanese aggression.

The Soviet Government does not consider it reasonable to require limitations of the level of the development of Japan's peaceful industry for the future. Such a requirement could find no justification whatsoever. It would meet neither the interests of the Japanese people, nor the interests of other countries, and, first of all, of Asiatic countries which are in need of economic ties with Japan.

A high level of industrial development of Japan will not in itself be dangerous if Japan is not permitted to revive her war industry and militarism. Japanese industry in the past served as an economic basis for Japanese aggression, not because it had reached a comparatively high level of development, but because of the fact that its development had been subordinated to the needs of war.

Japanese militaristic circles, acting contrary to the vital interests of the Japanese people, directed the development of the country's industry as well as of the economy as a whole in such a way that it was adapted to meet the needs of the army and navy, i.e., it worked for the preparation of war.

Such a situation suited the interests of aggressive Japanese circles, which set themselves the purpose of enslaving other countries and peoples in alliance with Hitlerite Germany. However, it goes without saying that this should not be repeated, since militaristic Japan was defeated and there is an opportunity to direct the development of Japan along democratic and peace-loving lines. Now measures must be taken to prevent the revival of Japanese militarism and the conversion of Japan once again into a hotbed of war danger.

In order to ensure the settlement of this problem, the development of Japanese industry should have as its sole purpose the satisfaction of the peaceful needs of the Japanese people. If we proceed from this, the only correct basis, the unfoundedness of demands to limit the development of peaceful Japanese industry will become self-evident.

The development of peaceful Japanese industry to the level of 1930-1934 or to a higher level will contribute to the improvement of the physical well-being of Japan's population, which continues to suffer serious after-effects of the criminal and adventurous policy of the Japanese militarists.

Such a development of industry will broaden the possibilities of Japanese export, will contribute to the strengthening of Japan's economic independence and will lighten the dependence of Japan's national economy on external factors which are alien to her interests.

Besides this, the export of Japanese industrial goods would contribute to the satisfaction of appropriate needs, for example, of certain Asiatic countries, and would thus serve for Japan as a basis for the import of raw materials needed by her, and of other goods necessary to satisfy the peaceful needs of the Japanese people.

It follows from the above that the objective of the Allied Powers should be, not limitation of the development of Japan's peaceful industry, but prevention of the development in Japan of war industry, as well as prevention of the creation of conditions under which Japanese militarism and Japanese aggression can revive.

Naturally, the question arises to how this objective could possibly be attained. The Soviet Government considers that this objective can be attained if an appropriate control is established in Japan for a certain period in order to prevent the revival or creation of Japanese war industry. All peace-loving nations should be interested in the establishment of such a control.

Such a control, established for a period of several years and exercised by the powers most interested in preventing a new Japanese aggression, should be provided for in the Peace Treaty with Japan, the preparation and conclusion of which is long overdue.

In accordance with the position which I have stated, I propose on the instructions of the Soviet Government that the following decisions be adopted:

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RADIO'S MORNING MAN. At six sharp Moscow's radio centers go on the air. Yuri Levitan, popular announcer, says "Good Morning, Comrades . . ."

IZVESTIA ROLLS. Moscow's biggest papers, Izvestia and Pravda, have large circulations in other centers too.

Moscow Awakes

It's morning in Moscow! Dawn breaks to find the Soviet capital stirring with life in preparation for a new day. The newspapers are out, and a popular "get-up" commentator is on the air.

It's morning in Moscow! Kindergarteners and collegians start to classes under expert teachers and professors.

It's morning in Moscow! The streets are freshly sprinkled, the squares swept. Markets and industries join with government in waiting to serve the Soviet people in the nation's greatest metropolis.

TOTS RISE. Bedroom in the Thaelmann Factory boarding kindergarten.

SOFT DRINK CARTS. Girls push stands into squares and boulevards.

MORNING SHOPPERS. Housewives are up bright and early to get the day's food in one of the ration-free and well-stocked stores of the capital.

STUDENTS UP. Ivan Shapka and Alla Zhurina bone up for class at Moscow University.

SPRINKLERS OUT. Moscow uses hundreds. This one is in Red Square.

HISTORIAN WORKS. Eugene Tarle starts his day.

GOOD MORNING, SONNY. Olga Berezova waits to feed her first-born at Number Four Maternity Hospital, one of Moscow's series, which have 4,500 beds.

SOVIET SQUARE READY. Reconstructed building of the Moscow Soviet of Working People's Deputies is shown in the pre-rush hour period.

Soviet Workers Cut Costs Sharply, Speed Five-Year Plan

PLEDGES from 35 Moscow plants made in a letter to J. V. Stalin late in August in which they propose to increase their estimated profits for the year by 172 million rubles occupies an important place in recent economic news.

The plants intend to fulfill their pledge by cutting production costs in greater measure than called for under the provisions of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

In discussing the significance of this announcement, it must be recalled that at the beginning of the year many industrial enterprises were still falling short of the Plan in regard to reducing production costs. This was mainly because of the inevitable expense entailed by postwar reconversion. Moreover, a considerable number of plants launched new lines of output last year: new types of machines, materials and consumer goods—this also caused extra expenditures.

The current year in Soviet industry, which is marked by a rapid expansion of output, is also a turning point in regard to the profits enterprises are making. Early in the year, hundreds of plants announced that they could operate without state subsidies. In the course of the work to fulfill the plan, new ways of cutting production costs were discovered. In this connection, the monetary reform made itself felt; it imparted to the Soviet ruble its full value. The monetary reform was a material stimulus to higher productivity of labor, and that inevitably brought down production costs.

The pledge of the 35 Moscow plants is a clear-cut reflection of the potentialities of the Soviet economy. No plans —not even the most ambitious—can fully take into account the tremendous potentiality for economic expansion contained in the socialist system of economy.

The 35 plants are only a small fraction of the thousands of enterprises in the capital. It has been estimated that Moscow industry as a whole can yield a full 2,000,000,000 rubles of additional income to the State before the end of 1948, by reducing production costs in greater measure than called for by the Five-Year Plan.

How do the Muscovites expect to effect this colossal saving? The answer is important, for it reveals the sources of socialist profits.

In the capitalist countries the profits of a plant can be increased only by increasing the exploitation of the workers, just as the revenues of capitalist states can be raised only by squeezing more taxes out of the people.

In the Soviet Union, increased profits and state income come from an entirely different source. The Soviet budget derives its increasing revenues from the growth of profits of state enterprises. State enterprises in turn increase their profits by cutting the price of output through the introduction of more efficient machinery, greater efficiency of labor, and by more efficient organization of the productive process.

In their letter to Stalin, the Muscovites point out that the principal source of their greater profits is the increase in the productivity of labor, through mechanizing processes with a high rate of labor consumption, introducing improved production-line methods and making better use of the plant.

Take the Kauchuk Plant for ex-

LEADING WORKER. V. Mikhailov, a famous Moscow steel smelter, by his labor-saving methods produces five tons above quota daily.

ample. The personnel of this works have submitted more than two hundred valuable rationalization proposals making for a reduction in production costs. Two employees discovered a new method of making rubber mixtures; this method is yielding 350 thousand rubles in savings per year. Another proposal entailing the acceleration of dyeing processes is yielding a savings of 200 thousand rubles per year.

Besides the more sweeping proposals, the Stakhanovites and worker-rationalizers have made a great number of minor suggestions, which, taken together, effect a sizable savings.

This plant is an example of how the Soviet people are reducing production costs and increasing the profits of their socialist enterprises.

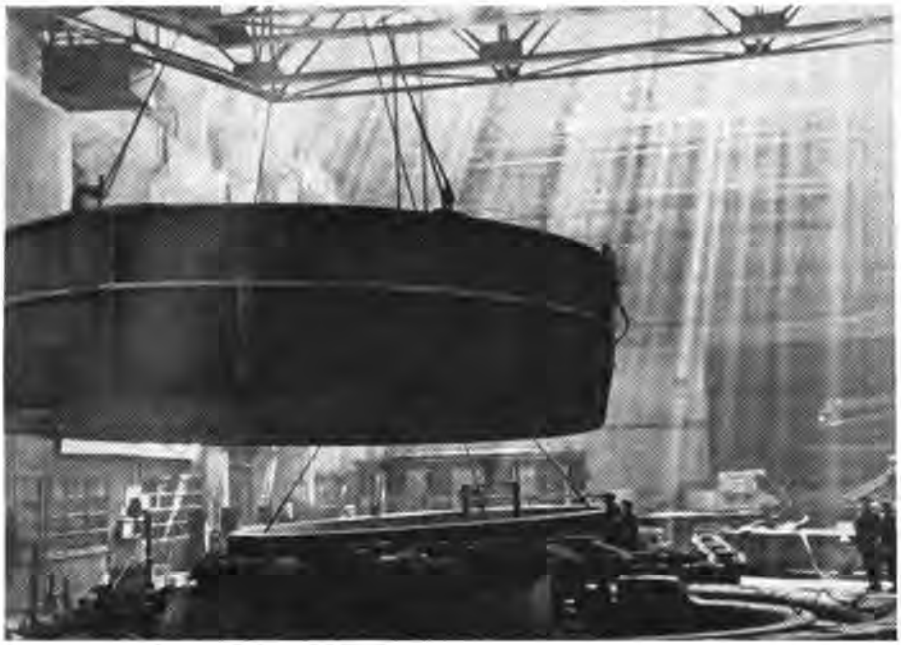
It goes without saying, of course, that profits of this kind are possible only under socialism, where every worker is vitally interested in the success of his enterprise, where every worker considers himself its co-owner. And what is within the power of an entire personnel working as a closely-knit team is beyond the reach of the most efficient and capable capitalist manager.

The tremendous scale of this economy movement among Soviet workers is evidence of the great superiority of the socialist system.

Just two days after the letter of the 35 Moscow plants was made public, it was reported that workers in Gorky plants have begun reviewing their plans and estimates. Workers' meetings have been held to discuss the issue, and the collection of rationalization proposals has begun. There is no doubt that the 2,000,000,000 rubles of above-plan accumulations which Moscow industries will yield will be augmented by billions of rubles of savings in Leningrad, the Urals, the Donbas, Siberia and other industrial areas. This revenue, unforeseen when the budget for the year was compiled, will enable the Soviet Government to increase the appropriations for rehabilitation work in the war-wrecked areas; the Government will be enabled to expand the construction of new plants and increase the allocations for the satisfaction of the cultural and other day-to-day needs of the people. And this revenue will permit the drastic reduction of the prices of consumer goods.

SILK SPINNER. M. Maslenkina, leader of a crew of Stakhanovite spinners, also an outstanding innovator.

MACHINE BUILDING. Moscow workers are skilled machine-makers. Motors for the coal and oil industry made at the Ilyich Plant.



LENINGRAD FACTORY. Hydroturbine shop of the Stalin Plant. Leningrad makes much major electrical equipment.

Leningrad Launches Bold Power Plan

By M. Levin

REBUILT Leningrad, which in only 36 months has re-established its industrial pre-eminence in the Soviet Union, has begun work on a bold project to supply its own metal, power and fuel from nearby areas.

This great prospect is envisaged in the current Five-Year Plan and will soon enable Leningrad to cease its dependence upon raw materials and fuel from other districts.

The northwestern section of the Soviet Union, where Leningrad is located, has long been known as a region of forests, lakes and marshes. There was some planned peat extraction before the Revolution, but the area had not been thoroughly studied, and there was no geological map of it.

Since the institution of Soviet power, the picture has completely changed. Large mineral deposits have been found in the northwestern economic area, which have almost everything needed for setting up a fuel, power, iron and steel center in Leningrad.

Large deposits of lignites were found in the Novgorod, Velikiye-Luki, Kalinin and Smolensk Regions, and mining has been started at a number of points. Combustible shale has been discovered in a large area between the Gulf of Finland and Lake Peipus. The Leningrad Region itself is rich in peat. All of this is sufficient to meet fully the fuel needs of Leningrad's industry.

Geologists studying the region have also bared rich deposits of magnetic iron ore as well as lime, fireproof clay and molding sands. Coking coals are being mined in the Pechora coal fields, which have been developed in Soviet times. A railroad line built during the war connects Leningrad with the Pechora Basin.

The projected development will transform the whole vast area. New factories and mills, towns and workers' settlements will rise, new mines and power stations, rail lines and highways will be built. By the end of the current Five-Year Plan, in 1950, the output of peat will be doubled. The mining of shale, part of which will be processed into gas and liquid fuel, is mounting rapidly. The first section of a new gas works, to be commissioned this year, will supply Leningrad with 133 million cubic meters* of gas annually, or one and one-half times the amount the city now consumes.

Leningrad is surpassed as an industrial center only by Moscow. Its first-class engineering works are famed for their intricate and high-precision machines, machine tools and electrical equipment.

The city played a great part in the industrialization of the Soviet Union and with its first-class equipment and highly skilled workmen, engineers and industrial executives, is in the van of technical progress in the USSR.

In August, 1941 the German fascist troops drew near to the city by the Neva, which held out for 28 months and inflicted upon the Nazis a loss of six hundred thousand men in dead, wounded and prisoners. The total damage to the city from constant bombing and shelling is estimated at 2,628,000,000 rubles.

The extent of Leningrad's "comeback" can be estimated with a few figures. The Leningraders themselves were the first to call upon the country to complete the postwar Five-Year Plan in four years, and a countrywide response resulted. The city's people set an example to others: they fulfilled the program for 1946 by 109.3 per cent and the program for 1947 by 124.7 per cent. (The increase in output in 1947 as compared with 1946 was 55.3 per cent.) And the program for the second quarter of 1948 was fulfilled by 109.5 per cent.

Inspired by the concern of the Soviet Government and the Communist Party for the further industrial development of their city, and encouraged by their own progress in postwar recovery, the working people of Leningrad are energetically tackling the new development. The huge natural resources of the area will be tapped with the active participation of the Leningraders themselves.

Leningrad's biggest industrial districts are taking a vital interest in the production of the new coal areas being opened near the city, and are helping the miners to boost their out-

* One cubic meter=35.314 cubic feet

put of coal. The industries of Leningrad will contribute a wide variety of machinery and equipment for the city's new factories and mills. Leningrad industry is already preparing to handle these orders. The Molotov Plant, which will supply steel cables and other materials, is installing its equipment. Mass production of special machinery for extracting peat (each machine replaces one hundred workers), has begun at one factory. The Stalin plant which is the main source of hydro turbines, is producing four powerful such machines this year for northern electric stations.

Leningrad's youth has heartily responded to the call of the local Communist Party organization to take an active part in the construction of the fuel-and-metal center in the Soviet northwest. Thousands of young men and women have volunteered for work at construction sites. The first two groups are on the scene and an additional 1,500 young men and women are to leave shortly.

The Soviet people, a people of builders, are remarkable for their ability to carry through such vast projects with unprecedented swiftness.

This plan underscores the drive to peace and plenty that has been and remains so characteristic of the Soviet people.

LINOTYPES. Many kinds of small, complex machines are made at Leningrad.

Mechanization of Industry Pushed by USSR

By A. Zvorykin

Doctor of Technical Sciences

Mechanization of heavy labor branches of Soviet industry is among the most important measures envisaged by the postwar Five-Year Plan. It calls for the extension of mechanization in the iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, coal, peat, building and lumber industries, in agriculture and transport.

This mechanization in the USSR offers a striking contrast in principle between socialist economy and technique and that of other countries.

In the USSR the task of lightening the labor of man is in the forefront. The goal is to replace physical labor with machines to the maximum extent, and at the same time raise the productivity of labor in order to increase the material well-being of the people.

The goal of the Soviet Union during the current Five Year Plan is not only to mechanize the kinds of work which in certain sectors are still being done manually, but also to increase the level of mechanization in all branches of the national economy, including those that have already attained a high level of mechanization.

During the period of the Stalin Five Year Plans, Soviet coal and ore mines have changed beyond recognition. Powerful mechanized collieries have replaced the "mousetraps" they were previously. Electric-powered hoists, powerful ventilators, compressors, mechanized cutting, drilling and transport of coal from the face to the points where it is loaded onto mine cars hauled by electricity are now characteristic of Soviet mining enterprises, which rate among the first in the world for their level of technique.

The peat industry, too, has undergone profound changes during the period of the Stalin Five Year Plans. A group of Soviet engineers has devised a special drainage unit for peat bogs.

Mechanization of building work is continuing in the current postwar Five-Year Plan period. In line with the current plan, excavation work on construction sites is to be mechanized as much as 60 per cent, rock crushing and mortar-making 90 per cent, making of concrete 95 per cent and pouring of concrete 60 per cent. The Soviet building worker today, armed with the latest achievements of the Soviet building industry, is a far cry from his pre-revolutionary counterpart, whose chief tools were the pick and shovel.

Much attention is also paid in the USSR today to the mechanization of the lumber industry. The felling and hauling of lumber is to be placed on a highly mechanized footing under the current Five Year Plan. More than 10 thousand electric saws were provided the Soviet lumber industry in 1947 as a part of the plan.

Great importance is attached to the mechanization of agriculture, which in the USSR is the largest and most mechanized in the world. In 1940, for example, fallow plowing on the country's collective farms was mechanized to the extent of 83 per cent; autumn plowing 71 per cent; sowing of spring and winter crops 53 per cent and harvesting of grain 43 per cent.

The current Five Year Plan envisages the production of special-duty tractors, tractors for truck farming, etc. Tractor-drawn machinery and implements are to be replaced on a large scale by equipment that will be demountable parts of the tractor. The production of self-propelled combines has been started in the USSR.

Work is now under way to design and introduce mechanical cotton pickers, potato diggers and other such machines. One new machine is a flax harvester combine which increases harvest productivity five times over hand work.

Mechanization in the USSR is raising the national economy to a higher technical level and at the same time liberating hundreds of thousands from laborious manual operations. This policy is the logical outgrowth of the social nature of the Soviet socialist state as a state of the working people.

Lysenko's Successes Detailed

By Vadim Safonov and Alexei Rusetsky

Trofim Lysenko, Soviet biologist, was officially honored September 30 on his 50th birthday anniversary by being awarded the Order of Lenin and having an institute at Odessa named after him.

THE place was the All-Union Genetics Congress in Leningrad. The time was January, 1929. The meeting proceeded at a quiet, almost somnolent pace—until a young farm expert from the provinces took the floor.

The stranger spoke with a marked Ukrainian accent and his language lacked the professorial polish to which the conference was accustomed. This young provincial did not mention Morgan, Mendel or Goldschmidt, or any of the other leading lights of formal genetics who were the idols of this assemblage.

Yet he had amazing things to tell. He spoke of things which had escaped all the world's geneticists, things which dealt with the vital processes of plant development. Everybody knew that there were two kinds of wheat—spring and winter wheat. Winter wheat was the kind that produced shoots in the autumn and developed ears only in the following year. Now, however, the newcomer claimed that it was possible, by subjecting the seed of such a wheat to low temperatures before planting (and before the germ had sprouted) to plant it in the spring and harvest the yield the very same year.

Many in the assembly listened to the speaker with polite, skeptical smiles. These provincial experiments . . . But what persistence the researcher has! Just imagine planting a whole collection of varieties every 10 days for nearly two years and filling volumes with the records of these innumerable plantings.

One of the members of the gathering turned to his neighbor.

"Who is he, anyway?"

"Some agronomist from Ganja, Azerbaijan, you know. His name is Lysenko."

"Lysenko? Never heard of him."

And in the six volumes of the business of the 1929 Congress, the paper read by Trofim Lysenko, the youthful agronomist, from Ganja, occupied five pages.

LYSENKO. The agronomist examines potato samples.

A few years passed and strange agricultural news began to appear in the press. The public learned that it was in the power of man to make winter varieties behave like spring varieties, and to add new properties to the latter. Moreover, the reason for the mysterious degeneration of potatoes in hot and arid climates was revealed. There was the startling news of a new variety of wheat which had been developed in two and one-half years, and whose properties had been forecast with precision as great as that with which astronomers predict the eclipses of the sun.

The newspapers carried reports of how old and debilitated varieties of grains, which the selectionists of the whole world had given up as hopeless, because of their poor heredity, had been rejuvenated. Cotton the equal of the superior Central Asian varieties began to grow in the Ukraine. Articles dealing with the remaking of nature began to discuss the growing of wheat beyond the Arctic Circle. And in each of these dispatches and articles, Lysenko's name was mentioned.

Man had acquired a new, tremendous, and ever-growing power over all other living organisms. And every new stride made in this direction ran counter to the very foundation of formal genetics.

When Lysenko was appointed to the selection station in Ganja in 1925, he was 27 years old. Those 27 years had contained nothing unusual.

He was born on September 29, 1898, in the Ukrainian village of Karlovka, into the family of the peasant Denis Lysenko. He studied at the Poltava Horticultural School, took a two-year course in selection at Kiev, and was graduated from the Kiev Agricultural Institute. Thus far Trofim Lysenko did not differ from a great number of other Soviet farm experts, except perhaps in his keener hunger for knowledge and his more stubborn determination to follow his chosen path. There was one more trait that was typical of him: he valued knowledge because it could be transmuted into deeds. He may not have been aware of the fact that this trait was also Michurin's.

In a hot, arid region, the young agronomist was entrusted with the growing of the finest varieties of legumes. Legumes had been nature's stepchild here; there was not enough water for them during the summer, because the cotton drank all the moisture. The first idea which occurred to the young selectionist was bold and original. Why not leave the summer to the cotton? Let it use all the moisture there was in the hot, dry season, and allow the legumes to take over the fields in the fall and in the moist and comparatively warm southern winter. Would the legumes adapt themselves to the new regime? That was the question to be answered.

Success awaited Lysenko. Most of his winter-planted legumes survived. There was one detail in the experiment, however, which a researcher less

penetrating, less flexible and less receptive to the diverse whisperings of nature might have overlooked. A variety of pea which usually matured later, matured earlier than any of the other varieties under winter conditions. The cold spell it had gone through had changed its properties.

At this time Lysenko began to plant various farm crops—rye, wheat, and barley among them—every 10 days throughout the fall, winter, spring and summer during the course of nearly two years. The results were entirely unexpected. All of them—the wheat and the rye and the barley—at one time stubbornly refused to "head out," at another time produced heavy ears of grain regardless of the fact that they had been planted in the spring. Winter varieties turned into spring varieties and vice versa. Heredity did not prove as unshakable as it had been believed to be—*heredity did not dictate the life of the plant!*

Why had no one discovered these astounding facts before? It was because scientists in the past had tackled the study of plant life guided by false, preconceived theories, and had relied too much on the infallibility of these theories. It was clear to Lysenko that all the "caprices" and "deviations" which the formal geneticists disregarded because they were not interested in the individual life of the plant organism, were all manifestations of a new law of which science had been ignorant.

Evidently many plants had to pass through some definite phase, some definite stage of development, early in life. The first stage in the development of a plant Lysenko called the "temperature" stage; it was later termed the stage of vernalization.

In brief, the substance of the law Lysenko discovered is this: the growth of a plant, and its development, are two different things. A plant may grow without developing; in other words, its development may be arrested in "infancy" or in the age of "adolescence." When this happens, it will only bear green leaves, but neither blossoms nor fruit. On the other hand, a plant may not grow; it may remain a mere frail shoot, and nevertheless be an adult capable of blossoming and producing offspring.

Previously it had been believed that winter wheat, which is sown in the autumn, was merely a more hardy, cold-resisting variety of wheat capable of withstanding the rigors of winter. Yet something entirely different proved to be in question. The development of the winter wheat plant begins with the vernalization stage, during which it requires a low temperature; only after this stage will its development proceed normally to maturity. And Lysenko advised: subject the shoots of winter wheat to treatment with cold—not in the open field, but in the granaries, when these shoots just begin to break forth from the grain; then you can safely plant this seed in the spring. It will "head out" normally and produce a harvest the same year. If you were to plant the very same wheat without vernalization it would not produce ears and the green, underdeveloped plants would perish under the snow without having fulfilled their mission.

Moreover, vernalization remakes even the ordinary spring wheat, which does not have to pass through the low-temperature stage in order to mature normally. If you treat the incipient shoots of spring wheat with cold, they will mature earlier and yield a bigger harvest: on the average one hundred kilograms* per hectare** more than the ordinary harvest. It was estimated

* One kilogram = 2.204 pounds.
** One hectare = 2.471 acres.

EXPERIMENTAL WHEAT. Vast fields in all parts of the USSR test experiments. Karim Mymbayev, Chairman of the Presidium of the Kazakh branch of the All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences, with colleagues in the fields.

shortly before the war that in the course of a single summer the additional harvest obtained as a result of vernalization in the USSR amounted to one million metric tons***—one thousand railway trains laden with grain!

Is not the transformation of a scientist's observation into a million tons of grain per year the most tangible of all possible testimonials to the magnitude of the discovery?

The secret of the failure of cotton to thrive in the Ukraine also was uncovered. This plant requires practically tropical heat—20 to 30 degrees centigrade (or about 68 to 86 degrees Fahrenheit)—in order to pass the vernalization stage. Afterwards, the cotton plant is less demanding and the normal temperature of the Ukrainian summer is quite adequate. The reason that cotton did not thrive in the Ukraine was not because it is too cold there in general, but because it did not get the heat it needed during the brief but crucial period in the spring.

Was not this discovery enough to inspire anyone?

Yet, when Lysenko told the Genetics Congress in 1929 about the new opportunities which had been opened for guiding the development of plants, the scientific die-hards sat there unmoved and hostile. Subsequently, too, Lysenko had to fight many bitter battles with the conservatives of science. In these battles it was he who held the initiative, and the times were his ally. For all this took place in the Soviet Union where the Soviet Government and the Communist Party do not allow a single seed of genuine progressive science, which seeks to serve the people, to fall on sterile ground.

The year of the great transition, 1929, came. The sweeping constructive efforts of the First Stalin Five-Year Plan had transformed the country. All the prerequisites were created for the change-over from the tilling of small individual plots to collective farming — socialist agriculture. The country needed grain. The collective farmers plunged into their work, determined to secure yields exceeding the highest achievements of the old agriculture. The collective farms turned to agricultural science for assistance and the new knowledge discovered by Lysenko was utilized.

Vernalization became the watchword. But many recognized authorities took notice of the discovery only after millions of collective farmers had already made use of it in practice.

In many countries, the silence of the savants would have been the death sentence of this great discovery. For the voice of the people would not have made itself heard. Nor would there have been any organized social force to put the discovery firmly on its feet and to develop it further.

As a matter of fact, under petty private farming, the new find would not have been essential. Vernalization would have remained merely another method, to be forgotten along with all the other untested and untried methods proposed by innumerable horticulturists and innovators. It would have been classified as another crank idea unworthy of the attention of serious men of science.

"I am often asked who my parents were," Lysenko said in one of his speeches as a candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. "I usually reply: peasants, members of a collective farm since 1929. Yet to all intents and purposes, I have other parents too: the Communist Party, the Soviet Government and the collective farms. It is they that brought me up and made a man of me."

On another occasion, Lysenko said: "What is vernalization? There would be no vernalization if there were no collective farms and state farms. And if there were no Soviet power, I, too, probably would not be engaged in scientific work."

Lysenko considers his experiments successful only if they pass the test on millions of hectares of collective farm fields. This is how he judged vernalization.

Scientific controversies are not private quarrels in the Soviet Union. There are no separate "pure" and "applied" sciences, but only science and its application. To Lysenko, a new discovery is only a weapon to be used in practice—hence its value. A discovery must lead to scores of others —hence its progressive nature.

The discovery of the law of development of plants by stages immediately produced results in dozens of diverse fields of agricultural science. One of these results was the vernalization of grain seed. Another was the new lease on life given the potato in the south.

This "immigrant" from the southern Chilean Andes proved to be stubborn and capricious. It simply did not want to settle in the warm southern steppe. Tubers planted there produced offspring smaller than the parents the first year. The second year each potato plant yielded no more than a half-pound—sometimes only half of that —of shriveled peanut-like potatoes. The problem was not only the Ukraine's. Researchers in France, Italy, and America sought in vain the ex-

*** One metric ton = 2204 pounds.

CONFERENCE. Lysenko (center) with fellow-scientists at the recent session of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Sciences.

planation for this unfathomable degeneration of the potato in fertile soil under the lavish southern sun.

Trains had to be diverted from carrying coal, machinery and manufactured goods in order to ship seed potatoes to the south. The tens of thousands of tons of splendid starch-packed tubers which were shipped down annually from the north were all doomed to turn into degenerated, debilitated dwarfs.

What lethal quality did the soil of the steppes possess? What was the mysterious disease which sapped the strength of the select potatoes provided by more northern latitudes?

Lysenko found the answer.

Lysenko showed that the body of a plant was subdivided into parts, each of which was at a different stage of life. For instance, the crown is older than the base of the stem; the crown, in a word, is the most mature part of the plant. Michurin himself was aware of this long before and made use of the fact in practice. The secret of the degeneration of the potato consisted in the fact that the buds or "eyes" aged quickly under the action of summer heat at a time when they were no more than the latent embryo of the future plant. They were too feeble from very infancy to produce anything but feeble offspring.

Lysenko advised the farmers to plant their potatoes, not in the spring, but at the very height of the hot summer season. At first the idea seemed paradoxical: now we have learned to take it for granted. Potatoes planted in the summer produce tubers only in the autumn, when the temperature is lower, and in escaping at this stage of its life the heat of July and August, the embryo of the next generation escapes premature old age.

Today potatoes planted at southern latitudes all over the world are capable of producing yields no smaller than those grown in the north.

Trofim Lysenko, a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR since 1939, twice honored with the Stalin Prize, was awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor on June 10, 1945, by the Soviet Government "for outstanding services in the advancement of agricultural science and in increasing the yields of agricultural crops, especially potatoes and millet."

Collective Farm Pays Best, Soviet Peasants Find

By Sergei Danilin
Soviet Journalist

THE Soviet collective farm is a many-sided enterprise with each of its members a full-fledged owner of all its riches.

For example, let us take the Twelve-Years-of-October Collective Farm in the Minusin District of Krasnoyarsk Territory in Siberia. It unites 210 peasant households; and wheat, millet, oats and other cereals grow on an area of 1320 hectares* of its land. It has a fine 36-hectare orchard, a large herd of livestock, and various auxiliary enterprises: a flour mill, an oil press, a blacksmith's shop, a locksmith's shop, a woodworking shop, a tailor, a shoe-repair shop and an electric power station.

Members of this farm have built a schoolhouse, a club, a radio relay network, two stores and a fire station from their common proceeds.

In addition to the joint interest in the collective farm, each member also has his own private property—a house, truck garden and orchard (usually about one-fourth of a hectare in size), a cow, sheep, several goats and poultry.

In the collective farm, the common interests of the co-operative, and the individual interests of its members are well co-ordinated. The collective farmers receive the greatest part of their income from their commonly-owned and commonly-worked farm. The more intensively the collective farm's production, the better the material conditions of its members, and the more agricultural products the country receives. A few years ago some people in the collective farm figured on obtaining a large income from their own little plots, and preferred to devote their attention, first of all, to these. But they soon found that this was not profitable. In the fall, such collective farmers invariably "came out losers." Those who worked well on the collective fields earned far more in produce and in cash from their labor.

An excellent example of this is seen in the case of a peasant woman named Golovlyova who had joined the collective farm in the hope of making ends meet. The farm helped her build a house, acquire a cow and poultry. After having received all this, Golovlyova thought she might get along by devoting herself solely to her own private farmstead, and consequently she seldom came out to work in the collective fields.

Then autumn came. The collective farm divided its income among its members. Golovlyova's neighbor, Elena Ivanova who had worked conscientiously on the collective fields, received—from the collective farm—three metric tons* in grain alone (10 kilograms per workday** for three hundred workdays), as her share for the labor she had contributed. Golovlyova, on the other hand, received only two hundred kilograms of grain. Having figured up the income she received from her private plot, Golovlyova saw that it constituted only one-fifth of what her neighbor had earned.

Thus by practical experience the collective farmers became convinced of the tremendous advantages of collective farming. They spend part of their time on the care of their private plots, but only in order to have more of such products as milk, eggs, fruit and vegetables for the table. But the collective farm is the basic source of income for its members.

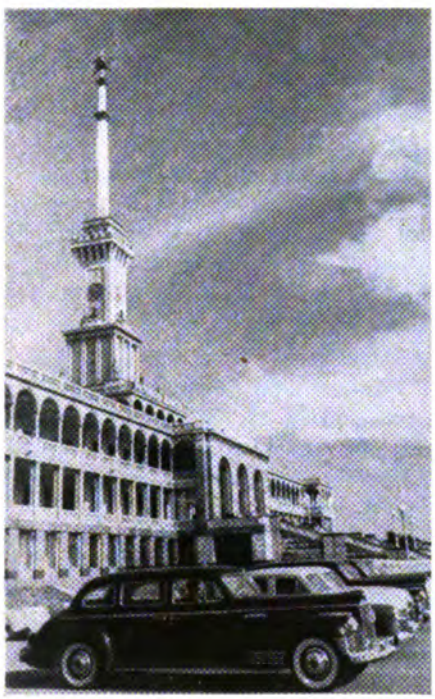
The average 1947 income received by the individual collective farmers from their private plots amounted to 1,500 rubles, while the share in the proceeds of the collective farm ranged from 20 thousand to 32 thousand rubles, depending on the amount and quality of the work performed.

*One hectare = 2.471 acres.

*One metric ton = 2204 pounds; one kilogram = 2.204 pounds.

**The measure of work on collective farms. The workday is computed on the basis of quality and quantity of work.

Soviet News in Pictures



CANAL STATION. Khimki station, Moscow.

MELONS. Olga Yurina's new variety resists frost.

GIRL FARMER. Serafima Prusakova helped raise the great 1948 crops.

STALIN DISTRICT. This suburban
construction is now under way. Ph
wo

RADIO EXPERT. In a Minsk radio factory Nina Yasatskaya fulfills at least twice her daily quota as an adjuster. She is honored as a leading worker.

ARMENIAN EDITOR. Patrik Selyan, a repatriate, formerly edited the "Liberer," New York Armenian paper. He is now in Erevan as an editor.

CRACK WORKER. Denis Bulakhov, one of th
best bricklayers in Minsk, a Stakhanovit
is shown at work on a department stor
Minsk is rapidly being restored.

Moscow was once a slum. New
workers' settlement of the Stalin
i.

CHILDREN'S RAILROAD. Youngsters man these model lines as an after-school hobby. Here 6th grader Nina Rudik plays station-master.

AM LEADER. Mikhrinis Ubaidallayeva, a
puty of the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek
viet Socialist Republic, who won the title
Hero of Socialist Labor.

VOLGA STATION. Running more than four miles along the river, this line is in Yaroslavl. Photo shows train leaving Pobeda (Victory) station.

GIRL SWITCHMAN. Children are conductors, firemen and engineers of the Yaroslavl line. Here is Valya Lisova, a 5th grade pupil, on her "job."

War Orphans Smile Again

Homeless Waifs Unknown in USSR

MANYA Bekisheva is a happy little girl, full of laughter and ideas for new things to do.

But when she first came to live in a war orphans' home near Moscow three years ago, she was like a tragic little old woman—silent and unsmiling. Her teachers knew why, of course.

And after a while, of her own volition, Manya told them how the Germans had taken her with her mother and father to Auschwitz, the notorious concentration camp, how there her mother had died as a result of cruel treatment and her father had been burned to death.

"Nothing frightened me after that," Manya told her teachers. "Nothing could be so terrible. I used to think of it when they whipped me or made me spend the whole night on my knees as punishment."

Many of the parentless children who live and play happily with Manya —and who are being given the finest care the Soviet people can offer them —were forced by Germans to work at a textile mill in Konstantynow; some were only six or seven at the time. There they lived in an abandoned factory; every day, winter and summer they rose at 5:30 A. M. to work for 12 hours. For the slightest "offense" they were whipped or otherwise punished.

Millions of other Soviet children—like Manya and her little friends—were orphaned during the Second World War. For the Germans butchered more than seven million Soviet soldiers and civilians in battle, in slave camps, and as "hostages"—and a great number of these heroic dead were parents.

In some countries that suffered—although not nearly as severely—from the fascist holocaust, many of the children whose parents perished during the war are now homeless vagabonds living on the edge of starvation; a relative few have averted that fate through the charity of foreign "aid" organizations .

There is no "charity" in the land of socialism, and homeless children are unknown. For care for the children of those men and women who gave their lives for their country is regarded in the Soviet Union as a paramount responsibility of the State and of Soviet society.

And from the very first days of the war, the Soviet Government took steps to care for its orphans. Even during the war, when every man-hour was precious, homes for newly orphaned children were built in areas unmenaced by the Germans. And as the Nazis were driven from Soviet territory, every effort was exerted to care for orphaned children in the liberated areas. This was not an easy task. In the formerly occupied territory of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, for instance, 90 per cent of the children's homes had been completely demolished by the Nazis. The same was true of the Soviet Ukraine, whose sufferings under the Nazis are known to the entire world. Nevertheless, the task was accomplished. During the last three years of the war, more than 1,300,000 of these youngsters were placed in children's homes where, until they come of age, they will receive complete care, education, and maintenance at the expense of the State. During the war, 2,240 homes for war orphans were established in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic alone. Now, in the RSFSR, there are 3,500 children's homes, while on the eve of the war, in June, 1941, there were only 1,661. In the Ukraine, 574 children's homes have been restored or rebuilt anew, 78 of which are specifically for the care of children under the age of four, and 12 for the care and education of crippled war orphans. The Soviet Government spent nearly 2,000,000,000 rubles on children's homes in 1946, and 2,500,000,000 rubles in 1947. In addition, 400 thousand children in the Ukraine and the RSFSR have been adopted by Soviet families; the Soviet Government gives financial aid to these families, and supervises the upbringing of the children.

These children's homes are operated by the ministries of education of the various constituent republics of the USSR. They are conducted on a strictly scientific basis. Each repub-

ESTONIA. A children's home near Tallinn. Thousands of children of Soviet Estonia are war orphans.

lican ministry of education has a central methodological department which directs the overall work of the children's homes. The work of the homes is immediately supervised by special sections of the regional and territorial educational departments and by the inspectors of city educational departments, as well as by the city, village and district Soviets of Working People's Deputies, which are responsible for the quality of their educational work. The closest attention is devoted to the selection and training of the directors and the other personnel who staff the homes; these men and women are chosen not only on the basis of capability, but also because their humane characters and warm personalities especially fit them for this work of rearing these young victims of fascism.

Housed in the finest buildings available—in mansions, or in buildings especially built for the purpose—the homes have laboratory facilities, workshops, and auxiliary farms which supply them with green vegetables, fruit, milk, and butter. They are bright, airy and sunny; pictures which children love adorn the walls; the bedrooms are large and spacious; there is a dining room, classrooms, and playrooms; toys, large and small, are everywhere, and the sound of children's merry laughter echoing through the halls attests to the fact that everything is done to create the atmosphere of a real home where the children may live the kind of life they will remember with pleasure and gratitude when they have grown to adulthood.

The youngsters indulge in sports, take an active part in singing, drawing, dancing and other hobby groups which function at the homes. Special programs are drawn up for those children who lost years of school because of the war. The more talented children are given every opportunity to develop their abilities: they study under the guidance of prominent specialists. Children's films and plays are shown regularly, and the orphans stage their own plays and concerts with the aid of actors and producers of children's theaters. Moreover, special homes have been opened for children who show promise in the sphere of music, choreography, pictorial and plastic arts, literature, and other fields.

Councils of guardians, or "big broth-

MOSCOW. War orphans, the children of scientists. Their home is sponsored by the staff of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

TAJIK REPUBLIC. The mountains of Tajikistan were far from the battlefields, but many of their citizens perished fighting the Nazis. An orphans' home at Stalinabad.

Orphans' Homes

The children whose faces you see on these pages are the sons and daughters of men and women whose parents were murdered by the Germans.

They are war orphans.

They—and millions of other Soviet war orphans—are one of the most tragic of the harvests of Nazi barbarism in the Soviet Union: these children whose parents were slaughtered by the Germans—as "hostages," in concentration camps, in battle. For in this way, seven million Soviet citizens, many of them parents, were savagely put to death.

From the very first days of the war, the Soviet Government and the Soviet people took steps to care for these helpless victims of fascism. Hundreds of thousands of them have been adopted by Soviet families. Hundreds of thousands more were cared for in orphan's homes, which were built even as the Soviet people were expending every ounce of energy to supply their men and women at the front with arms. For the Soviet people knew that the care of the children whose parents were giving their lives for their country was of the highest importance.

And as the fires of war receded from Soviet territory, thousands of additional homes were built for these tragic little victims of fascism—homes where they might grow to maturity happily, homes which would try to take the place of their parents, that would attempt to wipe the bitter memories from their minds, and restore to them the happiness that is the legacy of childhood.

In these homes—which are housed in the finest buildings available—these war orphans receive the best care the Soviet people can give them.

On these pages is depicted the life in two such homes. One is a home for children of preschool age—both boys and girls. The other home is a school for girls ranging in age from about eight to sixteen.

THE DANCE. Members of an elder girls' home learn a new step. The war orphans are encouraged to develop native talent, and many homes have been especially opened for those who show promise in music, literature, art, choreography, etc.

X-RAY TREATMENT. Little Valia Levina knows that if she strictly follows the doctor's order, her cold will go away.

THE FIRST LESSON. Lilia Riazakuieva listens to the instructions, hoping one day to be able to play well.

"GEE, IT'S GOOD!" Tolia loves watermelon.

MAKING THEIR BEDS. Every morning when they get up, the children neatly make up their beds. Then, after washing up, it's downstairs to a hot breakfast.

EXAMINATIONS. The kids are regularly given a thorough physical examination by Dr. Polina Tukachir, whom they love for her kindness.

"I CAN HARDLY WAIT." After a nice walk in the fresh air, the children sit down for their afternoon meal.

AND SO TO BED. The day has been crammed full with toys and games and good things to eat and now the children go to sleep, dreaming of tomorrow's fun.

PATRON BRINGS TOYS. A "big sister," representing the Bolshevik Candy Factory, has brought dolls and games.

ers," are invariably attached to each home, in order to help attend to the children's needs. These councils usually consist of representatives of various public organizations, and they assist the children's home both materially and culturally. Members of the Young Communist League, for instance, take an active part in repairing or buying equipment for the workshops, in planting trees and flowers around the homes, etc. They bring the children goodies, give parties for them, and bring them gifts. Scores of units of the armed forces have "adopted" children's homes, contributing millions of rubles to them.

Many factories, institutions and collective farms have established homes for war orphans and completely support them financially, independently of the Soviet Government. This is sharply typical of Soviet life; the Soviet people do not blindly turn their backs and leave the execution of a task to their elected representatives, but tackle the job themselves as well.

The Zuyevka Power Station, for example, in the Donets Basin in the Ukraine, is famous not only for its work in rehabilitating its Nazi-wrecked turbines, but for the children's home which its workers have founded. This home is in the finest building in the workers' settlement near the plant. Its furniture was made at the building materials plant attached to the station; the workers in the turbine installation shops made mattresses for the children in their free time, and down for the pillows came from the station's auxiliary poultry farm.

The trade union committee and plant administration of the Lenin Plant in Dniepropetrovsk furnish another splendid example of the Soviet spirit: together they established a home for 120 children which they completely support; moreover, they appropriated money for the care of 39 children whose fathers, formerly employed at the plant, were killed in action.

Thousands of Soviet children were not only deprived of their parents by the Germans. The air raids, the shelling of towns and villages, and the torture of children in the regions which were invaded by the enemy deprived many Soviet children of sight, hearing, speech; and many war orphans suffer from various types of neuroses as a result of the horrors of the occupation. Through the Institute of Defectology, a branch of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, the Soviet Government is doing everything in its power to develop positive talents and abilities in defective children, finding methods to overcome or lessen their defects, and training them to become adults capable of finding a useful vocation in life. Children suffering from special defects are taken care of in special children's homes; and in the RSFSR alone there are 280 schools for the instruction of 24 thousand children who suffer from defective speech, hearing or vision; many of these children have suffered the loss of speech, vision, or hearing as a direct result of the fascist occupation.

The Moscow School for the Blind provides an excellent example of the concern the Soviet Government shows for defective war orphans. Attending the Moscow School for the Blind are one hundred of these children. The whole system of training in the school is designed to prepare the children for a practical life; here they acquire knowledge and learn a trade, and their health and everyday needs receive the most careful attention.

First of all, each child learns how to read and write according to the Braille system. The school has a large library of books in raised print. The children study history, physics, and geography, and they read the Russian classics—Tolstoy, Turgenev, and Pushkin—and also memorize poems.

The appliances employed in teaching the children include relief maps and globes, models of buildings of various periods, including elaborate castles of the Middle Ages with battlemented towers, moats and drawbridges, tables with specimens of cuneiform writing, a model of the Urals mountain range, and stuffed animals and birds.

A special appliance is used in the school to assist the children in mechanical drawing. Raised divisions of centimeters* are marked on the broad edge of a small, shallow box. At the bottom is a layer of modeling clay, and the children solve geometry problems with the help of a spade ruler and special compass.

In the evening after the children have done their homework, recreational activities begin. There are groups for singing, dancing and music.

The school offers a seven-year course. Those who wish to continue their education in higher educational institutions can receive a full secondary education. In school, the students receive a substantial foundation of knowledge in subjects taught in schools for unimpaired students, as well as training in carpentry, needlework and sewing.

On completing school, every opportunity is open to these young people to continue their education in higher institutes or to go to work in industry at work suited to their abilities.

MILLIONS of Soviet children will never regain their parents. The brutal horror of fascism will never be completely erased from the memories of most of these war orphans. But the tender solicitude of the Soviet Government and the Soviet people has ensured that they will once again find much of the happiness of childhood.

STORIES. A slightly older orphan reads to two young friends.

GETTING DRESSED. Mila Zhebrovska gets ready for school.

* One centimeter = .393 of one inch.

FACTORY RESTAURANT. Workers' dining room at a Moscow plant which makes ball-bearings. All sizeable factories have such pleasant dining-halls for their workers.

The Soviet Industrial Scene—No. 6

Broad Labor Laws Give Everybody Job, Vacation and Security

By N. Alexandrov

Soon after the Great October Socialist Revolution, the Soviet Government proclaimed the right of citizens to employment, which was eventually made into law by the Stalin Constitution.

In conformity with Soviet law every citizen of the country irrespective of sex, race, nationality, religion, etc. has the right to work. Deprivation of work for reasons mentioned above is punishable by law. In the Soviet Union, the law provides for equal pay for equal work regardless of sex, age, race or nationality. Work is paid for in accordance with its quality and quantity. The right to work is exercised fully and consistently. All working people are not only able to obtain employment according to their ability, but also to raise their qualifications and hence, their earnings.

One of the first acts of the Soviet Government was the proclamation of the eight-hour workday, the introduction of state social insurance and the adoption of the laws on labor protection. Labor protection constitutes a vital part of Soviet labor legislation. The code of labor laws devotes especially serious attention to improving industrial sanitation and hygienic standards in harmful occupations and to the protection of the labor of juveniles and women.

Persons occupied in injurious trades and on underground work have a shorter workday, generally six hours, and for some trades even less. For this category of workers as well as for persons working eight hours in unhealthful trades, the law establishes a special obligatory diet of fats, milk, etc. at the expense of the enterprise. If conditions make it necessary, workers are issued special clothing, gloves, safety glasses, etc. The law makes the administration responsible for the installation of machine shields, ventilation, showers etc.

The workday for juveniles cannot exceed six hours, and they must not be employed on underground or heavy work, on jobs liable to injure their health, on night and overtime work. Persons less than 14 years of age can not be employed in any industrial enterprise or office.

Unlike laws of other countries where women may only work in certain fields and occupy certain positions, Soviet legislation gives women the right to work in any sphere of the national economy. But Soviet labor legislation does not permit the employment of women on heavy work or trades apt to endanger their health.

The Soviet code of labor laws establishes a limit to the loads an adult woman may be required to move or carry. Girls less than 16 years old are not allowed to work on jobs which entail carrying or moving heavy loads.

In some occupations women may be employed only if they go through a periodic medical examination. Thus, women tractor and truck drivers are

FACTORY CLINIC. At a Ukrainian steel mill. All medical care is free in the Soviet Union.

subject to a monthly medical examination. In cases of deterioration of health the woman is transferred to lighter work.

Every branch of industry has a list of trades in which women cannot be employed because those trades are harmful to their health.

Working women are entitled to paid maternity leave of 77 days at the expense of the state social insurance fund. In cases of complications or the birth of twins this leave is extended for another fortnight. Expectant mothers, beginning with the fourth month of pregnancy, cannot be employed for night or overtime work. Those pregnant women whose regular work entails lifting heavy objects are transferred to lighter jobs, but they still draw their regular wages. Nursing mothers get time off every three and one-half hours to feed their infants.

The code of labor laws provides severe punishment for any administrator of an enterprise or office who refuses to employ women on grounds of pregnancy or who attempts to cut their pay on that account.

The law provides for one obligatory rest day a week for all factory and office workers and an annual vacation period of twelve workdays. Every person on vacation receives for that period an average of his annual earnings out of the funds of the enterprise or office. Persons employed in injurious trades get additional vacations of six or twelve work days and, in very harmful occupations, even longer vacations.

If a worker shows symptoms of occupational disease, the administration is obliged, on the doctor's instructions, to give him lighter work which will not endanger his health.

Soviet labor legislation only allows overtime work with the sanction of the trade union and then only in extraordinary cases when the production process is endangered. Overtime work can not last more than three hours per day. For the first two hours the worker is paid time and one half and for the third hour, double time rates prevail.

The Soviet system of labor protection is based on the principle of establishing such work conditions as will prevent the possibility of endangering the life and health of the worker. The law obliges the administration to ensure these conditions in the process of designing and constructing the plants. After completion, the plant is accepted by a government commission which includes trade union representatives. This commission ascertains that all the requirements of labor protection and safety engineering are complied with. If not, the commission will refuse to permit the enterprise to be put into operation.

The Soviet Government allots large sums annually for the further improvement of labor protection and safety engineering. In 1948 the appropriations for this purpose for the whole of the national economy of the USSR amounted to 1,000,000,000 rubles. The trade union of every enterprise draws up a special agreement with the administration of the enterprise as to what must be done with the allocated sum and appends this to the collective agreement concluded with the administration.

In the Soviet Union state social insurance of all working people is exercised at the expense of the enterprise or office without any payment by employees. All factory and office workers receive sick pay for temporary incapacity to work, maternity pay, etc. from the social insurance fund. Pensions for workers hurt on the job, and the aged, come from the same source. The former get their pensions throughout the whole period of recovery, the latter, for life, after the stipulated age. The sanatoriums and rest homes, where the factory and office workers spend their vacations at low cost, or free of charge, are also maintained at the expense of the social insurance fund.

Labor conflicts between the employee and the administration are settled by rates-conflict commissions (RKK), formed at all enterprises and offices, composed of equal representation of trade union representatives and the administration. If the RKK fails to agree, the matter is transferred to the people's court. Working people have the right to appeal to a higher trade union organ against decisions they believe wrong.

Effectiveness of the Soviet labor laws is ensured by a system of public control organized by the trade unions. The central committee of trade unions have special labor protection departments; enterprises have labor protection commissions and voluntary labor protection inspectors, elected by the workers. The members of the labor protection commissions and the voluntary labor protection inspectors number 730 thousand. This big army of workers existing in every office and enterprise maintains control over the fulfillment of the regulations concerning employment and discharge of workers, over the laws governing labor protection and safety engineering, rates, salaries, etc. If one or another of the laws is violated they take immediate measures to rectify the mistake and, if necessary, appeal to court.

Rebuilt Riga Strides Ahead

By Arnold Deglavs* and Oswald Tilmanis**

* *Chairman of the Riga City Soviet*

** *Chief Architect of Riga*

On October 13, 1944, the Soviet Army liberated Riga, capital of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic, from the German fascist invaders.

The Latvian people beheld with anger and pain the devastation committed by the Germans in Riga. Many of the residents of Riga had been banished by force to hard labor in Germany. Many were tortured to death or shot. The fascists blew up the electric power station, destroyed the water supply, burned or damaged nearly three thousand homes and apartment houses—almost one-third of the city's housing area. They razed the old part of Riga, with its ancient memorials of architecture; they demolished the VEF Railway-Car Building Works, and many other industrial enterprises. The fascist vandals destroyed the port, the refrigerating plant, the post office and radio station, and blew up all the bridges across the Daugava River. They dug up the splendid parks of the Latvian capital and cut away hundreds of ancient and cherished trees.

"Revive Riga, turn it into a flourishing city!" This was the clarion call addressed to the people of Riga by the Communist Party and the Soviet Government of Latvia when the capital of the Republic was liberated. And this call found an echo in the hearts of all Soviet patriots.

During the first days after liberation, the citizens of Riga appeared on the rubble-filled streets, at the smoking ruins of the Old Town and on the embankments of the Daugava, to begin the first work of rebuilding their city. The people of Riga worked with might and main. They volunteered their leisure hours to rebuild the bridges and pull down the wreckage of demolished houses, to reconstruct the port and the power station.

Not quite four years have passed since liberation and the beginning of reconstruction. In this brief period, the working people of Latvia, with the support of other peoples of the Soviet Union, have rehabilitated the national economy of the Republic, and have rebuilt their capital so barbarously devastated by the enemy.

The factories of Riga and of the entire Republic are again supplied with electricity from the revived Kegum and Riga power stations. Bridges have been built across the Daugava in place of those blown up by the Germans. A new bridge named the Valdemara has been built at the old Riga Castle. All the old industrial enterprises have been restored, reconstructed and equipped with the most modern equipment. The volume of the seaport's work has expanded, and railway and air transport—connecting the capital with the cities of the other Soviet republics—has increased.

The prewar level of industrial production was exceeded 14 months ago. Nearly 20 large industrial enterprises are now under construction in the capital. Among these are such giants as the Riga Electric Machine-Building Works, the Automatic-Electric-Apparatus Factory and the Railway-Car Building Works.

Great attention has been and is being devoted to the rehabilitation and building of homes. Almost all the homes, apartment houses and public buildings destroyed by the Germans have been rehabilitated and repaired since the end of the war.

An idea of the growing volume of work being done in augmenting the housing area of Riga may be conveyed by the following figures of capital investments by the state: 774 thousand rubles were invested in 1944, 9,500,000 rubles in 1945, 20 million rubles in 1946, 20,500,000 rubles in 1947, and 40 million rubles has been spent this year for housing and municipal construction.

The general plan for the development and reconstruction of Riga takes into account the architectural aspect of the city, which evolved during the course of many centuries. Buildings erected from the thirteenth to the fifteenth centuries, and architectural memorials of the Renaissance are still to be found in Riga. While protecting and preserving these memorials, the Soviet Government has assigned to builders the task of creating new architectural ensembles worthy of the socialist epoch.

This plan is already being realized. Moscow Street, one of the central thoroughfares of Riga, is being re-

OLD RIGA. Izvestkovaya Street.

NEW RIGA. Red Army Street.

constructed and widened from 12 to 25 meters.* According to the provisions of the plan, old and wooden buildings are to be pulled down, and modern apartment houses erected in their place. Almost six million rubles are to be spent this year on the reconstruction of Moscow Street. Clearing of the ruins of Old Riga is to be completed by the end of the year, and a square with perennial coniferae and deciduous trees will be laid out near the Latvian Academy of Sciences. Lime and chestnut trees will be planted in the autumn on the three central streets: Krisjana Voldemara, Terbatas and Krisjana Barona. The following parks will be reconstructed: Varmanska, Viestura, Arcadia, Dzeguzhkalna, Ziemelblazma, the 1905 Park, and the Melluzh Park on the Riga seashore. More than 10 thousand deciduous trees, coniferae and fruit trees, as well as 55 thousand decorative shrubs and perennial flowers will be planted in these parks.

Architectural plans for three new districts of Riga have been prepared, and building work is already in progress there.

A township for 15 thousand residents is under construction in Bolderai District. A secondary school, several kindergartens, a club, stores, hospitals and a polyclinic will be built here. The streets are to be lined with small two-story homes, each accommodating two families.

Several factories are situated in the districts of Milgravis and Vedmilgravis. A hamlet nestling in greenery and young fruit orchards is being built for the workers of these factories.

A garden city is arising on Kipsala Island. The construction of the city is proceeding simultaneously with the laying out of a huge park. The streets of the city will resemble the byways of the park. The island will be connected with Riga by an arched bridge.

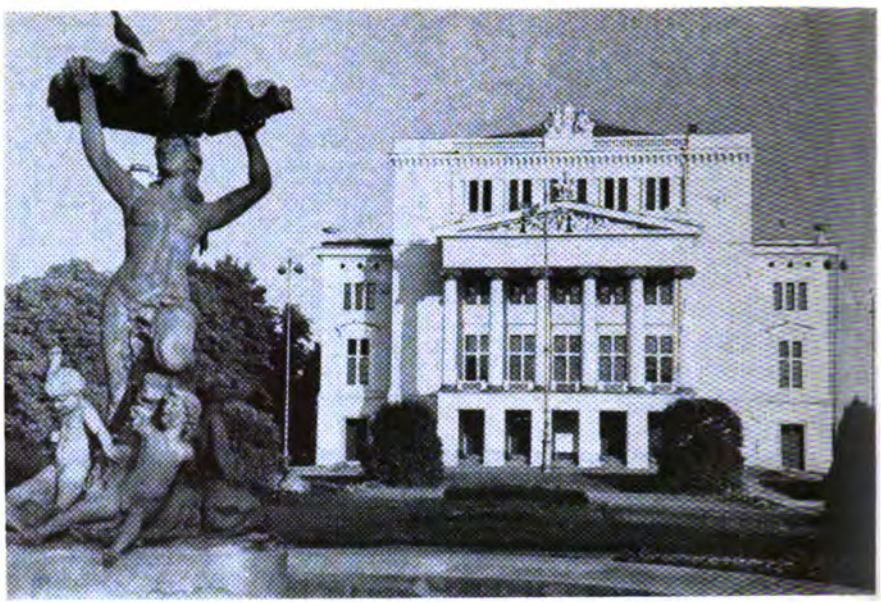
A number of cultural and social institutions have been successfully rehabilitated in Riga since the end of the war. The 22 hospitals and polyclinics are staffed with 662 physicians. A model children's polyclinic has been built anew.

In retreating from Riga, the Germans razed almost all the schools and children's institutions. Today 102 schools, 59 kindergartens and nine children's homes for orphans are functioning in the city. In addition, four schools for workers in their "teens" and eight evening schools for adults have been opened in the city.

The Academy of Sciences of the Latvian SSR, established in Riga by decision of the Government of the USSR, controls a network of scientific-research institutes. There are six high schools of learning in Riga: the State University, the Agricultural Academy, the Conservatory, the Academy of Arts, the Pedagogical Institute and the Institute of Physical Culture.

Riga has eight legitimate theaters and 24 motion picture houses, eleven of which are newly built. Nine big libraries are also operating in factories, institutions, schools and higher educational establishments.

The beautiful and ancient Latvian capital, the most important center of industry and culture in the Republic, has risen from the rubble the fascists left, and the creation of a city more beautiful by far than the prewar Riga is rapidly nearing completion.



OPERA THEATER. Latvian culture flourishes today.

MAIN THOROUGHFARE. Svoboda Street in the Latvian capital.

*One meter = 3.280 feet.

Gains of Soviet Latvia Revealed In Proud Workers' Tales

By S. Garin

The following article briefly describes three separate phases of life in the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic, and indicates the progress and abundance the people of that Republic have achieved since the accession of Soviet power. Latvia is one of the youngest of the constituent republics of the USSR.

LIFE was hard for Oscar Valtsmanis when he was a farm laborer. His life was full of privation—and always there was the yearning for a piece of land of his own.

"Why dream of such a thing?" his friends would say. "Leaves will grow on an axe faster than you will get land in Latvia."

Nevertheless, Oscar Valtsmanis was among the six thousand peasants of the Jakabpils District who received land and became "new owners," as the peasants are called; Valtsmanis was one of those who finally acquired, with the advent of Soviet rule in Latvia, their own land to work. And in the autumn of 1946, the Selia Collective Farm (named in honor of an ancient Latvian tribe exterminated by the Teutons) was organized. This was the first collective farm in the Republic. And Oscar Valtsmanis, former farm laborer, was elected its chairman.

Two more years passed. The Selia Farm in Latvia became a model collective farm among the hundreds of others formed since the accession of the people's rule. And not long ago a handsomely-bound book entitled *On the Right Path,* appeared in the bookshops and stands.

The author of this book is Oscar Valtsmanis. The book tells of the new life of the Latvian peasant and how the first collective farm in the Republic pointed the path to plenty.

THE Latvian writer Vilis Lacis, who today is the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic, has won great popularity among the reading public for his novel, *Son of a Fisherman.* This book first came off the press in 1934, when the author was a stevedore in the port of Riga and lived in a tiny fishing hamlet at the mouth of the Daugava River. The novel made a profound impression and evoked an enthusiastic response, particularly from fishermen. For in almost every Latvian fishing settlement there were people who greatly resembled the heroes in the book.

Not long ago, after a talk with the author of *Son of a Fisherman,* I went to the settlement of Cheshuiki, the village where the action in *Son of a Fisherman* takes place. I wanted to see with my own eyes the living heroes of the book, who remain so strongly engraved on the memory of all who read it.

When I passed through the settlement, and talked with the fishermen and saw how they lived, I realized that the dreams of Lacis' heroes—who, in his book as in actuality, struggled for a better life—had come true. There was no longer any need for the fishermen to save their pennies for dozens of years in order to buy tackle. The Soviet Government has placed a first-class flotilla, with the latest fishing equipment, at the service of the fishermen's co-operatives. Refrigerators, smoking and canning plants—all the things that Oscar, the hero of the book, dreamed of—have been built. Where the burned-down tavern stood, there now stands a club surrounded by sport grounds.

I mentioned Lacis' book to my new acquaintances, the fishermen.

"The book was written about us!" said a broad-shouldered old fisherman, as he thoughtfully sucked his pipe; "yes, about us! Many here recognized themselves in the story.

"But now everything has changed, not only here in our settlement, but throughout all Latvia."

The fisherman pointed to the shore with its bristling masts; with a sweeping gesture he took in the entire horizon. "Today it is no longer surprising to find the sons of fishermen going to college here in Latvia. There are students in every family. And we no longer have to depend on the bosses' 'big hearts.' We are our own masters. . . ."

AMONG those outstanding Latvians in the sphere of science, technology, art and literature, who were recently awarded Stalin Prizes, is Zhanis Zuimach, a worker in a Riga porcelain plant. The fact that beautiful vases, exquisite statuettes, fine dishes and numerous other articles made of first-class porcelain are produced in Latvia today from local raw materials, is due to a great extent to this man's initiative.

The workers of this plant, in collaboration with the engineers, have not only discovered new raw materials but have learned to make from this raw material the finest varieties of porcelain; the plant's workers have proved themselves to be genuine innovators. And one of the leading innovators is Zhanis Zuimach.

In an interview with Zuimach, I told him that I understood that he had been working in the porcelain industry for more than 10 years. "How is it, then," I asked, "that you have only now thought of making new varieties of porcelain from local raw materials?"

"And what would have been the use had this idea occurred to me eight or nine years ago?" he replied. "The porcelain works belonged to a private owner then, and the Latvian land was owned by the landlords. Who would have allowed us to start searching for materials on land that was not ours? And another thing: for whose benefit would our efforts have been? To fill the pockets of the factory owner! Today the factory and all the land belong to the people—we ourselves are the masters of our country. Everything has been placed at our disposal: equipment and funds, and even consultations with academicians."

After a pause, he added: "Never before have I felt so much like working. As soon as I finish one thing, I want to hurry and begin another. Just wait and see what we will soon be turning out!"

Blum's Pro-Fascist Role Shown In Nazi Documents

By Boris Izakov

Soviet Journalist

Volume 1 of "Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War" has been issued in several languages, including English, and is now available in the United States. Volume 2, described below, will be available in this country soon. The series consists of documents, records and diaries of high German officials which were seized by the Soviet forces which took Berlin and throws new light on the Second World War.

THE second volume of *Documents and Materials Relating to the Eve of the Second World War,* recently published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, contains some eloquent references to the activities of the clique which was at the helm in France in the memorable 1930's. Several of the references concern the former French Prime Minister, Leon Blum.

The book reproduces secret documents from the private papers of the well-known German diplomat, Herbert von Dirksen. These documents, which cover the period March, 1938-September, 1939, when von Dirksen was German Ambassador in London, deal in the main with British foreign policy. In the appendix to the volume, however, we find some interesting reports written by Welczek, the German Ambassador in Paris, and dealing with France's position, among them one report dated December 26, 1936, and one dated February 18, 1939.

The situation in 1936 is still fresh in the memory of our contemporaries. The fascist aggressors, then in power in Germany, Italy and Japan, were preparing for World War II. With the extensive aid of German and Italian forces of intervention and under the direction of instructors sent from Berlin and Rome, fascist General Franco had engineered a revolt against the lawful Republican Government of Spain. The progressive forces of mankind had risen to the defense of the Spanish people.

In France, the Government, which had come to power with the support of the Popular Front, was headed by Leon Blum, the Socialist leader. The Minister of Foreign Affairs was Delbos. In those prewar years the fascist press in Berlin and Rome was full of rhetorical attacks upon the French Popular Front Government.

But in the secret report of Count von Welczek, the Nazi Ambassador in Paris, we find an entirely different attitude to the Blum-Delbos Government. The Nazi Ambassador reports to his superiors that he has received an offer from the French Cabinet to start negotiations for a general agreement between Germany and France. Welczek emphasizes that the offer came from the French, and that they made it in spite of the painful blows France had just been dealt by Hitler. It will be remembered that the Nazi dictator had shortly before that remilitarized the Rhine zone in flagrant violation of the Versailles treaty. The Nazi diplomat notes with glee that "notwithstanding all the slaps in the face the French have received in the past year, they are even now ready to negotiate with a view to an understanding . . . It is not the Fuehrer who is extending his hand for an understanding, but the French that are offering their hand to us; the slapped is extending his hand to the slapper."

Now, what was the basis offered by the Blum-Delbos Government for a Franco-German deal? The first step, which was regarded in Paris as urgent and of decisive importance, was, according to Welczek in his report to Berlin, "the gradual destruction of the Spanish hotbed." Blum and Delbos were out to make a deal with the aggressors at the expense of the Spanish people. And, as subsequent events revealed, the shameful compact had actually been made. It cost the Spanish Republic its life and served as one of the steps in the fateful ladder along which the world descended into the mire of the Second World War.

In the report of December 26, 1936, we also find some significant statements concerning Blum and Delbos. Referring to the attacks that were leveled in France against the Premier and the Foreign Minister for their policy of coming to an understanding with Germany, Welczek writes: "It is in our interest to keep these two levelheaded and honest men at the helm of state".

"Levelheaded and honest men"—this compliment, coming from a dyed-in-the-wool Nazi, is a brand of shame on the reputation of those who earned it. Still more noteworthy is the fact that the Nazi Ambassador suggested to his superiors in Berlin that they should help strengthen the position of Leon Blum and his Government—and this at a time when the Berlin press was hurling imaginary thunderbolts at Blum.

Welczek's other message deals with events of the first quarter of 1939. The French Cabinet was then headed by Edouard Daladier, and one of its most influential members was Paul Reynaud, who succeeded Daladier to the Premiership at the beginning of the war. As is evident from Welczek's report, that Government was always prepared to put up with, and give full recognition to, the "Third Reich's position of dominance in Eastern and Southeastern Europe and also in Spain."

As we know, the efforts to come to terms with the fascist aggressors at the expense of other nations brought the ruling circles of France nothing but disgrace and military debacle.

I know that a section of the public in the United States is inclined to take a lenient attitude to the persons responsible for France's disgrace and disaster. But how can we forget the sinister role they played in the events which led up to the universal conflict? We are once again reminded of the role of Leon Blum and his colleagues by the secret correspondence of Nazi dignitaries now published.

Trend to Realism on Russian Stage Began Generations Ago

By Valery Tokar

THE realistic trend in dramatic art, markedly characteristic of Soviet acting, is based upon a tradition that dates back for several generations in the Russian theater.

One of the great exponents of this realistic, integrated, non-"star" school of acting was Mikhail Shchepkin, who died 85 years ago.

Born into the family of a serf, Shchepkin was only seventeen when he appeared on the stage for the first time; and it is said that after the performance he wept for happiness, because of the emotion he had experienced. He was seventy-four and hardly able to stand on his feet when he played his last role, a year before his death—in Turgenev's *The Hangers-on*. But once on-stage, his old fire returned.

When he first appeared on the stage of the Moscow Theater with which he was to be associated for forty years, he was a seasoned actor, with many years on the provincial stage behind him. And it was during those years in the provinces that his views on art—his artistic principles—were formed.

His acting impressed his contemporaries with its naturalness, its simplicity, its faithfulness to life. Shchepkin stands out against the background of the pseudoclassical style which prevailed at that time, as a genuine innovator, as one who vigorously affirmed and demonstrated the realistic manner of acting.

He brought an attitude entirely new into the theater. "The theater is a temple to the actor," he said. "Treat this temple with reverence and make others revere it. Worship it or keep away from it . . ." These words expressed his profoundest convictions; this uncompromising position in questions of theater ethics governed his principles in acting.

Mikhail Shchepkin demanded the study of art from the standpoint of science. And in his work he applied those "laboratory" methods which subsequently became the basis of the system of another great Russian actor and producer, Constantine Stanislavsky, who was born in the year of Shchepkin's death. To Shchepkin, the basic law of the actor's art was "to destroy one's personality and become the character created by the author." He avoided superficial theatrical effects, and regarded the faithful and true expression of the author's ideas as the actor's principal task. He took the utmost care to preserve the unity of the cast; and he never played as a "star," for he objected strongly to that practice.

Mikhail Shchepkin.

Shchepkin made the thorough study of his part the basis of his role, and never relied upon the circumstances of the occasion, on "inspiration;" he had full command over his passions, and subordinated the "fire of the soul" to the actor's will. At the same time, he could throw himself into a part and feel the glow of true creative inspiration on the stage. In a talk with the famous Negro tragedian, Ira Aldridge, Shchepkin—seventy-four at the time—reproached Aldridge with being too cold and calm in his portrayal of Othello, thereby destroying the integrity of the character.

Shchepkin's artistic principles found full and vivid expression in the large variety of types he created from his immense reportory. He regarded himself all his life as "an eternal student," and even when his talent reached its peak "there was always," as critics of those days wrote, "one person in the theater who was dissatisfied with Shchepkin, and that was Shchepkin himself, the exacting artist."

He was 65 years of age, and one of the foremost actors of Europe when he paid his first visit to Paris to see Western European actors. Although he accorded credit where credit was due, he considered that Russian art was on a higher level, owing to its strikingly expressed effort for realism, for a true art of the people.

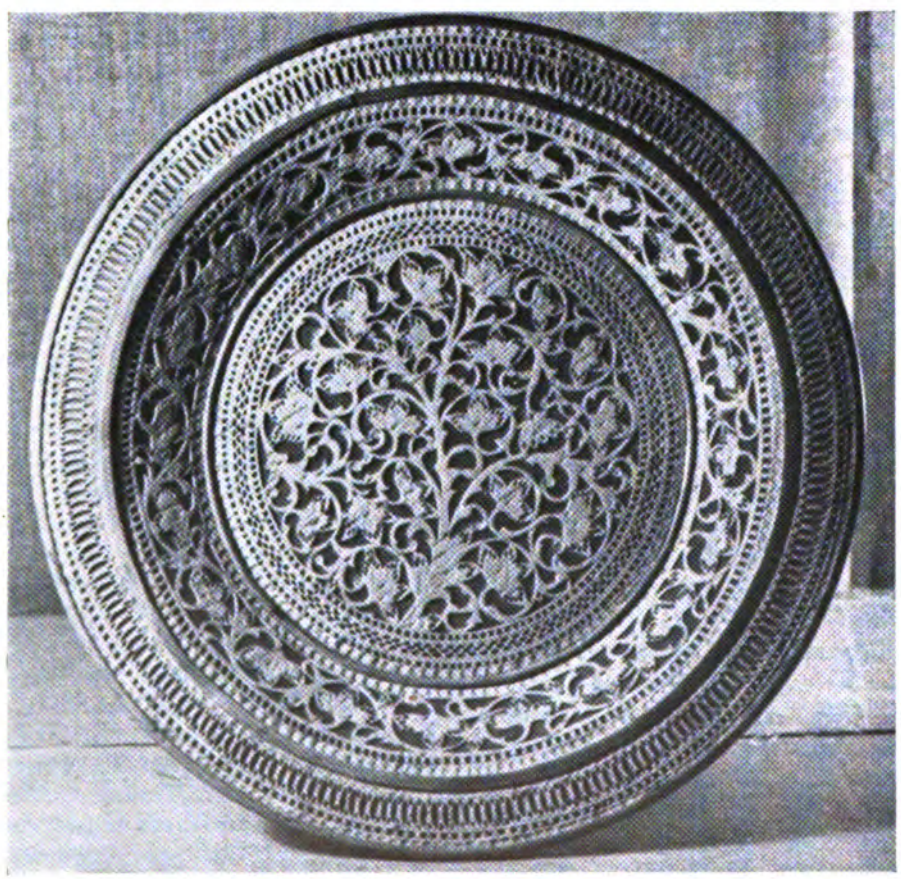
His high standard, the constant dissatisfaction of the true artist, were the pledge of the creative growth and development of Shchepkin's talent. Eternal youth of the soul, the unquenchable "fire of the spirit" were his bequest, as the most precious gift of his undying art to future generations of actors.

Among the European classics, Shchepkin preferred Moliere, and derived great enjoyment from playing in the comedies of the great French dramatist, of which Shchepkin had seven in his repertory. His performances were particularly memorable in *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme, L'Avare* and *Tartuffe*. He gave a superb performance as Polonius in *Hamlet*, as Wurm in Schiller's *Kabale und Liebe*, and as Bartolo in Beaumarchais' *Marriage of Figaro*.

Shchepkin's creative art left a deep and lasting imprint upon the history of the world theater. Throughout the first half of the nineteenth century he dominated the Russian stage—the greatest reformer of the theater, the founder of a new trend: artistic realism, which is the basis of Soviet theater art.

LACQUERED VASE. This vase, designed by E. Zhirnova, is from the Gorki Region.

KHOKHLOMA ART. These displays in rich red, black and gold are typical of the work in the advanced classes of the art and technical school of the Semyonovskaya Co-operative.



DESIGN IN BIRCH BARK. This decorative platter is an example of workmanship from the Vologda Region.

UKRAINIAN CERAMICS. This decorative sculptured piece entitled "Lion" is by F. Gnedoi.

GLASS FISH. Also from the Ukraine, this vessel demonstrates how Soviet art is both useful and ornamental.

Soviet Folk Crafts Flourish

By Ilarla Suvorova and Georgii Toporkov

VIVID and colorful demonstrations of the high artistic abilities of the many nationalities of the Soviet Union were on display recently at an All-Union Arts Industry Exhibition in Moscow.

A prominent place was occupied by Russian lacquer ware and carved wood objects as well as by displays of the postwar work of Ukrainian craftsmen in earthenware.

There is hardly a Soviet home where one will not find an example of beautiful Khokhloma lacquer work—from a tea tray to a full set of nursery furniture. (These pieces are so called because they come from the village of Khokhloma in Gorky Region.)

Khokhloma lacquer ware is very striking. Creeping vines of the finest curved lines, covered with round, sharply-defined leaves painted against a background of silver and black constitute a typical Khokhloma design. Closer inspection will reveal golden yellow fruit and quaintly shaped blossoms with golden-winged bees hovering over them.

Khokhloma lacquerers usually improvise their designs rather than copy from set patterns.

There is, for instance, the work of Antonina Kuznetsova, from whose restrained color schemes emerge fine, strong lines. She is fond of the traditional flower, fruit and bird motifs.

Imagination and power mark the work of E. Sennikov. He uses goldfish motifs for a set of nursery chairs and table. Vines, rosy apples, flaming leaves and flowers surround the fish. Leaves, blossoms and stems are all woven into a fanciful pattern that produces a sort of fairy-tale effect.

The Gorky Region is also famed for its wood craftsmen. Carvers from the town of Semenov and outlying villages are especially noted for the fanciful designs they carve on the varnished surfaces of boxes, decorative vases, ladles, writing sets, platters and small chests.

Many of these wood carvers have a fondness for the fantastic figures of Russian folklore, and some carve out complicated compositions based on the tales of Alexander Pushkin.

LEGEND IN WOOD. Carved box on the theme of the Russian fairy-tale, "The Cat, Cock and Fox." Moscow Region workmanship.

Carved birch bark is used to coat many fine articles, including platters and boxes. They are made in the northern woods of the Vologda Region, in the village of Kurovo-Navolsk on the Shemogoda River.

These carvers use simple birch bark and when the designs are finished, they are glued to various articles of wood. A coat of dark red varnish is generally applied as a base for the design.

Ukrainian craftsmen find in their native scenery the chief source of inspiration for motifs.

In the Ukraine the ancient art of ceramics dates back to almost prehistoric days. In the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries, for example, the glazed pottery of Kiev Rus far excelled in coloring, the wares of Western Europe, where at that time only one-color glazing was known. The Ukraine's potters have perfected their art in many ways. They have recently produced truly remarkable examples of painted earthenware vessels and beautifully glazed tiles.

A favorite among these potters is the geometrical ornament; vegetation motifs are also frequently used. Scenes from life also appear in some of the work.

Ukrainian craftsmen rely chiefly on three colors in glazing; brown, green and yellow. When a white overlay is desirable, it is obtained by glazing white clay. Baked red clay easily gives a terra-cotta tone. The potters have learned to achieve wonderful artistic effects by merely combining a few simple clay materials.

On display in Moscow, for example, was a set of earthenware dishes by P. Moiseyenko which displayed striking color harmony.

Well-represented, too, were clay toys, a type of decorative ceramics which is particularly popular among the Ukraine's peasants. Toy whistles, roosters, horses and human figures are all extremely expressive and often have a touch of humor.

Glassware exhibits were comparatively few but all were striking in color and original in form—fishes, birds and animals.

The exhibition showed that the old folk crafts of the peoples of the USSR are flourishing in the Soviet period as never before. And the craftsmen have utility as well as beauty in mind.

Every 7th Worker Is Inventor

INVENTIVENESS and rationalization have developed tremendously in the Soviet Union, where workers are introducing scores of thousands of rationalization and invention proposals aiming at improving production and raising labor productivity. Last year, on the average, 145 such proposals were received from every thousand workers, engineers and technicians. This means that one of every seven workers in Soviet factories and mills is an inventor or rationalizer.

Under Soviet law, the originator of every proposal which is actually adopted in production is rewarded by receiving a definite percentage of the savings effected by its adoption.

Promotion of inventiveness and rationalization is one of the major branches of the activity of the Soviet trade unions. The Presidium of the Central Council of Trade Unions recently noted that workers, engineers, technicians and other employees were taking a more and more active part in rationalizing production. Last year the number of rationalization proposals received from working people increased by 28 per cent for industry as a whole, by 37 per cent in the case of machine building, and by 48 per cent in the power industry. The number of such proposals is continuing to increase in the current year, and the Soviet State has saved hundreds of millions of rubles by putting them into effect.

Panyushkin Statement

(Continued from page 591)

1. No limitations should be imposed upon the restoration and development of peaceful Japanese industry which seeks to satisfy the needs of the Japanese population, nor upon the development of export in accordance with the needs of Japan's peaceful economy.

2. The revival and creation of Japanese war industry should be prohibited and there should be established, for a period of several years, a control over the fulfillment of this decision, to be exercised by those Powers most interested in preventing a new Japanese aggression.

USSR Urges Steps Toward Peace

(Continued from page 588)

for its resolution. For the peoples of the world would never have reconciled themselves to a rejection of this proposal.

It is generally known that the most important decisions of the earlier sessions of the General Assembly have not been executed, despite the fact that the making of these decisions played a positive role in that it showed the strength of the camp of peace, and rallied the peace-loving peoples in support of its ideals.

At the present session in Paris, the Soviet Union has made another important contribution to the struggle for peace and international co-operation. The Soviet delegation proposed:

1. That as a first step in the direction of the reduction of armaments and armed forces, the great powers—the United States, the USSR, Great Britain, France and China—should reduce all their land, naval and air forces by one-third.

2. That the atomic weapon, which by its very nature is designed for aggression and not for defense, should be outlawed.

3. That an international control organ should be formed within the Security Council to supervise and control the realization of these measures.

These perfectly clear and concrete proposals speak for themselves. Anyone who treasures the interests of peace will understand that the cause of peace will be advanced if the great powers reduce their armaments and their armed forces by one-third; and if the atomic weapon is outlawed. Who can doubt that the realization of these measures will lighten the economic hardships which burden the peoples—who in the final analysis must pay for all armaments? It is difficult to argue against the supremely clear and concrete Soviet proposals, as they are dictated by the interests of peace. There can be no doubt that they will have the support of all the peoples who are yearning for peace.

Statement on Berlin

(Continued from page 587)

removing the difference which existed on this issue.

All the aforesaid clearly shows the real attitude of the Soviet Government on the subject of regulation of the situation in Berlin on a mutually acceptable basis. In these conditions it depends upon the Governments of the United States, Britain and France whether negotiations on the above subject will be disrupted or whether satisfactory agreement will be reached by the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

October 11—October 15

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States during the period from October 11 to October 15 at the following times and frequencies (all times given are Eastern Standard Time):

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary, from 7:45 to 8:15 A.M. on 15.41, 15.39, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles.

A daily evening program—one and one-half hours of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life features—will be broadcast from 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. on 15.39, 15.31, 15.23, 11.96, 11.88 and 11.87 megacycles and from 7:30 to 7:50 P.M. on 15.31, and 11.96 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Monday and Thursday, October 11 and 14—Economic affairs.

Friday, October 15—Scientific and cultural program.

Wednesday, October 13—Program for farmers.

Saturdays—Weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners.

Sundays—Concerts and talks on literature.

A Muscovite's Diary

HOUSEWIVES IN Moscow and Leningrad were delighted recently when co-operative stores announced new price cuts on fresh meats, canned and other meat products, poultry and lard. The changes were effective August 10 and bring co-op prices to a level with those of the state retail stores.

Lower food prices are general and in the last few days we have had reductions in prices on new potatoes, cauliflower, tomatoes, onions, cucumbers and melons in both state and co-operative stores in Moscow.

Reports of price cuts are also coming in from collective farm markets where collective farms and farmers sell their produce. We've read in the papers of reduced prices at Kiev, Tashkent, Minsk, Archangelsk and other cities.

ON SEPTEMBER 25 the peoples of the Soviet Union commemorated the hundredth anniversary of the death of the great Armenian writer and democrat: Khachatur Abovyan.

Because I can remember the pre-Revolutionary times (although I'm by no means an old man, mind you!) and the persecution of the Armenian people and all other national peoples under the tsar, an event like this gives me a special feeling of pleasure. For Abovyan was a true son of his people: he was the first to write in the Armenian language in a manner understandable to the people.

And now, it is not only the Armenian people, but all the Soviet peoples who revere his name. His works have been translated into many languages of the Soviet peoples; they have been published in the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Estonia, and other Soviet republics. And a Moscow publishing house has issued a volume of selected works by Abovyan in the Russian language; this book contains a shortened edition of the novel: *The Wounds of Armenia,* one of Abovyan's best works.

On the anniversary day a special meeting of the Presidium of the Union of Soviet Writers of the USSR was held in Erevan, capital of Soviet Armenia.

SPEAKING OF ARMENIA, I recall an article I read this week concerning the building of settlements and cottages for repatriated Soviet Armenians. Three large settlements for 30 thousand of these newly-arrived Soviet citizens are being built near Erevan, capital of the Republic. A settlement of two hundred cottages and public buildings is under construction near Echmiadzin, a district center. Some are already complete. Modern settlements are also being put up at Leninakan and Kirovakan, where nearly seven thousand home builders will erect their own cottages with the aid of state loans which total 150 million rubles.

Truly, these are great days.

A NEPHEW ON A FARM in the Poltava region of the Ukraine writes that during the recent harvest season, when farmers were selling their crops and consequently were in a buying mood, traveling stores with a grand assortment of goods came right into the fields.

OUR SOVIET BOYS are an eternal joy. Two Muscovite lads, Boris Martynov and Nikolai Gorin, built a model airplane powered with a diesel motor equipped with a gyroscope. They entered the Seventeenth All-Union Aircraft Model Contests in which 38 teams entered five hundred models.

Boris and Nikolai's ship flew westward, averaging 66.667 kilometers* an hour, and set a new international record. They took the title from the French model builder, M. Plan, who held a speed mark of 48.856 kilometers an hour.

The model contest included some that were jet-propelled as well as the standard types using gasoline and diesel motors. As you may imagine, these new models attracted the greatest attention among young and old.

A fuselage model glider entered by H. Meelak, a Tallin student, traveled 18 kilometers and rose to a height of 1,600 meters** to break the international record held by a French modelist, Z. Bugare, by 290.4 meters. Meelak's plane carried a barograph to record its performance.

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* One kilometer = .621 of a mile.
** One meter = 3.280 feet.

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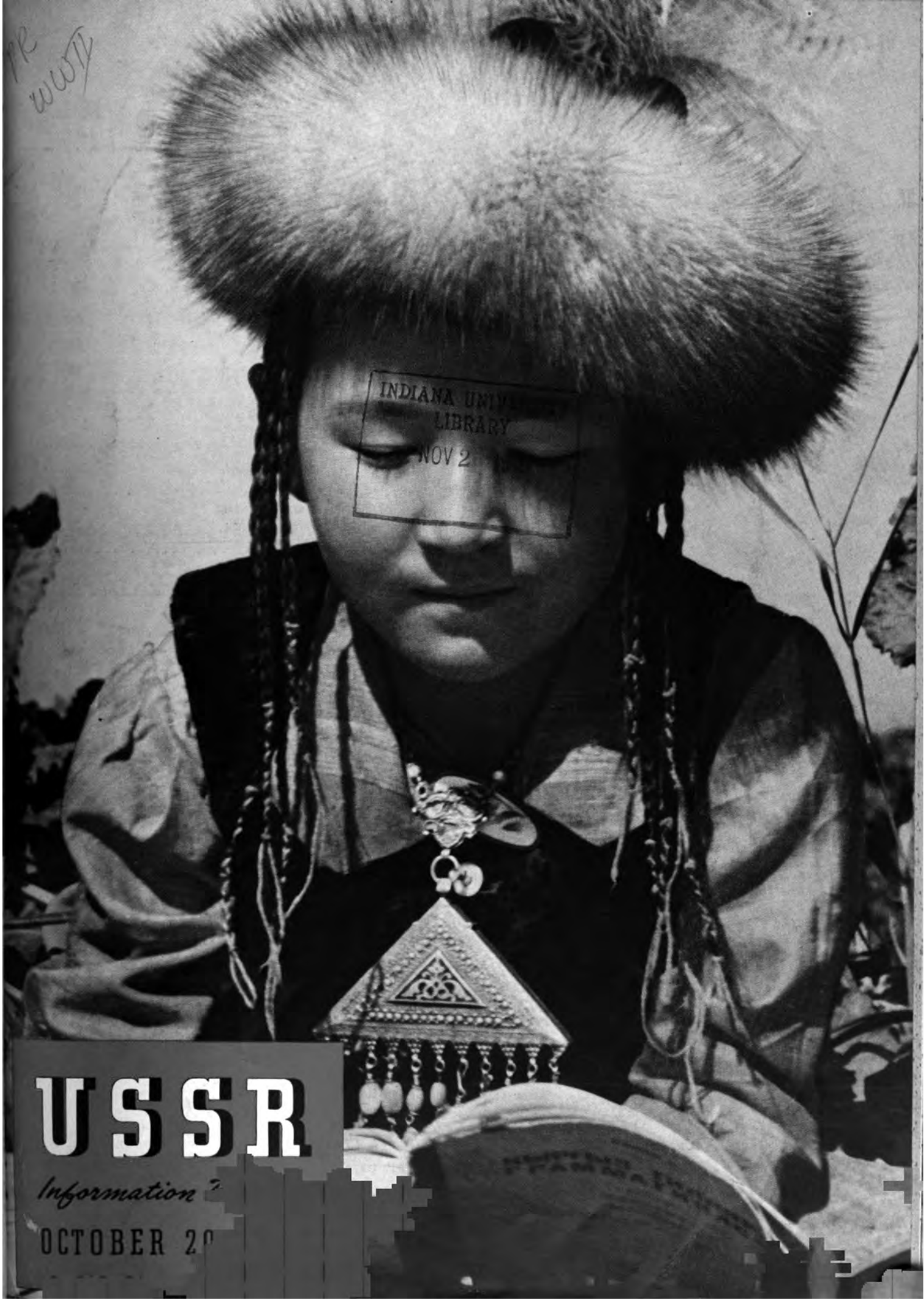
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USSR

Information

OCTOBER 2

HISTORIC ROLE. Olga Knipper as she appeared in the role of Irina in "Tsar Fyodor," first production of the Moscow Art Theater. The Theater is 50 years old. FRONT COVER. Ali Sadykova, a Soviet Kirghizian farm schoolgirl. BACK COVER. Soccer fans in Moscow's Dynamo Stadium.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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OCTOBER 20, 1948

VOLUME VIII NUMBER 20

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Texts of Soviet Disarmament, Atomic Proposals

Soviet proposals on disarmament and control of atomic energy were included in an address before the General Assembly September 25 by Andrei Vyshinsky, who urged that the Assembly adopt the following resolution:

"NOTING that practically nothing has been done to this day to put into effect the Assembly's decision of January 24, 1946, on atomic energy, or the decision of December 14, 1946, on the principles governing the general regulation and reduction of armaments; acknowledging that the prohibition of the production and utilization of atomic energy for war needs is a primary task; acknowledging that a general substantial reduction of armaments meets the purposes of the establishment of firm peace and the consolidation of international security and corresponds to the interests of the peoples in reducing the heavy economic burden they shoulder as a result of the excessive and ever-growing expenditure on armaments in various countries; considering that the great powers—permanent members of the Security Council—possess the bulk of the armed forces and armaments and bear the main responsibility for the maintenance of peace and general security; with a view to strengthening the cause of peace and eliminating the threat of a new war being kindled by expansionists and other reactionary elements:

"The General Assembly recommends that the permanent members of the Security Council—the United States, Great Britain, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, France and China—as the first step in the reduction of armaments and armed forces, reduce by one-third, within one year, all existing land, naval and air forces.

"The General Assembly recommends the prohibition of the atomic weapon, as a weapon intended for aggressive aims and not for defense.

"The General Assembly recommends the establishment of an international control body within the framework of the Security Council to watch and control the carrying out of measures for the reduction of armaments and armed forces and for the prohibition of the atomic weapon."

This proposal of the Soviet Government was followed October 2 by a statement before the Political Committee of the General Assembly by Vyshinsky in elaboration of the original Soviet proposal. This declaration recalled the three reports of the Atomic Commission and the two aforementioned resolutions of the General Assembly and proposed the following recommendations from the General Assembly to the Security Council and the Atomic Commission:

"(1) To continue work in the direction defined by the above-mentioned resolutions of the General Assembly;

"(2) To prepare a draft convention on the prohibition of the atomic weapon and a convention on the establishment of effective international control over atomic energy, bearing in mind that both the convention on the prohibition of the atomic weapon and the convention on the establishment of international control over atomic energy should be signed and put into operation simultaneously."

USSR Recognizes Korea

THE following is the text of the message received by Joseph Stalin, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, from Kim Ir Sen, Chairman of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Korean People's Democratic Republic:

"On behalf of the Government of the Korean People's Democratic Republic, I have the honor of addressing you, my dear Mr. Chairman, with this letter, and of conveying to you the following desire of my Government.

"Deep changes have taken place in the life of the Korean people which have a tremendous significance for the destiny of my native country, in the three years that have elapsed since the liberation of Korea from years of colonial oppression by Japanese imperialism. Nationwide elections have been held throughout Korea to elect a national legislative body—the Supreme People's Assembly of Korea.

"The Government of the People's Democratic Republic has been created as a result of the elections. This Government consists of representatives of all social strata of Northern and Southern Korea and it enjoys the hearty approval and overwhelming support of the entire Korean nation. The Government of the Korean People's Democratic Republic has begun performing its duties and activities for the benefit of the Korean nation. Expressing the aspiration of the entire Korean nation, on behalf of my Government I ask you, and, through you, the Government of the USSR, to establish diplomatic relations with the Korean People's Democratic Republic and to exchange ambassadors. Along with the establishment of diplomatic relations, I request of the Government of the USSR also that close economic relations be established between the two States for the common benefit of our peoples.

"I am deeply convinced that the establishment of diplomatic relations between the Korean People's Democratic Republic and the USSR will

(Continued on page 648)

Path to Peace Shown by USSR

By I. Yermashev

DISCUSSION at the United Nations General Assembly in Paris has been under way for some weeks. Attention has been focused on the proposals of the Soviet Union for a reduction in armaments, the prohibition of the atomic weapon and establishment of a strict and effective international control over atomic energy.

These proposals were introduced on the instructions of the Soviet Government by A. Y. Vyshinsky, head of the USSR delegation, who substantiated and analyzed them in detail.

The Soviet Union proposed that the principal powers reduce their armed forces and armaments by one-third as a step in the direction of lightening the great burden of armaments which weighs so heavily upon the world. This proposal is clear, concrete and constructive. It can be easily and immediately carried into practice. Yes, immediately!

But what is the reaction of those circles which are opposed to disarmament—the supporters of an armaments race, the atomic politicians? Their reply is: "Propaganda!"

Nevertheless, it is impossible simply to brush aside the Soviet proposals with this remark. All those who treasure the interests of peace are demanding: let us accept the Soviet proposals; let us come to an agreement as to how they can best be carried out.

And those who today object to disarmament are merely betraying their fear that the new armaments race in which they are vitally interested might be checked by the Soviet proposals.

The extent to which these arguments against the Soviet proposals lack real conviction may be illustrated by the speech of British Foreign Minister Bevin at the General Assembly session. Mr. Bevin did not trouble to give businesslike consideration to the Soviet proposals. He rejected them wholesale. On what grounds? On the grounds, if you please, that he regards the proposals of the USSR as "propaganda." This is entirely unconvincing and completely removed from the essence of the question!

The USSR proposes, in essence: "Let us disarm; let us outlaw the atomic weapon, which is designed for the wholesale destruction of human life; let us institute a strict and effective international control—and not a superglobal atom supertrust to dominate the world."

The practical implementation of the Soviet proposals depends entirely upon the willingness of the United States, Great Britain and the countries following their lead to accept these proposals—upon the readiness of these countries to participate in a general arms reduction by reducing their own armaments as well.

The USSR is conducting a real struggle for the immediate reinforcement of peace. While the notion that war is inevitable and that more armaments are necessary is being constantly cultivated through the press and by leading representatives of certain circles in the West, the Soviet Union demands: "Let us reduce armaments." For arms reduction would be a most effective means of facilitating the normalization of international life and relations.

Is it possible to effect an immediate reduction in armaments and armed forces and consequently also to reduce war budgets? Without question. The demobilization of the Soviet armed forces, and the postwar reconversion of industry have shown that the Soviet disarmament proposals rest upon a very solid foundation.

Would the adoption of these proposals reinforce peace? Beyond all doubt! Who can doubt that such a move would be of the utmost benefit for world peace?

The ban on the atomic weapon can be imposed immediately, without the endless discussions that have been conducted for thirty months, for example, by the Commission for Control of Atomic Energy.

But this argument may be offered: where is the guarantee that production of atomic weapons will not continue in one place or another? This guarantee is furnished by the Soviet plan for control over atomic energy on a world-wide scale. The Soviet Union proposes the simultaneous conclusion of the convention on the prohibition of atomic weapons and the establishment of strict international control over atomic energy, under the auspices of the Security Council, the principal international body of the United Nations entrusted with the mission of safeguarding world peace.

It is clear, therefore, that the Soviet proposals are dictated first and foremost by the interests of peace: therein lies their strength. Presented in concise and clear form, they are intended for the speediest realization, for urgent enforcement.

No other delegation has made any constructive suggestions in two weeks of discussion at the session; not a single delegation at Paris has been able to cite any convincing argument against the practicability of the Soviet proposals.

Noteworthy among the comments on the discussion which has developed around the Soviet proposals is the statement of the well-known organ of Dutch business circles, *Nuve Rotterdamsche Kurant*. This organ declared in effect that Vyshinsky's speech was a most well-substantiated one. To the Soviet Union, the United Nations is a forum for constructive work.

The Soviet Union offers: let us do constructive work in the interest of world peace; let us use this work as a basis for strengthening international co-operation and general security, thrusting aside all that hinders and interferes with it.

Lenin and Stalin on the Co-Existence Of Two Systems

By Professor E. Bregel

Doctor of Science in Economics

THE anti-Soviet press has for a long time been circulating fables to the effect that the notion of the impossibility of peaceful co-operation between the two systems—the capitalist and the socialist—is cultivated in the USSR, and that the USSR is allegedly interested in war and not in peaceful co-operation with other states.

This fable is at present being widely used by the incendiaries of a new world war—the American and other imperialists—in their frantic propaganda against the USSR, in an effort to shift the blame from the guilty to the innocent.

Neither did Mr. Bevin have any scruples about resorting to this legend when he tried in his recent speech at the UN General Assembly to distort Lenin's statements. Nevertheless the untruth of these assertions has been irrefutably proved by the clear statements repeatedly made by the leaders of the Soviet State, Lenin and Stalin.

As far back as in December, 1921, in his report to the Ninth All-Russian Congress of Soviets, Lenin called attention to the failure of the foreign intervention and to the beginning of a new, peaceful phase in the relations between the Soviet Republic and the capitalist states. He posed the question whether it is possible for a socialist republic to exist in a capitalist encirclement. That this is possible in the political and military sense had already been proved. It was already a fact. But what about commerce? But what about economic relations? To these questions, too, Lenin replied in the affirmative, pointing to the establishment and development of trade between the USSR and the capitalist countries.

It should be remembered that the economic relations between Soviet Russia and the capitalist countries were only in their initial phase in that period; moreover, after the failure of their military intervention against the land of the Soviets, the capitalist states tried to strangle it by an economic blockade. Although the foreign trade volume of Soviet Russia had noticeably increased in 1921, it was as yet still insignificant: imports to Soviet Russia totaled 17 million poods* in 1918-1920, and 50 million poods in 1921, and her exports amounted to 2.5 and 11.5 million poods respectively. This notwithstanding, Lenin, who was remarkable for his correct analysis of the future, foresaw the continued development of peaceful economic relations between the USSR and the capitalist states.

He said that this was just the beginning, and that we, who for years had been hearing threats that everything would be done to prevent the establishment of relations with us so long as we remained what we are, we, nevertheless, could then see that someone had proved stronger than these threats. We nevertheless could see that others' estimate of the economic development was wrong, and our estimate was correct. The beginning had been made. And, said Lenin, all our attention, all our efforts and concern must be concentrated on preventing the arrest of this development, on furthering it.

Of course, not for a moment did Lenin lose sight of the contrasts between the two systems, the capitalist and the socialist, and of the hostility of the bourgeois governments toward Soviet Russia. He believed nevertheless that the difference between them was not an insurmountable obstacle in the way of the establishment and development of the normal economic relations necessary to both sides. This idea was vividly expressed by Lenin, when he said that there is a far more powerful factor than the desire, will and decision of any of the hostile governments or classes; this factor is the general world economic relations which compel them to adopt this course of relations with us.

This subject is treated by Lenin in the same spirit in some of his later statements. Thus, in his address at the Eleventh Congress of the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks), in March, 1922, Lenin, while not concealing the fact that there were serious differences and contradictions between Soviet Russia and the capitalist countries, nevertheless declared emphatically that this does not by any means exclude the possibility of a peaceful co-existence of the two systems, provided there is economic and not military competition between them. It is a fact, said Lenin, that the most urgent, essential and practical interests of all the capitalist powers which have become conspicuously evident in recent years, demand the development, normalization and expansion of trade with Russia. And once these interests exist, there may be disputes, quarrels and disagreements on different combinations—and it is quite probable that there will be disagreements—but this fundamental economic necessity will have its way in the end.

Repeatedly emphasizing the possibility of peaceful economic relations between Soviet Russia and the capitalist states, Lenin pointed out that these relations can develop between them only as between equal partners, and that the Soviet State will never relinquish its sovereignty and will never tolerate any intervention in its domestic affairs, any unilateral attempt to force upon it any conditions that run counter to the interests of socialist construction.

These theses of Lenin were developed by his great successor, J. V. Stalin. Stalin, like Lenin, has always held and still believes that the contrast between the socialist and capitalist systems does not exclude their co-existence and the maintenance of peace-

(Continued on page 648)

* One pood = 36.113 pounds.

Moscow Art Theater
Celebrates
Golden Jubilee

HISTORIC HOME. This is the Moscow Art Theater, which celebrates its fiftieth anniversary October 27, 1948.

"THE LAST SACRIFICE." Scene from the second act of A. Ostrovsky's play. Actors are Alla Tarasova as Tugina and Ivan Moskvin as Pribitkov.

SHAW'S VISIT. The Irish writer is shown with Constantine Stanislavsky in Moscow in 1931.

FOUNDER. One of the organizers of the Moscow Art Theater was V. Nemirovich-Danchenko. A photo taken in 1938.

IN GORKY'S PLAY. Stanislavsky in Gorky's "The Lower Depths."

VETERAN PLAYER. Eugenia Mores plays Tommy in "The Pickwick Club." She is noted for boys' roles.

STALIN PRIZE WINNER. Nikolai Bogoliubov depicts Muraviev, commander of the front, in "The Victors."

OLGA ANDROVSKAYA, a leading actress, plays Suzanne in Beaumarchais' "The Marriage of Figaro."

OLD TIMER. The late V. I. Kachalov, People's Artist of the USSR.

GORKY AT THE THEATER. Famed author is shown with Constantine Stanislavsky, and M. Lilina, an actress, in 1900.

Moscow's Famed Art Theater Marks Golden Jubilee

IN CELEBRATION of its Golden Jubilee this month, the famed Moscow Art Theater will be signally honored by the people it has served so well in a half century of devotion to the improvement of dramatic art.

The Soviet Government, together with leaders in the nation's cultural life, distinguished visitors from distant cities of the USSR, and from abroad, will participate in the anniversary celebration.

During its 50 years of existence, the Moscow Art Theater has earned the profound love and admiration of the people. It has played an outstanding role in the development of Russian, as well as of world theatrical art. All progressive theaters of the world are learning from this theater the truthful portrayal of art and unfolding the essence of dramatic works.

For its outstanding services to the people, the Art Theater has been awarded the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labor. Orders and medals, Stalin Prizes and titles of People's Artist and Honored Artist have been conferred upon members of the theater's company for their work.

A special Government Committee has been named by the Soviet Government to conduct the jubilee celebrations. It consists of outstanding representatives of Soviet culture. The Committee of Arts of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, the All-Russian Theatrical Society and Soviet public organizations have mapped out extensive programs for the event throughout the country.

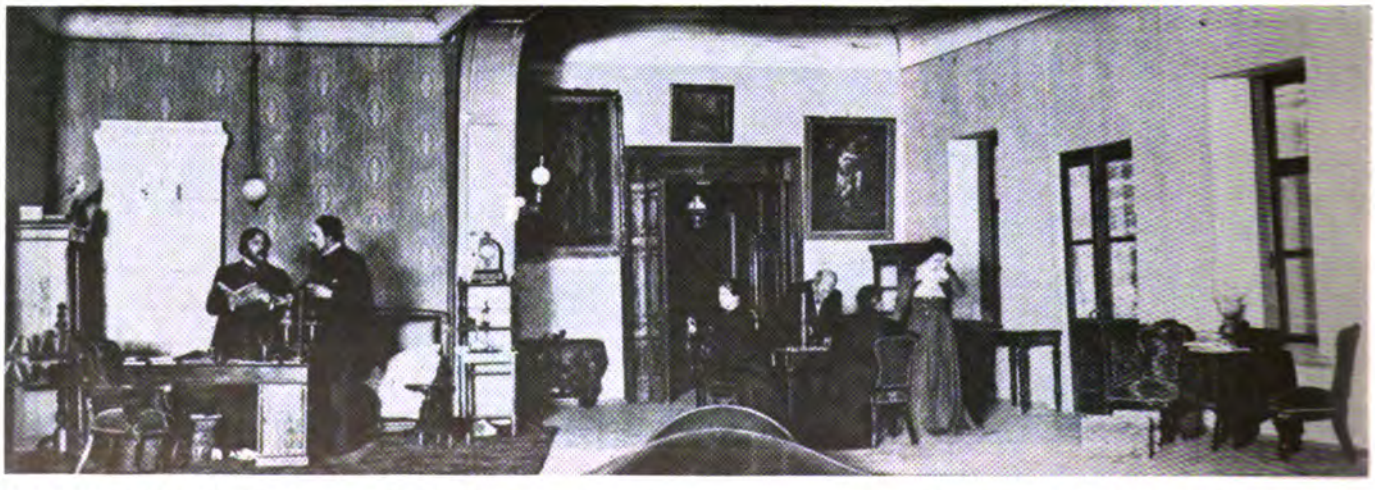
The Moscow Art Theater was founded October 27, 1898 by Constantine Stanislavsky, stage producer and actor, and Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko, playwright.

The two men first met in June, 1897, when they spent a whole afternoon and a sleepless night discussing a new theater. Essentially, the company of the new theater was made up of two groups, Stanislavsky's amateurs of the club stage, and Nemirovich-Danchenko's students—young people who had just completed a course of dramatic training. There was not a single recognized actor of any standing in the whole company.

As a part of the jubilee celebration, the Theater will issue *The Art Theater's Yearbook* in several volumes. The first contains Constantine Stanislavsky's producer's score of Maxim Gorky's *The Lower Depths,* with numerous scene etchings made by the great producer in 1902, as well as V. Nemirovich-Danchenko's producer's exposition of Griboyedov's *Wit Works Woe.*

IVAN MOSKVIN. He played Tsar Fyodor for 46 years of long career.

The *Yearbook* contains chapters of the unpublished second volume of Stanislavsky's book *The Actor Prepares,* on singing and diction, elocution, the perspective of the actor and his role, physical culture and other topics. A number of the articles in the *Yearbook* are devoted to Ivan Moskvin, one of the Moscow Art Theater's outstanding actors. The volume also contains Nemirovich-Danchenko's justly-famed *Talks With the Youth.*



FINAL SCENE of "SEAGULL." This 1898 photo shows the Moscow Art Theater's staging of Chekhov's famous play.

The fame of the Art Theater is truly world-wide, and its influence on the theatrical art of Europe, America and even the East cannot be overestimated.

According to the idea of its founders, the Moscow Art Theater was to have catered to the democratic population at large. This cultural mission was combined with a bold quest for new forms based on scenic art reform which the Theater had introduced at the beginning of the twentieth century. The Art Theater showed itself to be a theater of a new psychological trend, and its art was the art of living realism and profound human experience. Before a new play is staged, the producer subjects it to a deep psychological analysis. Both producer and cast endeavor first to discover the motives that govern the actions of the characters. This method is what constitutes the famous "Stanislavsky system," which the author himself defined as "a method of work which enables the actor to create the character of his role, to reveal the workings of the human soul and embody it on the stage in a beautiful artistic form."

The Theater opened with the production of Alexei Constantinovich Tolstoy's historical tragedy, *Tsar Fyodor,* a play which is still in the Theater's repertoire.

The Theater demonstrated its magnificent art during its opening season with a fine and subtle performance of *The Seagull,* by the famous Russian author and playwright, Anton Chekhov. This play, which had not met with success in the other theaters where it had been staged, was the Art Theater's first and overwhelming triumph. It was also the beginning of the fruitful collaboration and firm friendship that sprang up between the Art Theater and the great writer. *The Seagull* became the Theater's emblem, and its drop curtain is embellished with the figure of a gull in flight over the sea.

Although the "new forms" met with some grumbling and venomous sarcasm on the part of some critics, these first two productions assured the future of the Moscow Art Theater.

Once these attacks failed, the Theater's antagonists resorted to slander and denunciation and finally to censorship and meddling in the Theater's affairs by the tsarist authorities and the police.

Not a single play got through the censorship without having had everything dealing with public life cut out. Whole scenes were expurgated from *Tsar Fyodor.*

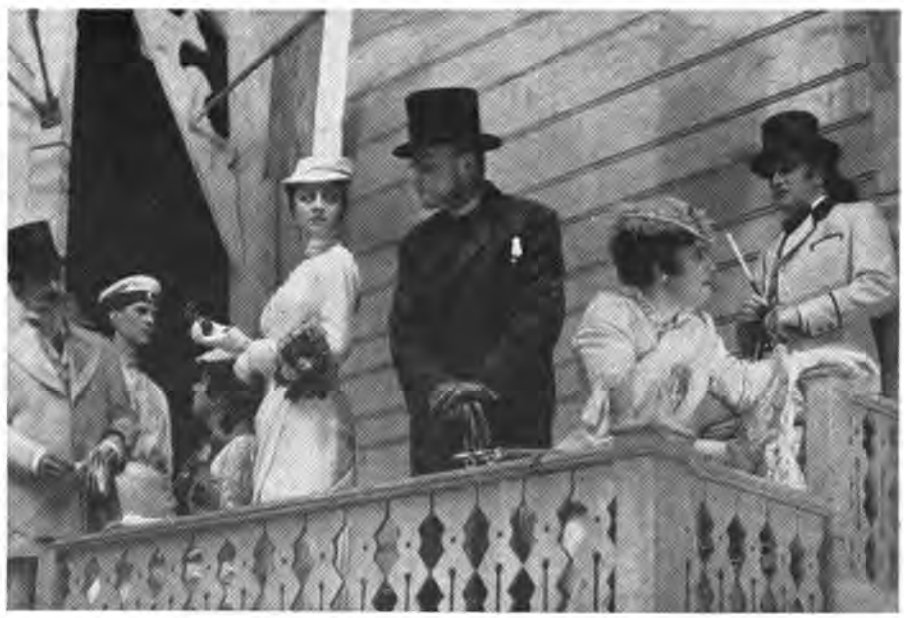
Still later performances were given with a dozen armed gendarmes under the stage, with countless seats in the auditorium occupied by plain-clothes men. Even the jobs of the ushers were taken by constables in tailcoats.

But despite these measures, the Moscow Art Theater moved ahead and from its stage rang out the truthful words of Chekhov, Gorky, Ostrovsky and other Russian and world classical writers.

Stanislavsky credited Gorky with being "the principal initiator and founder of the social-political line of our theater." Gorky in his turn wrote rapturously of "The Art Theater—that is as good and significant as the Tretiakov Gallery, St. Basil's Cathedral and all that is the very best in Moscow. Not to love it is impossible, not to work for it is a crime."

Chekhov's finest plays—*The Three*

"THE LOWER DEPTHS." Here Stanislavsky plays Satin and Olga Knipper, Nastya (1902).



"ANNA KARENINA". The horse-race scene. Karenin (Nikolai Khmelev) is center and Anna (Alla Tarasova) far right.

"DEAD SOULS." Here Ivan Moskvin is Nozdrev (right) and Vassili Toporkov plays Chichikov.

"HAMLET." Scene from the Moscow Art Theater's 1911 production of Shakespeare's tragedy.

"OUT IN THE WORLD." Scene from Gorky's play shows Mikhail Tarkhanov as Semyonov, the bakery owner.

Sisters, and *The Cherry Orchard*—were especially written for the Art Theater, which takes pride in the fact that one of the most important chapters in the Theater's history is its staging of all of Chekhov's plays. Shortly before the Second World War, Nemirovich-Danchenko presented a revival of *The Three Sisters,* and the 1946-1947 program included a revival of *Uncle Vanya.*

Close ties also existed between the Art Theater and Gorky. When Gorky first made his brilliant appearance on the literary horizon as the past century drew to a close, the Art Theater persuaded the author to try his hand at playwriting. The results were the plays *Philistines* and *The Lower Depths,* with which Gorky's work made its debut on the stage of the Art Theater in 1902. The production of *The Lower Depths* was both an artistic triumph and an event of no little social importance. In this play—which depicts the life of men and women inmates of a "flophouse"—both the author and the Theater asserted their belief in the ultimate triumph of social justice.

After the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917, Maxim Gorky's plays became still greater favorites on the stage of the Art Theater, which rendered fine performances of *The Lower Depths* and *Enemies* and of his new plays *Yegor Bulychev and Others, Distigayev and Others,* etc.

Gorky's struggle to remodel life on the principles of justice has been one of the fundamental elements of the Theater's creative activity, and, on the thirty-fifth anniversary of the great writer's literary career, the Moscow Art Theater was named in his honor—it is now properly known as the Moscow Gorky Academic Art Theater of the USSR.

In addition to plays by Chekhov and Gorky, the Theater has been producing other leading classics—Gogol, Griboyedov, Pushkin, Leo Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Sophocles, Shakespeare, Byron, Ostrovsky, Turgenev and Saltykov-Shchedrin, as well as Moliere, Sheridan, Goldoni, Ibsen and dramatizations of Dickens. It is nevertheless characteristic of the Theater that it keeps abreast of modern dramaturgy and is constantly seeking authors whose

CIVIL WAR PLAY. This scene "on the belfry" is from "Armored Train 14-69," a play by V. Ivanov.

works meet its artistic and ideological demands, as the work of Chekhov and Gorky did in their time. Among the modern Soviet plays produced by the Theater, mention may be made of the first plays by Leonid Leonov, Vsevolod Ivanov, Valentin Katayev and Mikhail Bulgakov. Among the newer plays the theater has presented are *The Kremlin Chimes* by Nikolai Pogodin, *Deep Prospecting* and *Officer of the Fleet* by Alexander Kron, and *Ivan Grozny* by Alexei Tolstoy.

After the brilliant production of a dramatic version of Leo Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* in 1937, the Moscow Art Theater was awarded the Order of Lenin—the first theater in the Soviet Union to receive that honor. The Theater was later awarded the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

The Art Theater's oldest actor is Olga Knipper-Chekhova, People's Artist of the USSR and widow of Anton Chekhov. She played in the Theater's first production.

The fine company of the Moscow Art Theater contains numerous talented actors of the older and newer generation, including Alla Tarasova, Klavdia Yelanskaya, Olga Androvskaya, Nikolai Dobronravov and Alexei Gribov, to mention only a few. The art director of the Theater is Mikhail Kedrov, a pupil of Stanislavsky and an authority on the latter's system.

The Moscow Art Theater has staged 113 plays since its foundation, giving 18 thousand performances to an audience of over twenty million people. Such plays as Gorky's *The Lower Depths*, Chekhov's *The Cherry Orchard* and Maeterlinck's *Blue Bird* have had runs of over one thousand nights each, and A. K. Tolstoy's *Tsar Fyodor* has been performed more than eight hundred times.

The unassuming exterior of this famous theater is decorated with a bas-relief by Vrubel. The interior decoration and stage equipment make it one of the finest playhouses in the country. Its stage permits the most lavish settings and at the same time is peculiarly adapted for the performance of intimate psychological plays.

A number of studios were formed at the Moscow Art Theater after the October Revolution, which have since developed into independent playhouses (the Vakhtangov Theater, the Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko Musical Theater and the Stanislavsky Theater of Opera and Drama). At the present time the Art Theater maintains a studio school named after Nemirovich-Danchenko, where young actors are being trained in the traditions of the Moscow Art Theater.

The jubilee of the Moscow Art Theater will be marked by the entire country. Art scholars will give lectures and talks on the creative development of the Theater in colleges and universities, in schools and military detachments. The lectures will be accompanied by the films *Masters of the Moscow Art Theater* and recordings of excerpts from the Theater's productions.

On October 27, jubilee sessions dedicated to the fiftieth anniversary of the Art Theater will be held in Moscow and in all theaters throughout the country.

The Committee of Arts of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, is issuing an album of phonograph records of scenes from the best productions of the Moscow Art Theater, including unique recordings by the Theater's outstanding celebrities.

The entire company of the Moscow Art Theater is conducting extensive activities connected with the jubilee. The Theater's actors will appear before the workers and the industrial intelligentsia of Moscow's enterprises, before meetings of scientists, collective farmers, college students, school children. Actors of the Moscow Art Theater will go to Leningrad and to many other cities of the Soviet Union.

A ten-day festival will be held in Moscow during which the Art Theater will present the best performances it has produced in the past 50 years.

Lectures on *The Moscow Art Theater in Reminiscences of Its Contemporaries* will be given in all theaters and concert halls of the capital. Among the speakers will be the Theater's first spectators who attended its performances in the first years of its existence; Teleshev, one of the oldest Russian writers; Professor Goldenweiser, the famous pianist; Zelinsky and Obraztsov, members of the USSR Academy of Sciences; Bakhrushin, historian of Moscow; Kenenkov, sculptor; Roksanova, the actress, first to perform the role of Nina Zaryechnaya in Chehov's *Sea Gull*.

A series of books, pamphlets and albums about the Moscow Art Theater and its actors will be issued for the jubilee.

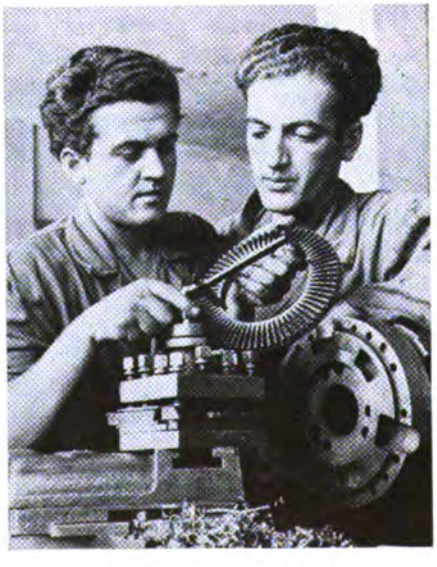
MT. ARARAT. The world-famous mountain forms the backdrop for this view of Erevan, capital of Soviet Armenia.

CANAL MODEL. At the Armenian Academy of Sciences, model of a canal on the Gedar River, is being tested.

ALARM CLOCKS. Erevan has many large enterprises, most of which developed in the postwar period.

NEW CARS. Chemical Engineer I. Gasparyan enters his "Moskvich."

OPERA HOUSE. The Spendiarov Opera House in Erevan retains the native architectural style.



REPATRIATES. The Rumiany brothers, Levon and Arutiun, came from Syria to their native Armenia.

NEW APARTMENT. Construction will increase dwelling space for more than two thousand repatriates.

Socialism Builds New Armenia

From an article by S. Karapetyan

Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic

WHEN the Armenian people smashed the chains of oppression and reaction and established their Soviet socialist republic on November 29, 1920, tremendous obstacles stood in the way.

For we inherited a country ravaged by hunger and epidemics; and the criminal policy of the *dashnaks*—the native agents of imperialism—had driven our people to the very verge of physical extinction at the hands of the western imperialists.

Soviet power not only saved the Armenian people from extinction but it enabled us to enter an era of abundance and security and culture.

ALTHOUGH our country possesses tremendous natural wealth, it had no national industry before the Revolution. Under Soviet power, Armenia has been transformed from a backward hinterland of tsarist Russia into a highly-industrialized Republic.

Our Republic has built more than 360 factories and mills, including scores of machine-building, chemical, nonferrous metal and other plants. Today, the output of large-scale industry alone is more than 25 times the level of total industrial production in Armenia in 1913.

Under the postwar Five-Year Plan our Republic is scheduled to raise industrial production in 1950 to more than double the prewar level. We are now expanding the old and creating new branches of production. The capital investments allocated for Armenia's industry under the Plan amount to nearly 1,500,000,000 rubles.

The Armenian people are successfully carrying out their assignments under the provisions of the Five-Year Plan. Eight new enterprises are already in operation; they include a cable plant, a sugar refinery, and woolen mills. More enterprises will start production before the end of 1948.

We are devoting special attention to the Sevan project. The purpose of this project is to place the power resources of Lake Sevan, located in the highlands, at the service of the people. The waters of Sevan will turn the turbines of powerful electric stations, supply power to hundreds of industrial enterprises, and irrigate tens of thousands of hectares* of barren land. The first steps have already been taken: work is under way on the construction of an underground hydroelectric station and on other phases of the project. Construction has also started on the Gyumush hydroelectric station on the River Zanga, which will generate more than double the volume of electricity

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

IMPROVING EREVAN. Work in Armenia's capital city will cost 133 million rubles in 1948.

now produced by all the power stations of Armenia.

This year—the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—as in the previous two years, the Republic's industry has been surpassing its production plans from month to month. During the second quarter of 1948, gross output increased by 27 per cent over the corresponding period of 1947; a still greater increase was achieved by many individual industries. The production of superphosphates, for example, rose 52 per cent, of tires, 80 per cent, of confectionary products, 109 per cent. Industrial production in the Republic has considerably surpassed the prewar level. And, as in all the other Soviet republics, the workers, the engineers and the technicians of Armenia are working to complete the Five-Year Plan in four years.

AGRICULTURAL production in tsarist Armenia was primitive. About 70 per cent of the land belonged to the monasteries, landlords and *kulaks* (rich villagers). The wooden plow was the dominant implement of production. The Revolution changed all that. The Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic is proud of the level of mechanization and of the scope that has been attained by its advanced socialist agriculture.

The peasants of Soviet Armenia have received more than 1,500,000 hectares of land for their perpetual use, free of charge. The cultivated area has been increased to more than five times the cultivated area of 1919; the tobacco plantations have expanded 85 times and the potato plantations 15 times during the same period. The Republic now has more than one thousand collective farms, and 40 machine-and-tractor stations, which have large numbers of tractors, combines and other agricultural machines.

The postwar years have been marked by a considerable rise in the crop yields. The 1947 gross grain crop of our Republic was 32 per cent higher than the 1946 crop. There was as well a substantial increase in the crops of cotton, sugar beet, tobacco and potatoes. The successful efforts of the Armenian peasantry to boost their crops has received recognition from the Soviet Government: the Soviet Union's highest title, that of Hero of Socialist Labor, was conferred upon 19 men and women collective farmers of Armenia, and decorations were awarded to an additional several hundred.

In the field of livestock farming the collective farms also have major successes to their credit. In 1947, they brought their herds and the fecundity of the herds to prewar standards.

The results of the current agricultural year have well rewarded the persistent efforts of the collective farmers. Last spring we expanded the area sown with cotton, tobacco, sugar beet and perennial grasses to the acreage, which, under the provisions of the Five-Year Plan, was to be sown in 1950. The accomplishments of 1940 have been left far behind. The harvests of grain and tobacco far exceed the harvests of 1940. On September 2, our collective farms completed the annual sales of grain to the State ahead of the scheduled date, selling 3,100 tons more than they sold to the State last year. This was a great victory for the collective farmers of Armenia, who pledged to raise for sale to the State hundreds of tons of grain over and above the planned amount.

Moreover, the last few years have witnessed the extensive development of irrigation in Armenia. The area under irrigation has been expanded from year to year, and now equals more than 200 thousand hectares—more than three times the area under irrigation in 1919. The task before us now is to irrigate an additional 65 thousand hectares. This will be achieved when the construction of the first section of the Talin Canal is completed in 1949. The construction of the Arzni-Shamiram Canal—which is to be one hundred kilometers* in length—will begin next year, and by 1950 we shall have reclaimed 18 thousand hectares of swampland in the Ararat Valley.

Electricity was unknown on farms in the old Armenia. Begun before the war, the electrification of the Armenian collective farms has attained sweeping scope during the postwar period. By the end of 1948 we shall have furnished electricity to one-third of all the collective farms in Armenia, and it is expected that in 1950 every Armenian collective farm will be electrified.

The Soviet system and the collectivization of agriculture have completely changed Armenian farm life. Prosperity and happiness have come to the Armenian peasant—who before the Revolution suffered from the lack of land, and from constant hunger and poverty.

TRAINING IN ART. Armenian repatriates are lectured by Ara Sarksyan, sculptor who heads the Erevan State Arts Institute.

THE Armenian people, intensely proud of their age-old culture, could not enjoy this culture before the Revolution. In 1912, for example, the Tsar allocated a mere 400 thousand rubles (36 kopecks per capita) for Armenian

* One kilometer=.621 of one mile.

education. Eighty-five per cent of the Armenian people were illiterate. And in 1920 Armenia had only 116 schools, with a total attendance of 18,500 students.

The victory of the Soviet system brought with it a real cultural revolution. Now our Republic has 1,154 schools with an attendance of more than 300 thousand students. By 1940, illiteracy had been completely wiped out. This year 475 million rubles—nearly half the republican budget—is allocated for public education. Tens of thousands of young men and women are attending colleges and technical schools in Armenia.

Science and engineering are making unprecedented progress in Armenia. More than 30 research institutes and laboratories are functioning under the auspices of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian SSR—which was founded during the Second World War; the results of its research in physics, mathematics, chemistry, geology, agronomy and social sciences have received recognition far beyond the borders of the Republic. A. Alikhanyan, A. Alikhanov, V. Amburtsumyan and other distinguished Armenian scientists have been awarded Stalin Prizes for outstanding scientific discoveries.

Equally noteworthy are our achievements in music, dramatic art, painting and sculpture.

Books and newspapers are published in the Armenian language in huge editions; a large chain of cultural and educational institutions operates in the cities and on the collective farms—culture, national in form and socialist in content, has become accessible to the broadest sections of the Armenian people.

This fact was strikingly illustrated by the recent commemoration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the death of Khachatur Abovyan, founder of modern Armenian literature. The entire population of the Republic participated in the preparations for the anniversary. Tens of thousands of working people studied the works of the great writer.

The time of darkness and ignorance is gone forever in this land, and the unfading light of socialist culture shines for all the working people of Armenia.

EREVAN AIRFIELD. Passengers board the Moscow plane, which makes the trip in eight hours.

TIME and time again, over the course of centuries, the Armenians were banished from their land, persecuted, forced to seek refuge in foreign countries.

But now the people's dream of reunion has been realized. Gratifying the longing of ten of thousands of Armenian residents in foreign countries, the Soviet Government granted permission to Armenians who were banished by the Turks from their native land and scattered through the whole world, to return to their motherland. This mass repatriation of Armenians began in 1946.

It is impossible to overestimate the significance of this historic event. The Armenian people, a good half of whom were scattered throughout the world as a result of the brutalities committed by the reactionary rulers of Turkey, have been granted the opportunity to reunite in their native land.

Nearly 90 thousand Armenians have come to Soviet Armenia in the past two years from Iran, Syria, Lebanon, Bulgaria, Greece, America, France, Palestine and other countries. They received a hearty welcome from the working people of our Republic. The repatriates enjoy all the benefits of the Soviet social system—the great democratic rights guaranteed to Soviet citizens by the Stalin Constitution.

The repatriated Armenians are given every attention in our Republic. They have been provided with employment. They are taking an active part in public life. Many of these repatriates have been highly honored by the people, who have elected them to the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

The local authorities are paying special attention to the provision of housing for the repatriates. Long before their arrival, the Government of Armenia arranged for the necessary housing facilities for the repatriates in the cities and villages of the Republic. Long-term credits (30 thousand rubles to a family) are advanced to those who wish to build their own homes. With the aid of these credits, 2,500 such homes have been built. Moreover, more than two thousand apartment houses have been built by the ministries and local soviets, and an additional two thousand are under construction.

Armenian repatriates continue to arrive from other countries. Two thousand Armenians recently arrived at the port of Batumi (Soviet Georgia). Speaking on behalf of the new arrivals, A. Taratsyan, a Doctor of Science, declared: "We have come to our Soviet motherland, of which we have dreamed for so many years. We are all eager to work for the benefit of our beloved country. Our happiness is unbounded. And our ardent expression of heartfelt gratitude is addressed first and foremost to the Soviet Government and to the wise leader of the peoples, Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin."

Reunited in their native land, our industrious people will work with even greater energy and persistence in order to heighten their prosperity and strengthen the might of our glorious Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Woman Judge in Moscow District Is Arbiter for People

By Eugene Mar

TAMARA Arzhanova is a people's judge in the ninth precinct, Bauman District of Moscow. Her precinct can be compared in size with a small town. It has 18 large industrial plants, a theater, several hospitals, scientific research institutes, dozens of schools and children's institutions. It is inhabited by 80 thousand workers, employees and other families. And it would be hard to find a person more popular with these people than Judge Arzhanova. The number of cases coming before the judge is small, and decreasing from year to year, but very many people turn to her for help and advice in their everyday problems.

Tamara Arzhanova is 38 years old. Her husband, Nikolai Arzhanov, works in one of the Ministries. They have three children, the oldest of whom is ten, the youngest—a year and ten months. Arzhanova is a graduate of a law institute and has been living and working almost continuously, since her graduation, in this district. She has been re-elected people's judge four times.

She was born in the Ukraine in the miner's town of Kadievka. Her father, grandfather and great-grandfather were miners. Tamara Arzhanova's father, a worker and Communist, was a people's judge in 1918 and was killed by a whiteguard-bandit.

Tamara Arzhanova, like her father, serves the cause of Soviet justice.

When you speak with this attractive woman it is hard to imagine her in the judge's chair. But attendance at any of her court sessions is enough to convince one of Judge Arzhanova's tact and her thorough knowledge of the laws. The sessions, under Soviet law, are open to the public.

Another distinguishing feature of the Soviet court is that it conducts its activity in public sessions with defendants, plaintiffs and witnesses having the right to address the court in their own tongue, and having the right to the services of an interpreter.

PEOPLE'S JUDGE. Tamara Arzhanova outside her courtroom.

The Soviet court is independent and is subordinated only to the law. It acts on behalf of the state—which expresses the interests of all the working people.

Another distinctive feature of the Soviet court is that all citizens are equal regardless of nationality, political and religious convictions. The Soviet court knows no exceptions or privileges in dispensing justice.

By careful investigating each case on the basis of Soviet laws, and unraveling the picture of the crime or circumstances of a civil case, the Soviet court does not turn the trial into a public show. Trials in the Soviet Union avoid the artificial sensationalism and whipping-up of an unhealthy interest in the personality of the criminal, so typical of the courts and the press in capitalist countries.

According to Soviet law anyone may appeal decisions of the people's court to a higher court, including the Supreme Court of the USSR. However, of all the cases heard by Arzhanova last year, only four cases were appealed.

Arzhanova makes extensive use of the right given her by Soviet law to mitigate a sentence or to free the accused when he has vioated the law either because he lacked a sense of civic duty or because of ignorance. This woman judge is, at the same time, severe and unbending when persons who have knowingly violated the law are brought before her.

Once she heard a case where the head of a supply department of a plant had appropriated building materials designated for the construction of dwelling houses. The severe sentence pronounced by the judge was warmly applauded by the spectators in the hall.

I attended the court session when Alexander Karmanyuk, a storeroom clerk unlawfully dismissed by the manager of a shop, was reinstated by decision of the court. The workers know well that they will get help and protection from the people's judge whenever their legal rights have been infringed.

The judge's work is not confined to the courtroom nor to the conference room to which the judge retires to confer with her assessors and to determine the sentence. Five times a week—two mornings and three evenings—the judge also receives all those desirous of getting consultation and advice. During this time many cases which might have become court cases are settled. Judge Arzhanova reconciles husband and wife come for a divorce; or, after a talk over the telephone gets a reversal of an unlawful decision made by the management of a plant.

Cases in court are decided by the judge and two people's assessors, selected in rotation from an elected panel of seventy. Each assessor serves ten days a year. During this time assessors are relieved from their regular work and receive their average earn-

ings for that period. Most of the people's assessors are workers with long service records and great experience in life. They represent the most diverse professions: fitters, blacksmiths, needleworkers, cooks, medical workers, barbers, etc. All the people's assessors, like the judge herself, are answerable to their electors.

In the past half year alone, Judge Tamara Arzhanova has made fourteen reports to her constituents on her work. She has, in addition, given a series of lectures in which she explained Soviet laws to the working people, because ignorance of the law is frequently a cause for its violation. The judge regularly acquaints the people's assessors with changes made in the laws. According to Soviet law, sentence is passed by a majority of the members of the court: the judge and two people's assessors. If one or another member of the court does not agree with the sentence he may have his own opinion recorded in the minutes and may protest the sentence. If the opinion of the judge differs from that of the people's assessors the decision of the majority holds. However, in Judge Arzhanova's long court practice, there has not been a single case of disagreement between her and the people's assessors. She readily heeds their advice, respecting and valuing the great experience of these people.

A study of Judge Arzhanova's precinct is convincing proof that crime is steadily decreasing in the Soviet land. The number of criminal cases heard in the ninth precinct during the past year has decreased greatly. There was not a single case, for example, of racial discrimination, which according to Soviet law, is a severely punishable crime.

In many respects Tamara Arzhanova is a typical Soviet people's judge. This daughter of a simple miner loyally serves the people who have elected her to her high position.

There are many women judges in the USSR. One of Judge Azhanova's colleagues of the Moscow bench, People's Judge Polina Grigorieva of the Timiryazev district, is also the daughter of a worker.

Judge Grigorieva started out in a clothing factory and its workers put her up for people's assessor. As she gained experience, and while still working in the factory, she took a correspondence course from the Moscow Judicial Institute and graduated in 1945.

Elected as judge of the very district in which she had been serving as people's assessor, Grigorieva then devoted herself entirely to the law.

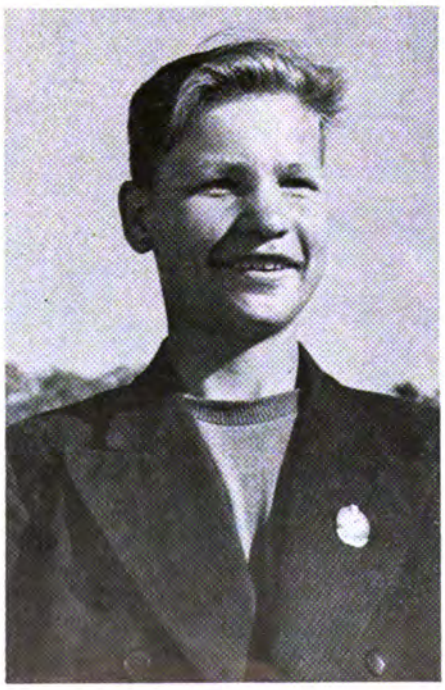
Writing of her experience, she said recently "In the USSR judges are independent and are subordinate only to the laws. This gives the Soviet lawyer great rights in defending the interests of the citizens. I get much satisfaction from my work. I am proud of the fact I am trusted to look after the precise fulfillment of the most just laws, the laws of the Soviet state. This feeling cannot be familiar to the legal profession of the bourgeois countries where all of the juridical institutions are used as a means of suppressing the working class. . . .

"The Soviet court is a just court. I love my country because its laws are humane."

COURT IN SESSION. People's Judge Tamara Arzhanova sits with two People's Assessors.

Soviet News in Pictures

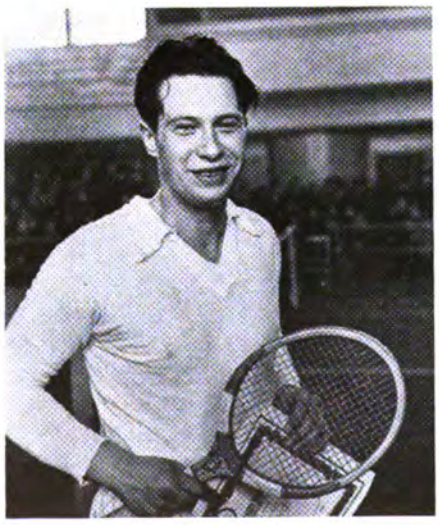
AUTO WORKERS STUDY. This branch of the Lenin State Library in Moscow is in the Auto Workers' Palace of Culture.



MODEL PLANE MAKER. Nikolai Gorin's plane broke a world record.

FOLK ART ON MACHINE. Fabrics reproducing traditional folk art styles are made in this Lithuanian factory.

DISCUS CHAMP. Nina Dumbadze holds European and USSR titles.



NIKOLAI OZEROV. Ex-tennis champ acts in Moscow Art Theater.

SLAV DANCE. This is the big dance ringside Suite done on a high art ensembles.

PROVINCIAL POWER. Hydro-electric pl

ainian Springtide Suite. Folk dancing is
by Soviet ensembles.

enetrated the Kara-Kolsu gorge in remote
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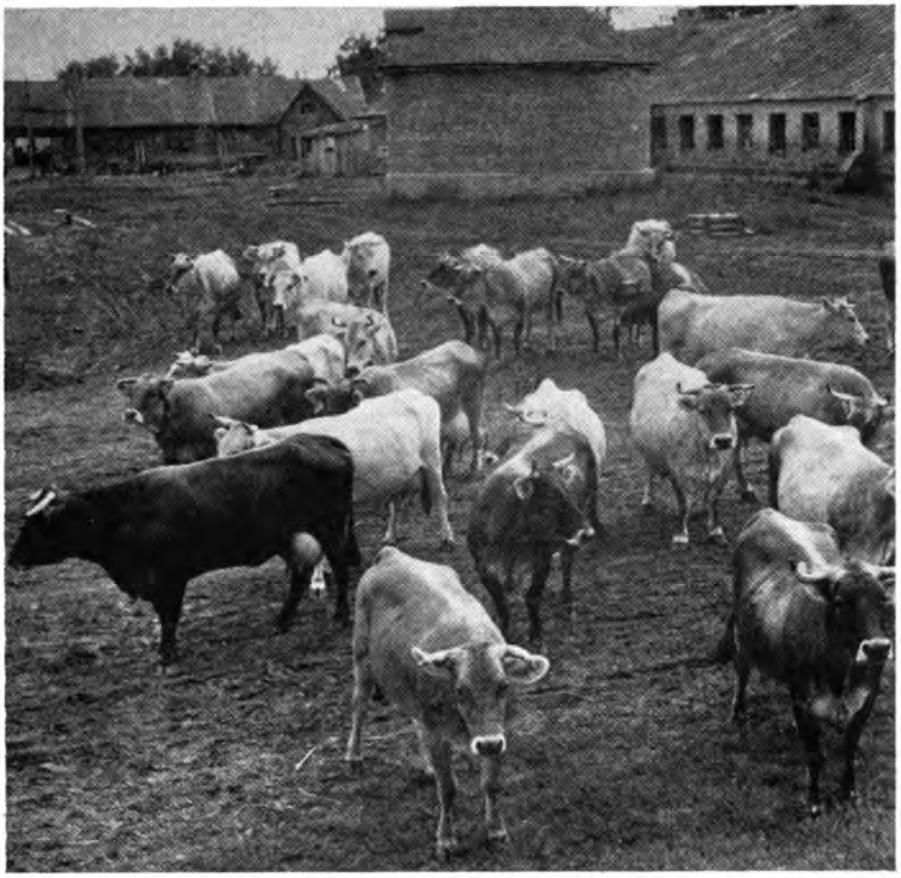

CATTLE OFF PASTURE. As winter's storms approach, cows are brought to feed lots. These are on the Volga state farm "Karavayevo."

ALPINISTS REST. Mountain climbing is a popular sport. These men are resting after climb in the Pamirs.

Official Soviet Text

USSR Clarifies Stand on Berlin

On September 26, the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France addressed to the Government of the USSR notes of identical content on the question of the situation in Berlin.

On October 3, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, V. M. Molotov, addressed to the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and France the following reply of the Soviet Government:

I

THE Government of the USSR has acquainted itself with the note of the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France, dated September 26, and considers it necessary to declare that responsibility for the situation which has arisen in Berlin rests fully with the Governments of the three powers. The very question of the situation in Berlin did not exist until the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France proceeded to carry through a separate currency reform in the Western zones of Germany and in the three sectors of Berlin. At the same time it is well-known that the above-mentioned separate currency reform was only one of the last measures, and a particularly far-reaching one, in carrying through the policy of dismembering Germany, which placed the Western zones of Germany beyond the control of the four powers.

The Government of the United States, together with the Government of Great Britain, began the policy of dismembering Germany with the separate economic unification of the American and British zones of occupation of Germany in 1946, despite the agreement of the powers of the anti-Hitlerite coalition on the German question, at the Potsdam conference. Thereby the agreement previously concluded by the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and France regarding joint control of the four powers over occupied Germany was also grossly violated. At that time it was sought to justify this by economic considerations and it was argued that the union of the two zones did not lead either to the dismemberment of Germany or to the violation of the policy of demilitarization and democratization agreed upon by the four powers. Actually, however, operation of this policy of the three powers in Western Germany, separated from the rest of Germany, is leading increasingly to the growth of influence of the anti-democratic and Nazi elements who are responsible for the previous aggressive policy of German imperialism and who have not given up their strivings for revenge which are a threat not only to the neighboring countries but also to the security of the peoples of the whole of Europe. Lately, particularly in connection with the realization of the Marshall Plan, a real danger has been created of the war economic potential being re-established in Western Germany, a situation which violates the Potsdam agreement among the powers and contradicts the interests of all the peace-loving countries.

Since then, operation of this policy of the United States, Great Britain and France has gone so far that in the spring of this year there was adopted at the London conference of the three western powers—with the participation of Benelux—a plan to set up a West German state, separated from the rest of Germany and placed beyond the control of the four powers. The setting up of a government for Western Germany was placed on the order of the day. This decision of the three Western Powers is leading to the consummation of the political and economic dismemberment of Germany, with all its dangerous consequences.

With a view to preparing the fulfillment of the plan for the final dismemberment of Germany, in June of this year a separate currency reform was carried through in the American, British and French zones of occupation of Germany and in the three sectors of Berlin, where a special currency—the Western "B" mark—was introduced. Had there been no separate currency reform, which in respect to currency and finance dismembered not only Germany but also Berlin, which is in the center of the Soviet zone, no question of the situation in Berlin would have existed at all, as it did not exist before June of this year, i.e., before the currency reform which was carried through separately by the three Western Powers.

Such a position compelled the Soviet Command to permit the issue of a German mark of the Soviet zone, and at the same time to introduce those transport restrictions without which —with the various currencies existing in different parts of Germany and Berlin—it was impossible to safeguard the interests of the German population and to secure the normal economic life of the Soviet zone—in particular the economic life of Berlin—against disorganization. This means that had there been no separate currency reform in violation of the agreement between the four powers—and which created the danger of the disorganization of the entire economic life in the Soviet zone and in Berlin—there also would have been no need for the aforementioned transport restrictions, which represent a defensive, protective measure of the Soviet Government against the offensive actions of the three Governments.

The Governments of the three powers continue to speak of their rights in relation to the administration of Berlin, based on the well-known agreements of the four powers regarding the joint administration of Germany and Berlin. But the right of the four Governments to administer Berlin, which is situated in the center of the Soviet zone of occupation, has meaning only if Germany is recognized as being a single state, and Berlin is recognized as being its capital. Insofar, however, as the three Governments have separated Western Germany from Eastern Germany and are establishing a separate state there, the

right to administer Berlin by these Governments loses meaning. By their separate actions in the Western zones of Germany and in the three sectors of Berlin, the USA, Great Britain and France have destroyed the system of the quadripartite administration of both Germany and Berlin, and thereby have undermined the legal basis which ensured their right to participation in the administration of Berlin. However, the Soviet Government has not objected to the presence in Berlin of the occupation troops of the three powers, a point which was confirmed by Premier Stalin during his meeting with the representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France on August 2.

Nonetheless, when two months ago the Governments of the United States, Great Britain, and France proposed that practical measures be jointly drawn for regulating the situation in Berlin, the Government of the USSR agreed. The negotiations which followed in Moscow and Berlin were incorrectly reflected in the note of the Government of the United States dated September 26, thus rendering it necessary to go into greater detail as to the factual side of the matter.

II

DURING the negotiations that began in Moscow, Premier J. V. Stalin, on August 2, made the following proposals to the representatives of the USA, Great Britain, and France:

(a) The Soviet Command shall annul the transport restrictions recently introduced between Berlin and the Western zones.

(b) Simultaneously there shall be introduced in Berlin as the sole currency, the German mark of the Soviet zone, while the Western "B" mark shall be withdrawn from circulation in Berlin.

In addition, Premier J. V. Stalin expressed the insistent wish that the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France should postpone fulfillment of the London decisions regarding the establishment of the government of the Western part of Germany until the representatives of the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France could meet together to discuss the question of Germany as a whole. This question was then repeatedly discussed during meetings between Premier J. V. Stalin and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, V. M. Molotov, with the representatives of the three powers.

As a result of the negotiations that took place with the representatives of the above-mentioned three powers, an agreement was reached in Moscow on August 30 regarding the following directive to the four Commanders-in-Chief of the occupation troops in Berlin.

The Governments of France, the United Kingdom, the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have decided that the following measures shall be put into operation simultaneously on condition that agreement is reached between the four Commanders-in-Chief in Berlin regarding their practical fulfillment:

(a) Restrictions on communications, transport and trade between Berlin and the Western zones, and also freight movements to and from the Soviet zone of Germany, introduced lately, shall be lifted;

(b) The German mark of the Soviet zone shall be introduced as the sole currency for Berlin, and the Western "B" mark shall be withdrawn from circulation in Berlin.

In connection with the aforementioned, you are instructed to consult with your colleagues in order to carry through as soon as possible detailed measures necessary for the implementation of these decisions, and to inform your Government no later than September 7 regarding the results of your discussions, including the exact date when the measures provided for in points (a) and (b) can be given effect.

The four Commanders-in-Chief shall draw up measures connected with the introduction in Berlin of the German mark of the Soviet Zone.

Measures concerning exchange of currency and the further provision and utilization in Berlin of the German mark of the Soviet zone shall ensure:

(a) Absence of discrimination or of actions directed against holders of Western marks in connection with the exchange of these Western "B" marks issued in Berlin. These "B" marks shall be accepted in exchange for German marks of the Soviet zone at the rate of 1:1;

(b) Equal conditions as regards currency and provision of fully available banking and credit facilities in all sectors of Berlin. The four Commanders-in-Chief are instructed to provide sufficient guarantees with a view to averting a situation where the utilization in Berlin of the German mark of the Soviet zone leads to disorganization of the currency circulation or to violation of the stability of the currency in the Soviet zone of occupation;

(c) A satisfactory basis for trade between Berlin and the other countries and the Western zones of Germany. Changes in this agreed-upon basis shall only be carried through by agreement between the four Commanders-in-Chief;

(d) Provision of a sufficient quantity of currency for budget purposes and for occupation expenditures that have been reduced to a maximum extent, and also balancing of the Berlin budget.

The regulation of money circulation in Berlin is to be effected by the German Emission Bank of the Soviet zone through the credit institutions of Berlin now in operation.

To ensure control over the practical fulfillment of the aforementioned financial measures connected with the introduction and circulation of a single currency in Berlin, a financial commission is set up of representatives of the four Commanders-in-Chief.

The Note of the United States, Great Britain and France dated September 26 does not contain the text of the above-quoted, agreed-upon directive of the four Governments to the Commanders-in-Chief in Berlin. As regards the content of this directive and the views expressed by Premier J. V. Stalin, they are given in the note of the three Governments with considerable distortion.

It will be sufficient to point to the fact that in the agreed-upon directive of the four Governments addressed to the Commanders-in-Chief in Berlin—as can be seen from its text—precise indication is given of the functions of control by the quadripartite financial commission in relation to the financial measures connected with the introduction and circulation of a single currency in Berlin, that is, the German mark of the Soviet zone. At the same time it is definitely stated in the directive that quadripartite financial control is to be established over the introduction and circulation of a single currency in Berlin, but there is no mention anywhere of the fact that this also refers to the emission of the above-mentioned currency, insofar as this might lead to interference of the three powers in the regulation of the currency circulation throughout the Soviet zone. It goes without saying that the responsibility for the emission of the German mark of the Soviet zone cannot be borne by anybody other than the Soviet Command, which is responsible for the emission of this money by the German Emission Bank of the Soviet zone, since the entire economic life of the zone depends on the quantity of money in circulation. As is the case in the Western zones, where the emission of money is entirely subjected to the control of the occupation authorities of these zones, in the Soviet zone the emission of money should be under the control of the Soviet Command alone. Yet,

in the negotiations in Berlin, the Commanders-in-Chief of the Western zones demanded establishment of control by the three powers over the emission of money throughout the Soviet zone, thereby seeking to impose their control over the entire economic life of the Soviet zone. To this the representatives of the Soviet Union could not agree.

Despite the assertion in the note of the three Governments dated September 26, the text of the agreed-upon directive to the four Commanders-in-Chief makes no provision for quadripartite control over the emission of the German mark of the Soviet zone, especially for Berlin. Nor was this contained in Premier J. V. Stalin's remarks during the preliminary discussion of this directive. The Soviet Government utterly refutes such incorrect assertions—which are aimed at concealing the renunciation, by the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France, of the directive to the Commanders-in-Chief which was agreed upon by the four powers. Further, the attempts to counterpose the position of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief in Berlin to the position of the Soviet Government—as it is expressed in the directive agreed upon by the four powers—were rejected by the Soviet Government in its note as far back as September 18.

The Soviet Government has strictly adhered to the agreed-upon directive of August 30, which provides as simultaneous measures the lifting of transport restrictions between Berlin and the Western zones, and the introduction of the German mark of the Soviet zone as the sole currency in Berlin, with the establishment of quadripartite control over all financial measures in Berlin which were indicated in the directive. Insofar as this directive, in respect to currency and finance, establishes an equal position and equal facilities for all four sectors of Berlin, the Soviet Government regards this directive as a satisfactory basis for an agreement between the four powers.

As regards trade between Berlin and the Western zones and third countries, the Soviet Government, as is well known, has expressed agreement with the proposals made by the three Governments on this subject, and consequently no disagreement exists on this question.

There remained unsettled the question of establishing control over the transport of commercial freight and passengers along the air routes between Berlin and the Western zones. In view of the existence of two different currencies in the Western and Eastern parts of Germany, the need is quite obvious for the Soviet Command to have guarantees that use of the air transport will not be permitted for illegal currency and trading operations. This was unanimously admitted when V. M. Molotov on September 18 met with the representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France, when the United States representative stated: "It is quite understandable that the Soviet Government wishes to have certain guarantees against the utilization of air transport for illegal currency deals or black market operations. Satisfactory guarantees of such a kind could easily be secured." If the Governments of the three powers consider this statement to be correct, then the Soviet Government considers it quite possible to regulate the given question on a mutually acceptable basis.

Thus, disagreements on this question can also be overcome if there is a desire to reach an agreement which will satisfy all four powers.

Negotiations on the Berlin question opened up the possibility for an agreement being reached among the four powers on a mutually satisfactory basis, if the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France did not raise such claims as are incompatible with the rights of the USSR in the Soviet zone of occupation of Germany. The negotiations fell through despite the insignificance of the remaining disagreements, inasmuch as the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France refused to fulfill the directive for the Commanders-in-Chief agreed upon by the four powers.

III

DURING the negotiations between J. V. Stalin and V. M. Molotov and the representatives of the three powers in Moscow in August, not only was the Berlin question discussed, but so also was the question of Germany as a whole. Furthermore, on August 27, agreement was reached regarding the following text of the communique which was to be published after the conclusion of negotiations:

> The four Governments also agreed that apart from the conference of the four Commanders-in-Chief, conferences would take place in the near future between the representatives of the four Governments in the shape of a Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs or other conferences of representatives of the four powers to discuss:
>
> 1. Any unsettled questions concerning Berlin, and
>
> 2. Any other unsolved problems affecting Germany as a whole.

The concluding part of this communique, however, was not agreed upon—that part of the communique which was to have contained the reply of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France to the desire of the Soviet Government that the implementation of the London decisions regarding establishment of the Government of the Western part of Germany be postponed until the representatives of the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France could meet together to discuss the question of Germany as a whole. The Soviet Government was given assurance by the representatives of the three powers that the London decisions did not rule out the possibility of agreement among the four Governments regarding the establishment of a single government for the whole of Germany.

All this goes to show that the Governments of the three powers could not but admit the existence of a close connection between the question of Berlin and the question of Germany as a whole. At the same time this means that the solution of the question of Germany, including the Berlin question, has to be based on the fulfillment of the decisions agreed to among the four powers, and first and foremost on the fulfillment of the Postdam agreement and the agreement among the four powers regarding joint control over Germany.

Insofar as the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France resorted to the most serious violations of the Potsdam agreement and the other agreements among the four powers on the German question,

it is they who bear responsibility for the situation that has arisen in Germany and in Berlin. The above-mentioned three Governments have destroyed the mechanism of quadripartite control, in Germany and in Berlin. They have completely withdrawn the three Western zones of Germany from quadripartite control, in violation of the obligations undertaken by them. In Berlin, on the other hand, which is in the center of the Soviet zone, the three Governments are trying to establish a privileged position for themselves, by demanding the maintenance of rights based on the quadripartite agreements which they themselves have trod underfoot and have reduced to nothing. The false noise raised by them around the non-existent "blockade of Berlin" and their insistence on the immediate lifting of transport restrictions can only mean that they are trying to maintain in Berlin the special currency arbitrarily introduced by them and to secure a free hand for the uncontrolled import and export of goods—as a result of which Berlin would be transformed into a center of currency and goods speculation, a situation which cannot but lead to the disorganization of the entire economic life in the Soviet zone. Agreements were not reached regarding the lifting of transport restrictions and regarding the simultaneous introduction of a single currency in Berlin because of the refusal of the three Governments to come to an agreement regarding the guarantees necessary to avert disorganization of the economic life in the Soviet zone; now these Governments wish to wash their hands of their responsibility for the breakdown of negotiations. What is more, under the excuse of defending their rights in Berlin, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France are trying in fact to administer the Soviet zone of occupation of Germany, too, as regards currency and financial matters, so as in this way to deprive the USSR of its lawful rights in this part of Germany also, and in the last analysis to dislodge the USSR from there.

IV

HAVING caused the negotiations to fall through, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France are resorting to all sorts of unfounded and really ridiculous accusations against the USSR.

With their note of September 26, the Governments of the three powers did everything in their power to increase the noise around the question of the so-called "blockade of Berlin," although no "blockade of Berlin" exists in fact. The statements about the menace of starvation and epidemics in Berlin are absolutely without foundation and are false propaganda. There are sufficient supplies of food products in Berlin. The Soviet Government has already taken measures to ensure that the population of Berlin is provided with everything it needs. Nor are the supplies of the occupation troops in any way threatened.

The "blockade of Berlin" is a name given to the transport restrictions carried through by the Soviet Command in order to safeguard the interests of the population and to protect the economic life of the Soviet zone against disorganization and collapse.

These protective measures cannot be avoided as long as the question of the introduction of a single currency in Berlin, the need for which is also admitted by the Governments of the three powers, is not regulated. The noise raised around this question is needed by those who are trying to fan to the utmost the feelings of disquiet, alarm and war hysteria, and not by those who are really trying to regulate the situation in Berlin.

The note of the Governments of the three powers contains unfounded allegations that the Soviet authorities in Berlin have permitted attempts by the minority of the population of Berlin forcibly to overthrow the municipal authorities of the city of Berlin. Yet the Soviet authorities in Berlin have had strict instructions from the Soviet Government, despite dissatisfaction among the population of Berlin with the situation that has arisen, to ensure conditions of quiet for the work of Berlin local organs, as was confirmed by V. M. Molotov on August 30 during the meeting with the representatives of the three Governments. The Soviet Command has invariably adhered to these instructions of the Soviet Government, whereas the disorders which have introduced disquiet into the life in Berlin have come from that part of Berlin which is not under the control of Soviet Command and for which the military authorities of the three other powers are responsible.

From all the afore-mentioned it follows that the statement of the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France alleging that a situation has developed in Berlin constituting a threat to international peace and security, is without any basis whatsoever. Such statements cannot divert attention from the separate and antidemocratic policy being pursued in Western Germany, and which is transforming the latter into an obedient tool of the aggressive plans of a definite group of the great powers. Nor can it be denied that if anybody is responsible for the present situation in Berlin, it is precisely the Governments of the three powers which caused the negotiations on regulating the position in Berlin to fall through. At the same time the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France have ignored their undertakings to subject the disputed question on Germany and Berlin to an examination in the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, within whose competence, as is well known, comes the regulation of matters of that kind.

V

INSOFAR as in the note of September 26 regarding the position in Berlin, the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and France announce that they are handing over the question of the situation in Berlin for examination by the Security Council of the United Nations, the Government of the USSR considers it necessary to make the following statement:

1. The question of the situation in Berlin is closely connected with the question of Germany as a whole, of the dismemberment of Germany, of the establishment of a separate government in West Germany, and in accordance with Article 107 of the UNO Charter is subject to be solved by these governments who bear responsibility for the occupation of Germany and is not bound to be transferred to the Security Council.

(Continued on page 648)

Berlin Hubbub Held Smokescreen

By D. Melnikov

Soviet Information Bureau Commentator

AFTER the failure of the attempts of the Western Powers to make political capital of the submission of the Berlin question to the Security Council, it is now possible to draw some conclusions from the two months of debates on the question.

The whole course of the negotiations on the Berlin question, as well as the actions of the Western Powers indicate that the Western Powers are not seeking agreement on the Berlin question. They want to create a situation which will allow them to continue their old policy in Berlin, calculated to disorganize the economy of the Soviet zone.

Had the Western Powers really wanted to reach agreement on the Berlin question, they would not have delegated to Moscow minor officials like Bevin's private secretary. The Western Powers bear the blame for the failure to settle the Berlin question.

The Soviet people ask these legitimate questions: why have the Western Powers not published, and why do they continue concealing, the text of the directive to the Commanders-in-Chief, agreed upon August 30 of this year? Why have they hidden the fact that their own representative admitted that the Soviet Command must have guarantees that the air lift will not be used for currency machinations and black market speculations? Why are they continuing the hue and cry about the "Berlin blockade" when they know very well that there is no blockade and that western Berlin is receiving its chief supplies from the stocks of the Soviet Command?

For the simple reason that all these facts expose one very obvious circumstance: the Western statements after the rupture of these negotiations show that the chief aim of the representatives of the Western Powers during the negotiations was to disguise their real intentions, to create the impression that settlement of the Berlin problem is hampered by the "unyielding" position of the Soviet Union.

Facts revealed during the course of the negotiations have completely exposed this legend. They show that Roberts was himself embarrassed, saying that in the future he would be replaced by "a more responsible person" to carry on the negotiations. If they had really striven to reach settlement, they would have utilized the organs especially established for this purpose—the Council of Foreign Ministers and the Control Council in Berlin.

Nothing exposed the lack of desire of the Western Powers to reach a settlement on the Berlin question so convincingly and with such clarity as their referral of the question to the Security Council. Even the newspapers of the Western Powers had to admit that the representatives of those countries were not at all guided by a desire to solve the Berlin question when they submitted it to the Security Council.

The London *Times,* for example, wrote frankly that it is hardly possible that the Berlin question will approach its solution in the Security Council. The *Manchester Guardian* stated that there was little hope of any settlement on the question there, and that it was to be expected that the problem would seriously undermine UN authority.

Then why have the representatives of the three Western Powers, reckoning on their majority in the Council, referred the matter to the Security Council and obviously violated Article 107 of the Charter of the United Nations, which points out very clearly that responsibility for the situation on the territory of enemy countries where Allied states exercise control is borne by those states?

In bringing the question before the Security Council, they pursued two aims: the first—political—to delay settlement and at the same time to relieve themselves of responsibility for delay, and, the second—propaganda—to inflate the fuss around the Berlin question and thus distract public opinion from the German problem as a whole, and also from the Soviet proposals on the reduction of armaments and the ban on the use of atomic energy for military purposes—proposals which roused world public opinion and attracted the sympathies of new millions of the common people to the Soviet Union.

The Czech newspaper *Ludove Noviny* remarked a few days ago that "When the Western Powers submitted the Berlin question to the Security Council they knew very well that the USSR would not agree to debate it . . . since it contradicts the UN Charter. All this has been undertaken to arouse public opinion and the Western press against the USSR, and that is why Bevin made his speech, hoping that Vyshinsky's proposal on the destruction of the atomic bomb and the reduction of armaments would be moved to the background . . ."

Soviet diplomacy frustrated all these calculations. Exposing the true motives underlying the actions of the Western Powers and basing his arguments on indisputable facts, Andrei Vyshinsky, head of the Soviet delegation to the General Assembly of UN, said that the Soviet delegation would not take part in discussions on the Berlin question in the Security Council. The Ukrainian delegation upheld the position of the delegation of the Soviet Union. After Vyshinsky's announcement the session hall of the Security Council emptied; no one wished to hear the well-known propaganda speeches of the representatives of the Western Powers.

The reactionary press is not hiding its disappointment at the turn discussions took on the Berlin question in the Security Council. The results of the discussion really are disappointing for its organizers. Simultaneously with it, the world received further evidence of the consistent democratic and peaceful foreign policy pursued by the Soviet Union.

And 85% are Members

Labor Union Growth in USSR Due to Real Benefits

By N. Alexandrov

THERE is excellent reason why Soviet trade unions enjoy such high prestige among Soviet workers—of whom 85 per cent are members.

For the trade unions are not only the instrument for the protection of the workers' basic rights; they are also the leading force in the struggle for a higher standard of living and culture for all Soviet working people.

The trade unions have organized 87 of every one hundred Soviet workers—more than the trade union membership—into the socialist competition movement, the mainspring of increasing production, and by that token the mainspring of improved living standards. Tens of millions of Soviet workers in every branch of industry compete with each other to raise production. The more experienced and gifted pass on their "know-how" to the less experienced, and frequently the young worker surpasses the old hand. Moreover, one of every seven workers is an innovator—a man or woman who invents a device or makes a suggestion for rationalization that is adopted in his plant—and often by the entire industry—and translated into increased production.

This movement, organized and spearheaded by the trade unions in the Soviet Union, is the reason that plans for the first two-year period of the postwar Five-Year Plan have been overfulfilled, the source of the Soviet Government's ability to abolish rationing, slash prices, and revaluate the currency at the end of 1947—measures which by January 1, 1948 raised real wages of all Soviet workers 51 per cent over those of January, 1947. Steadily-rising production enabled the Soviet Government to effect still another sharp reduction in prices in April, 1948.

The earnings, the living standard, of the Soviet worker depend directly upon the productivity of his labor. By raising the productivity of his labor, the worker raises his own earnings. The trade unions assist him in doing this by furthering—in co-operation with management—the technical education of the workers, and by organizing Stakhanov schools for studying the experience of the most successful Stakhanovites.

UNION REST HOME. Oil workers vacation here.

The Soviet trade unions are the stern guardians of Soviet labor legislation and safety rules. The Soviet Government spent 800 million rubles toward improving working and safety conditions in 1947. Every kopeck assigned for this purpose was spent with the knowledge, consent and under the control of the Soviet trade unions. Every step taken toward this end is specified in the collective agreements concluded between labor and management; and the local trade union committees maintain rigid control over the realization of safety-control measures. More than two thousand highly-trained safety inspectors work full time for the trade union central committees, and more than 700 thousand volunteer safety inspectors who are elected by the workers in the shops, assist the trade unions in their efforts to improve working conditions and eliminate accidents in production.

The state social insurance budget—administered in part by the trade unions—increased from about 7,000,000,000 rubles in 1941 to 15,500,000,000 rubles in 1948. In 1947, the trade unions paid out a total of 11,341,600,000 rubles from the social insurance fund for sickness benefits, pregnancy and maternity benefits and pensions to invalids; the unions spent 12,735,000,000 rubles on the provi-

sion of accommodations in health resorts and dietetic food, and 784,000,000 rubles on various services for the children of the factory and office workers. The trade unions have restored a considerable number of the sanatoriums and rest homes wrecked by the Hitlerites and secured accommodations in these institutions to 2,872,000 factory and office workers within the past two years; this year 1,800,000 persons were accommodated in sanatoriums and rest homes and 105 thousand in the overnight sanatoriums* functioning in the enterprises. In 1947, the summer camps and playground centers financed by the trade unions accommodated 2,231,000 children of factory and office employees; 2,650,000 youngsters were accommodated this year.

More than a million social-insurance "agents" and other voluntary functionaries assist the trade unions in securing healthful working conditions; reducing disease; improving the work of the polyclinics, hospitals and child institutions; and ensuring that the state social insurance appropriations are spent with the greatest efficacy.

Extensive housing construction is in progress in the Soviet Union. During 1946 and 1947 the factories, offices and local Soviets built 15,500,000 square meters** of new housing space. The trade unions control the housing construction programs, participate in the distribution of dwelling space, and further the construction of private homes by the workers with the aid of state credits. The private homes built in the USSR in 1947 have a total floor space of four million square meters.

At the time when rationing was in force in the country, the workers constantly felt the concern of the trade unions for their food supply. This concern was not relaxed when rationing was abolished. The voluntary safety inspectors of the trade unions check on the timely delivery of goods to the shops, and expose abusive practices in the trading network. The trade unions do everything to further the development of individual and collective gardening and livestock breeding among the workers, for this contributes considerably to the improvement in their food supply. In 1947 the 29,600,000 factory and office workers engaged in gardening, garnered 11,600,000 metric tons* of potatoes. Six million factory and office workers own cows, pigs and goats.

Cultural and educational activities occupy a place of prominence in trade-union work. The trade unions spend 50 per cent of their funds on cultural services for their members.

The Hitlerites wrought tremendous damage to the trade union cultural institutions; the fascists destroyed 1,500 workers' clubs and palaces of culture, tens of thousands of motion-picture houses, libraries, radio stations, etc.

After the war the trade unions were confronted with a tremendous restoration job. At the end of 1947 they raised the number of trade union clubs and palaces to more than seven thousand, as against 6,600 in 1940. More than one million factory and office workers are participating in 30 thousand theater, art and hobby groups which function in the trade union clubs. A large proportion of the trade union stadiums and other sports centers has likewise been restored.

THE collective agreement in the USSR differs from its counterpart in the capitalist countries. Its first distinction lies in the fact that this bilateral agreement concluded between the management and the factory trade union committee which represents the employees of the enterprise concerned, embodies, not a compromise of conflicting interests, but a joint effort to speed the realization of the production plan, improve working conditions and secure a higher living standard for the emp'oyees.

There is no ground for class conflict between workers and industrial executives in the USSR. These two parties to collective agreements are representatives of a common class and interested in common aims: the progress of socialist production, and higher labor productivity as a basis for raising the living and cultural standards of the working people.

The Soviet collective agreement therefore contains the obligations of management and the trade union committee in regard to effecting the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the state production plan. The agreement specifies the planned increase in production and labor productivity. Management undertakes to implement definite organizational and labor-saving technical measures for the purpose of securing a higher productivity of labor and realizing the production program; the trade union committee undertakes to further the socialist-competition movement.

The wage provisions specify the wage system employed in the enterprise: the exact paydays; the wage provisions also include management's obligations to promote the workers to higher paid jobs as they accumulate experience and improve their skill. The factory trade union committee undertakes to check on the correct application of the agreed-upon system of payment for labor and to control the wage calculations.

The collective agreement contains special provisions relating to the training of skilled labor and the education of engineering and technical personnel; labor discipline, and working and living conditions of the employees.

The provisions dealing with labor protection specify the concrete measures to be taken by management with respect to improving the working conditions, labor safety, provision of working clothes, annual vacations, etc. The trade union committee undertakes to exercise control over the observance of labor legislation, and to check on the working conditions, and ensure proper sanitation and other health measures.

The section that deals with housing conditions formulates the concrete obligations of management with respect to housing construction; housing repairs; assistance in the construction of private homes; furthering collective and individual gardening among the workers; the auxiliary farms and other services maintained by the factory, etc.

Lastly, the agreement contains provisions relating to the cultural services for the workers. They specify the concrete obligations of management in regard to the construction or repair of clubs, palaces of culture, and other cul-

* Overnight sanatoriums with full medical staffs are to be found at every large Soviet plant. They cater, free of charge, to ailing workers whose ailments do not require that they stop working; here the patients spend their nonworking hours.

** One square meter = 10.764 square feet.

* One metric ton = 2204 pounds.

tural institutions, and the obligations of the trade union committee to conduct educational activities among the workers and to organize recreational activities for their children.

This list of items included in the collective agreement demonstrates that the agreement covers literally every aspect of the labor and life of the factory and office workers. Therein lies the second fundamental distinction of the Soviet collective agreement as opposed to the collective agreements made in capitalist countries, agreements which cover an incomparably smaller range of questions.

The Soviet collective agreement is drafted with the mass co-operation of the factory and office workers.

The model collective agreement for the specific branches of industry is drafted by the central committee of the trade union jointly with the respective ministry, subject to approval by the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the ministry. On the basis of the model agreement, the factory trade union committee—jointly with all its commissions and with the director of the given enterprise—compiles the draft collective agreement and submits it for the consideration of the factory workers; the discussions are conducted at meetings of shifts and shops. All the proposals made at the meetings are recorded and referred to the trade union committee and management; those approved are included in the draft agreement.

After its discussion in the shops, the agreement, together with the corrections and amendments introduced, is presented for discussion at the general meeting or conference of the workers of the factory. At this meeting the trade union committee and management are obliged to furnish exhaustive explanations concerning provisions included or omitted from the draft agreement.

After this, the draft agreement is again discussed, in the light of these comments, by the trade union committee and the director of the factory, signed and sent for registration to the central committee of the given trade union and the corresponding ministry.

Disputes arising between the trade union committee and management in connection with the collective agreement are settled by the central committee of the union, and the ministry. If no agreement is reached, the question is referred for the joint consideration of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the ministry.

Every three months the trade union committee checks on the fulfillment of the collective agreement and reports the results of its investigations to a general meeting of all the workers or a representative conference of the workers, depending on the size of the plant and number of employees.

THE Soviet worker knows that in the event of a conflict with management he can always count on his trade union to protect his rights. There are no "company" unions in the Soviet Union.

The question is sometimes asked in other countries—in the United States in particular: why are there no strikes in the Soviet Union?

Some persons are even inclined to view the absence of strikes with suspicion: perhaps the Soviet Government forbids Soviet workers to strike?

Such suspicions are completely without basis in fact. There are no anti-strike laws of any kind in the Soviet Union. To the contrary, Soviet workers have an absolute right to strike, backed to the hilt by the most progressive set of labor laws in the world.

There are, however, very definite reasons why Soviet workers do not strike.

Every Soviet worker knows that if he should lay down his tools and strike, he would be striking against himself: for Soviet industry, the Soviet national economy, are owned by the Soviet working people and no one else. No one but the Soviet worker profits from his labor; and the rise in his living standard is dependent upon his labor alone: there have been no profit-hungry capitalists in the Soviet Union for many years.

Despite the damage to life and property wrought by the fascist invaders (seven million Soviet soldiers and civilians were murdered by the Nazis; property damage inflicted by the Germans amounted to 485,000,000,000 dollars—or approximately eight times the annual prewar national income of the United States) the Soviet working people enjoy a living standard higher than that of any other people in Europe. And, unlike the situation in every capitalist country on the face of the globe—where the living standard of the workers continues to decline sharply—the living standard of the Soviet people moves rapidly, steadily upward.

But another most basic reason why Soviet workers never resort to strikes is because they have other means of defending their rights.

There is occasional conflict between labor and management in Soviet factories—conflict caused by violations of the accepted principles of payment for labor; violation of one or another provision of the labor code; unfair practices by management; unjustifiable dismissals, or any other contractual violation.

The first authority to which a labor conflict is referred for settlement is the Wage Rates Arbitration Committee, in which management and the local trade union committee have equal representation. When the worker makes a complaint, WRAC must consider the worker's complaint in the presence of the worker and a representative of management, and render its decision within three days. The decision is binding, unless reversed. In case of disagreement with this decision, the worker may appeal to higher trade union bodies—up to the central committee of his own union, and, if he desires, to the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions—the highest trade union body in the Soviet Union. These trade union bodies to which the worker may appeal WRAC's decision have the authority to overrule WRAC. But the aggrieved worker rarely appeals his case to a higher body, because WRAC decides the overwhelming majority of complaints in favor of the worker.

Rarely do the representatives of management and the trade union committee on WRAC fail to reach agreement. In case of a failure to agree, however, the local trade union committee takes the conflict to the People's Court, which renders a decision on the basis of the existing legislation. And it is indeed an unusual day when the People's Court decides in favor of management.

The rights of the worker are reliably protected by Soviet laws and the Soviet trade unions. This is the reason why Soviet workers have never had any need to strike.

MOSCOW NEWS STAND. Scene as morning papers are placed on sale in the capital.

Soviet Press Is Different —And Widely Read

By O. Moshensky

SOVIET newspapers do not in the least resemble—either in form or content—the newspapers published in Britain, America or other countries. This is to be expected, for the Soviet Union is a country of a new type, a socialist state; there is hardly need to prove that the press of a country corresponds to its state, to its social system.

The socialist system is the foundation of life in the Soviet Union. The land, industry, mineral resources, banks, trade, etc., are the property of the people. The Soviet country has no antagonistic social classes. All Soviet citizens are equal members of Soviet society, the true owners and masters of their State and its riches.

Newspapers, too, are the property of the people. They belong not to individuals or companies, but only to public organizations or government agencies. Consequently, the press is not dependent on the selfish interests of private owners. Soviet newspapers voice real public opinion; they defend the interests of the working people.

The Soviet people are first of all interested in the economic and cultural progress of their country. For, while every Soviet citizen is intimately acquainted with the affairs of his factory, collective farm or office, he feels that the affairs of society as a whole are his personal affairs. This factor determines the nature of the Soviet newspaper.

Today the country is "going all-out" to complete the postwar Five-Year Plan—whose purpose is the rehabilitation and development of the national economy—in four years; and this is the main activity of every citizen of the Soviet State. This drive is given great prominence in the newspapers.

Let us examine the September 23 issue of *Pravda,* organ of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), and one of the most popular of Soviet newspapers. September 23 was an ordinary day marked by no special event either in the Soviet Union or abroad. Prominently displayed on the *Pravda's* front page of that day are telegrams to J. V. Stalin from the collective farmers of the Moscow and Velikiye-Luki Regions of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, and from the Volhynia Region of the Ukraine, announcing that the collective farms in these areas are selling grain to the State over and above the sales called for by the annual plan.

Also on the front page appear dispatches concerning the successful progress of autumn agricultural work, the completion of a large number of new apartment houses in Leningrad, building of a heat-and-power plant in Vladimir, the big catch of fish in the Caspian Sea, etc.

In the same issue we will find an article about the life and work of Khachatur Abovyan, classical Armenian writer, and information concerning the countrywide commemoration of the centenary of his death, which was to take place on September 25.

Soviet newspapers do not limit themselves to publishing reports of achievements in different fields. Almost every issue of every newspaper prints articles criticizing shortcomings in one field or another. The September 23 issue of *Pravda,* for instance, printed an article sharply criticizing the poor work of officials in a number of districts of Voronezh Region.

Soviet people are not prone to shut their eyes to obstacles and hardships. That is why Soviet newspapers freely, frequently and pointedly criticize people in positions of authority, including those holding important govern-

RURAL DELIVERY. Newspapers have wide circulation, even in the countryside.

ment posts, when they "fall down on the job." Similarly, the Soviet press takes a resolute stand in defense of the interests of private citizens when anyone attempts to violate their rights. Criticism in the Soviet press has one distinctive feature, however: no matter how sharp and outspoken it may be, its aim is to help the man who erred to rectify his mistake; it is *constructive,* not *destructive,* criticism.

Soviet newspapers attempt to develop in their readers the lofty moral qualities that are worthy of citizens of a socialist society. Anyone who expects to find in *Pravda, Izvestia,* or any other Soviet newspaper, a story about a sensational divorce trial or about the intimate life of a popular cinema star will be disappointed. Soviet newspapers devote no space to such matters. They devote a great deal of space to outstanding workers, engineers, scientists, peasants who raise record crop yields, the creative quests of gifted actors, writers and artists. They intend that the best people of the country should serve as models for everyone. They glorify the exploits of men of labor in all fields.

Representative of this role is the article entitled "Vital Problems of the Food Industry," published in *Pravda* on September 23. Its author—V. Zotov—is the Minister of the Food Industry of the USSR. In his article, Zotov gave an analysis of the work of all branches of the Soviet food industry and made a number of proposals for their further improvement.

Similar articles are not only of practical significance but also have great educational value.

Soviet newspapers devote much space to information on international affairs. The peoples of the USSR, who have undertaken a tremendous program of peaceful development, are naturally interested in a lasting and stable peace. Readers carefully follow events abroad; they take an intense interest in the struggle for peace being waged by the Soviet Government and the forces of democracy throughout the world.

Experience has shown that Soviet newspapers enjoy great prestige with their readers, which means Soviet newspapers directly gauge and meet the demands of their readers. A good index of the prestige of a newspaper is the number of letters it receives from its readers. Last year the editorial offices of *Pravda* received 160 thousand letters. Not all were published but none went unanswered. In cases where letters draw attention to specific shortcomings or make definite proposals, they are forwarded to the organizations concerned, whether or not they are published. The authority of the press in the USSR is very high and letters forwarded by newspapers are given the greatest attention.

FARM BULLETIN BOARD. In some regions the bulletin board helps spread news to collective farmers.

The wide range of questions that are raised by readers may be judged by the content of three of the letters published in *Pravda* on September 23. A letter from an employee of Saratov University discussed the construction of a new wing for the biological department; the author of the letter made a number of proposals which he believed would accelerate the job. A letter from the town of Buinsk cited the need for more textbooks in the Chuvash language. The chief of the Astrakhan river port suggested changes in the existing system for transit shipments of cargoes through Astrakhan.

Every newspaper has a special department handling readers' letters whose staff ensures that every letter is properly answered.

The authority of the Soviet press also finds expression in the fact that every newspaper has a large number of nonjournalist contributors—workers, peasants, intellectuals. The Kuibyshev *Volga River Commune* printed 160 articles by such authors during the first 15 days of May.

In addition to newspapers published in Moscow and the capitals of all the constituent republics of the Soviet Union and all regional and district centers and towns, newspapers are published in factories, mills, educational establishments and units of the Soviet Army and Navy. These papers deal primarily with problems relating to the work of the given enterprise or institution, and with the life of its personnel.

Even more widespread are "wall" newspapers. One may safely say that there is no enterprise, office, collective farm or school, however small, without its wall newspaper. They are even published in places which have their own printed newspapers. At each large factory, for example, in addition to the paper published for the personnel of the entire plant, wall newspapers are issued in every shop and department. Their popularity is exceedingly great and the people themselves put them out. For example, five hundred people contributed to 11 issues of the *Rolling Mill,* a wall newspaper at the Andreyev Mills in Taganrog.

All Soviet newspapers, from the biggest—*Pravda* and *Izvestia*—to the wall newspapers, serve the interests of the people and are part of the people. The large number of newspapers published in the USSR, and the active participation of Soviet readers are the best proof of the freedom of the press in the Soviet Union.

Sunday in Pokrovskoye

From articles by Constantine Guskov* and V. Morshikov
**Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Pokrovskoye Rural Soviet*

THE Pokrovskoye Rural Soviet of Istra District, Moscow Region, has thrived in spite of all difficulties. Back in 1938 it had a population of 1,650 persons; in August, 1948 the figure had risen to 2,869.

This growth has been made despite the havoc of six days of occupation by the German fascist invaders late in 1941. During the Nazi occupation, losses of more than 54 million rubles were inflicted.

With torch, bomb and shell, the Germans burned 161 houses, 65 large farm buildings, schools, clubs and libraries. They drove away 640 cows and horses and destroyed all the poultry and property of the collective farmers.

Our village of Pokrovskoye is the administrative center of nine villages and has been completely rebuilt from the charred ruins left after the flight of the barbarians in December, 1941. Anyone unacquainted with the history of our village would find it hard to believe that it has been built anew. It is beautiful with its new houses sitting on the hillside.

But let's go back into the records. Here are two interesting entries in the books of the Pokrovskoye Rural Soviet:

1—(August 8, 1938): "The land area of the Pokrovskoye Rural Soviet is 30 square kilometers.* Situated on it are three schools (three hundred pupils), two clubs, one bathhouse, one store, two production artels (co-operatives). It has a population of 1,650 persons. The Soviet has allocated nine thousand rubles for clubs, 45 thousand rubles for schools . . ."

2—(August 9, 1948): "The territory of Pokrovskoye Rural Soviet is 38 square kilometers;* the population amounts to 2,869 persons. In Pokrovskoye and the other eight villages under the Soviet are four schools (524 pupils), nine traveling libraries, five clubs, five radio stations, four stores, two bathhouses, four producer co-operatives. The rural Soviet allocated one hundred thousand rubles for cultural needs, public health and education."

When the German invader was expelled, the deputies, members of the executive committee of the Soviet and the most active workers met and planned the rehabilitation of the demolished dwellings. Under the leadership of Deputy Maria Senatorova, the first women's building-brigades began work.

The Soviet Government granted the Pokrovskoye collective farmers a loan of 500 thousand rubles, supplied five thousand cubic meters** of timber, bricks, roofing iron, nails, windowglass and other building material.

After all the residences and farm buildings were rehabilitated, the rural Soviet began improving the villages. Under the direction of Deputy Fyodor Rakhmanov, chairman of the road commission of the Soviet, building of a highway and planting of shrubs and trees in yards and streets was started this spring. New stores of the village co-operative were opened this summer in the Burevestnik, New Life and Pokrovskoye Collective Farms. This work was led by Deputy Fyodor Shalugin, chairman of the Trading Commission of the Soviet.

VILLAGE CHAIRMAN. Constantine Guskov heads the executive committee of Pokrovskoye Soviet.

* One square kilometer = .386 square miles.
** One cubic meter = 35.314 cubic feet.

Activities of our Rural Soviet are directed by its executive committee. In addition to its secretary, Lydia Rakhmanova, and myself, it consists of the following collective farmers: Maria Senatorova, Maria Akimova, Hero of Socialist Labor Timofei Baryshev, who is a disabled veteran and chairman of a collective farm; Hero of Socialist Labor Fyodor Shalugin, a brigade leader; and Fyodor Rakhmanov.

This committee meets regularly and holds village gatherings to discuss proposals offered by the deputies or residents of the villages. At a recent session the committee adopted a motion to plant ten thousand young lime trees this year, and to build 13 farm and communal buildings.

Representatives of the village intelligentsia—teachers, agronomists, physicians and zootechnicians, take an active part in the work of the rural Soviet.

Inhabitants of our villages are now receiving hundreds of newspapers and magazines. Nearly 50 local farmers have acquired a higher education.

ON Sunday, the people of the village of Pokrovskoye rise somewhat later than usual.

Even on Sundays, the radio station starts punctually at six in the morning with its "Hello! Moscow speaking . . ." The collective farmers listen to the morning broadcast of the latest news, reporting the most important events in the Soviet Union and abroad. Then follows a local Sunday program of collective farm news given by Vassili Valuyev, manager of the village radio station. He announces that sports events will be held in the farm stadium in the afternoon. They will include volleyball, gymnastics, and track-and-field events. A lecture and amateur art concert are scheduled for Sunday evenings at the village club.

The new village co-operative store is very busy on Sunday, the library is crowded throughout the day, and the village streets are bustling with people. In the evening there is usually a lecture, followed by the concert in the club hall, always filled to capacity for this event. Laughter and song continue long after the concert and finally the people return to their homes—to begin a new work-week the next day with renewed strength.

SUNDAY FIELD TRIP. Teachers Alexander Philippov and Varvara Kryuchkova lead their class into the country.

BUSY DEPUTY. Deputy Guskov visits his electors regularly. Here he talks with a farm family.

VILLAGE STORE. A center of activity in Pokrovskoye, it stays open Sundays too.

Co-Existence of Systems

(Continued from page 621)

ful relations between the Soviet Union and the capitalist states.

Dwelling on the possibility of co-operation and agreements between the USSR and the capitalist states, Stalin declared in his interview with an American labor delegation as far back as 1927: "I think that the existence of two opposite systems, the capitalist system and the socialist system, does not exclude the possibility of such agreements; I think that such agreements are possible and expedient in conditions of peaceful development."

These agreements, pointed out Stalin, are possible in the economic field, with regard to exports, imports and credits, as well as in the diplomatic field. "We are pursuing a policy of peace," said Stalin, "and we are prepared to sign pacts of non-aggression with bourgeois states. We are pursuing a policy of peace and we are prepared to come to an agreement concerning disarmament, including complete abolition of standing armies, which we declared to the whole world as far back as the time of the Genoa Conference." At the same time, Stalin emphasized that only agreements free from any conditions of bondage will be acceptable to the USSR, and that the solid character of these agreements depends not only upon the Soviet Union, but upon the other parties.

This line has been firmly and consistently pursued by the Soviet Government throughout the subsequent period. It concluded a number of trade and credit agreements with capitalist states, but fought against any attempts to include discriminatory conditions in these agreements, and did everything to safeguard the economic independence of the USSR. In the interests of world peace, the Soviet Government concluded also a number of diplomatic agreements with capitalist states. During the Second World War, the USSR acted in alliance with capitalist countries.

Continuing its policy of peace and international co-operation after the Second World War, the Soviet Union has been persistently fighting in UN for a general arms reduction, for the prohibition of the atomic weapon, for a peaceful settlement of all international problems, for punishment of the criminal incendiaries of a new world war. A striking example is its recent disarmament proposals.*

In the course of his interview with Harold Stassen, in April, 1947, J. V. Stalin outlined with supreme clarity his view on the co-existence and co-operation of the two systems. Pointing to the fact that the idea of co-operation of the two systems was originally formulated by Lenin, Stalin said that the USSR never has and never will depart from Lenin's directives. Replying to Stassen's question concerning the possibility of co-operation between the two economic systems in the post-war period, Stalin said that they can of course co-operate. The distinction between them is not essential inasmuch as it is a question of their co-operation. The economic systems of Germany and the USA were identical, yet this did not prevent war from breaking out between them. The economic systems of the USA and the USSR are different, yet they were not fighting, but co-operating during the war. If the two different systems could co-operate in wartime, then why cannot they co-operate in peacetime? It is of course presumed, said Stalin, that if there is the desire to co-operate, then co-operation is fully possible between different economic systems. But if there is no desire to co-operate, then states and people can quarrel even if their economic systems are identical.

The statement made by Stalin in this interview to the effect that the "Russians desire to co-operate," has been confirmed by facts. Unfortunately, however, facts indicate that many leading statesmen in the capitalist countries, and in the USA and Great Britain in particular, show no desire to co-operate.

* This proposal is printed on page 619.

Statement on Berlin

(Continued from page 639)

2. The statement of the Government of the United States that a situation has arisen which allegedly threatens international peace and security, does not correspond to the real state of affairs and is nothing more than a means of exerting pressure and an attempt to utilize the United Nations Organization for the achievement of its aggressive aims.

3. The Soviet Government proposes that the directive to the Commanders-in-Chief agreed to August 30 be recognized as an agreement between the Governments of the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France, on the basis of which the situation in Berlin should be regulated.

4. The Soviet Government proposes that a Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs be convened to examine the question of the situation in Berlin, and also the question of Germany as a whole, in accordance with the Potsdam agreement of the four powers.

Korea Recognized

(Continued from page 619)

facilitate the strengthening of friendly relations between our peoples and promote the cause of peace and security in the Far East."

(Signed)
KIM IR SEN,
Phyongyang, Korea
October 8, 1948.

In reply, Chairman Stalin addressed Kim Ir Sen as follows:

"I confirm the receipt of your letter of October 8, in which you communicate that the Government of the Korean People's Democratic Republic has begun performing its duties and in which you propose to establish diplomatic relations with the USSR and exchange ambassadors and also to establish appropriate economic relations between the two States. The Soviet Government, which consistently upholds the Korean nation's right to create its single independent State, hails the formation of the Korean Government and wishes it success in its activity for the benefit of the national rebirth and the democratic development of Korea. The Soviet Government expresses willingness to establish diplomatic relations with the Korean People's Democratic Republic and to exchange ambassadors and to establish appropriate economic relations with it."

(Signed)
STALIN
Chairman of the
Council of Ministers of the
USSR, October 12, 1948.

Downs Spirited Foe 3–2

Army Wins Soccer Crown

By Lev Kassil
Soviet Writer

THE scoreboard in Moscow's Dynamo Stadium read "Army 3; Dynamo 2," at dusk, Friday, September 24. The 1948 soccer championship of the USSR had been decided.

To 80 thousand frenzied soccer fans, the game will go down as one they will never forget. It was a contest that had everything, including the sensational error of a crack army back scoring a goal for the Dynamo squad in the second half.

The contest for the national crown came, as did the American League baseball championship in the United States, in the last match of the season.

Moscow Dynamo, always a tremendous threat on the soccer field, entered the game with a one-point lead over the crack Central House of the Red Army squad. Dynamo needed only a tie to keep its lead. The "Lieutenants," as the army players are sometimes called, had to defeat Dynamo to take the title.

Army has held the national title since 1946, winning last year over the scrappy Stalingrad team, 5 to 0.

This year, Army did not fare too well in the first round of play and allowed Dynamo a big lead. But in the second round Army got rolling with 11 straight victories to come within one point of the Dynamo squad.

A similar situation had not been experienced in any previous contest for the USSR soccer crown. Soccer fever ran so high that three days prior to the title fray, thousands of fans milled around the box office from morning to night for tickets.

The match was refereed by Saar, one of the ablest referees in the country. His assistants were Latishev and Dmitriyev, whose qualification-categories allow them to referee both all-Union and international matches.

As the match began, some thought Dynamo would choose defensive tactics to obtain the needed tie game. But Head Coach Yakuskin of Dynamo, well aware of Army's powerful and mobile forward line, sent his men in to take the offensive immediately.

ARMY TEAM IN ACTION. The Central House of the Red Army soccer team (darker jerseys) plays a Georgian team, Tbilisi Dynamo.

From the outset the pace was terrific. Bobrov, one of Army's star forwards, well-known for his lightning speed and accurate passing, scored first, sending the ball into Dynamo's net.

Dynamo came back fighting like tigers, and in the twelfth minute of play, Beskov tied the score with a fast shot into the "Lieutenants'" net.

The field was slippery in the rain, but the teams turned in a stellar performance, technically and tactically. Combinational plays were brilliantly executed and there were thrills aplenty in both offensive and defensive play.

Both goalies—Army's Nikanorov and Dynamo's Khomich—covered themselves with glory, stopping seemingly unstoppable balls at their nets.

Once more the "Lieutenants" took the offensive. Right End Grinin, captain of Army, received a pass near Dynamo's goal and immediately sent it back to his partner, Right Inside Nikolayev, who drove a sizzling ball into Dynamo's net. The score then became Army 2, Dynamo 1.

The second half was even more exciting and Army fans lived through some very uncomfortable moments when Ivan Kochetkov, one of Army's best backs, found himself in a tight spot near his own goal and tried to kick out for a corner shot. Instead, the ball went rolling into his own net for a Dynamo tally, and the score was tied, 2 to 2.

What had appeared to be a sure Army victory seemed to vanish. But the plucky "Lieutenants" stormed back as the gong sounded for the final five minutes of play.

It was Kochetkov again, but this time he tore through and passed to Solovyov. The latter sent the ball rolling toward the goal, but instead of netting, it hit the left pole and bounced back on the field. Like a flash, Army's Bobrov rushed in and kicked the ball so hard that everyone gasped aloud. It rolled in and Army won, 3 to 2 as the final whistle sounded a moment later.

Fans swarmed over the field and carried their heroes shoulder-high to their dressing room. Army had captured the coveted soccer crown for the third straight year.

A Muscovite's Diary

Buying A House

Although winter is at hand now in Moscow, the good wife and I have been thinking of next spring. In fact we have been considering the purchase of our own home in the Moscow suburbs.

Not long ago the Soviet Government consolidated into a uniform federal code the laws on the right of citizens to purchase and build individual homes. I've investigated this and found that in the suburbs I could get a lot of from 700 to 1,200 square meters* outside city limts; within the city limits one can get lots varying from three hundred to six hundred square meters. The unusually attractive part of all this is that under existing laws in the USSR, we have to pay land rent of only 4 to 18 kopecks** per square meter of land per year. The fee varies, within those limits, depending on the category of the city or settlement.

My work may keep me closer to Moscow, but that suburban home idea will give me many a wonderful dream on a cold winter night.

New University In the East

Members of the Tajikistan Government, the student body, and many relatives of students attended the opening of the first university of the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic in Stalinabad, the Tajik capital city, recently.

The new university is the eighth institution of higher learning to be opened in Tajikistan in Soviet times.

When Tajikistan was governed by the Emir of Bukhara no Tajik woman could read or write and barely one in two hundred men was literate. To all intents and purposes, the Tajiks had no written language before the advent of Soviet power; Arabic was the only alphabet taught in the East in those days.

Dr. Z. Rajabov, rector of the university, said the opening was the "biggest event in the cultural life of Tajikistan for many years." He told newspapermen that all students who study well will receive state stipends. He added that the Government had allocated funds for a museum, botanical garden, an astronomical observatory and a number of other scientific institutions under the jurisdiction of the university.

The rector expressed gratitude to the Moscow, Kazan and other universities in the fraternal republics for generous gifts of textbooks and equipment.

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.
** One ruble = 100 kopecks.

The "Muscovite" will be glad to have suggestions from readers as to subjects they would be interested in seeing covered in future "Diaries." Suggestions should be sent to "Muscovite," c/o USSR Information Bulletin, 2112 Massachusetts Ave. N.W., Washington 8, D. C.

"Timbering" with Metal

Modern science will never cease its wonders. Now Soviet engineers have developed a new machine to line coal-mine shafts mechanically with metal—affording new safety to both men and machines. The machine is now undergoing tests in the Karaganda coal basin and it promises virtually to revolutionize coal production in our country.

Food Prices Drop Again

Here's a cheerful note: Meat prices in the dairy co-operatives of Soviet Latvia have been reduced 24 to 30 per cent. And that's not all. Butter prices have fallen 10 per cent, milk, 14 per cent and sausage products, ham and bacon have been considerably reduced. Similar reductions have also taken place in the stores of the Latvian Consumers' Society.

In a fast-growing nation such as our Soviet Union, we find many important things to celebrate, but none will give me more pleasure than to mark the 30th anniversary of the Young

Short Wave Fans!

Radio Moscow is now on the air nightly at a later hour for American listeners.

The new schedule may be heard from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M. on nine wave bands listed below. The regular 6:20 to 7:30 P.M. broadcast is maintained. All times are Eastern Standard.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

October 20-November 6

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States on the following schedule from October 20 to November 6. All time is Eastern Standard.

Half-hourly daily morning programs of news and commentary from 7:45 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. on the following short wave bands: 6.05, 7.36, 9.54, 9.56, 9.60, 11.72, 11.87, and 11.96 megacycles.

Daily evening programs of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life are broadcast in two periods: from 6:20 P.M. to 7:30 P.M., and from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M.

Short wave listeners may hear the 6:20-7:30 P.M. broadcast over these bands: 7.29, 7.36, 11.72, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The 9:00 to 10:15 P.M. programs may be heard on the 7.29, 7.36, 9.60, 9.72, 11.72, 11.87, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycle bands.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Tuesdays, October 26 and November 2—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays, October 20, 27 and November 3—Programs for youth.

Thursday, October 28 and Friday, November 5—Trade unions.

Mondays, October 25 and November 1—Programs for farmers.

On Fridays there will be a commentary by the special correspondent of Radio Moscow on life in the USSR. On Saturdays there will be a weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners. On Sundays the program will include concerts and talks on literature.

Communist League late this month.

The Komsomols, as they are called, have been consistently in the forefront in the building of socialism. The Komsomols have rendered outstanding service in every field; during the Second World War they wrote many splendid pages in its history; since the war they have performed wonders in the rebuilding and rehabilitation of the national economy.

Moscow will join the entire Soviet Union October 29 in saluting this outstanding organization and its members everywhere in our country.

An art exhibition is to open soon in Moscow to commemorate the Komsomols' thirty years of activity. Pictures, statues and engravings are now being uncrated and made ready in the exhibition hall. Entries have come from all of the Union Republics.

Young Heroes of Krasnodon

The approach of this celebration reminds me of some of the glowing deeds of our heroic young Communists.

Who does not remember, for instance, the bravery of the Young Guard, organized by Young Communist Leaguers in the town of Krasnodon in the Donets basin during July, 1942? Who can fail to thrill at the story of how these youngsters, still in their teens, under the noses of the fascists occupying their town, pasted up leaflets in the busiest sections telling the true story of what was happening at the front . . . how they managed to help Soviet officers and men escape from German prisons—how they shot down invaders in the dark—or how they hanged two Hitlerites in reprisal for the execution of innocent Soviet people?

Finally some of the Young Guards were caught by the Nazis—and despite torture they lived up to their oaths and refused to betray their partisan comrades. Five of these leaders were posthumously awarded the title: Hero of the Soviet Union.

Certainly, friends, we have much to celebrate on October 29.

Moscow Exhibit of Architecture

Being an amateur photographer of sorts, I took my wife to an exhibit of architectural photographs at the Central Architects' Club in Moscow recently. *Thirty Years of Soviet Architecture* is the title of the exhibition, featuring more than one thousand photographs and models of various types of buildings erected during the 30 years since the Revolution. New structures of Moscow and Leningrad take up a complete section. Reconstruction in the war-ruined cities, such as Minsk, Kiev, Sevastopol and Stalingrad is widely represented in grand display.

After it closes here, the exhibition will be taken on tour.

Kremlin's Towers Restored

Restoration of the Kremlin's walls and its 19 towers is now almost complete, and soon we shall again see the historic buildings as they were originally built.

Academician Igor Grabar, a leading art historian, has superintended the restoration of the graceful towers and the lace-like stone walls. The walls and towers were built between 1485 and 1495.

Some aspects of the structures which had been changed during the many centuries of their existence are being restored to their original form. For instance, the narrow lancet windows of one of the towers were widened during the reign of Tsar Peter I. They have now been narrowed, to conform to the original design.

KREMLIN TOWER. This is Borovitsky Tower. Practically all have now been restored.

The external decorations, such as the bear cubs and ducklings of white stone, are now all restored. The brilliant and huge ruby glass stars glow again on five of the towers; while gilded weathercocks eight feet high crown the others.

Armenians Are Busy

OUR FRIENDS in the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic are going great guns these days. We learn that some 38 rural hydroelectric stations have been built in Soviet Armenia along with 1,500 kilometers of line. Now there are 303 collective farms supplied with electricity, as well as 46,600 homes. By 1950 it is proposed to have power lines extending 3,500 kilometers and to have every state and collective farm, machine-and-tractor station electrified. That is grand news to the rural population of Armenia.

Death of A Great Actor

All of us who love the theater were saddened by the news of the death on September 30 of Vassili Kachalov, one of the greatest actors of our famous Moscow Art Theater and one of the last of that Theater's original company.

He had acted on the boards of the Moscow Art Theater since 1900, had lived through the early struggles of the young, ardent theatrical company to establish a new school of realistic acting which was to influence the theatrical art of the entire world. His own acting was a marvelous example of the subtle, natural style on which the art of this company is based.

He died only a short time before the Golden Jubilee of his beloved theater was to be celebrated, and, though he knew he was very ill, he continued to interest himself in the plans for the celebration almost to the very day of his death.

Our country is honoring his memory by the establishment of five scholarships in his name at the Moscow Art Theater School and the Moscow Theatrical Institute; by the erection of a statue of him in Moscow; by the renaming of the former Kazan State Dramatic Theater after him; and by the establishment of a Kachalov Street in Moscow. His funeral was one of state, and the Council of Ministers of the USSR has granted a pension to his family.

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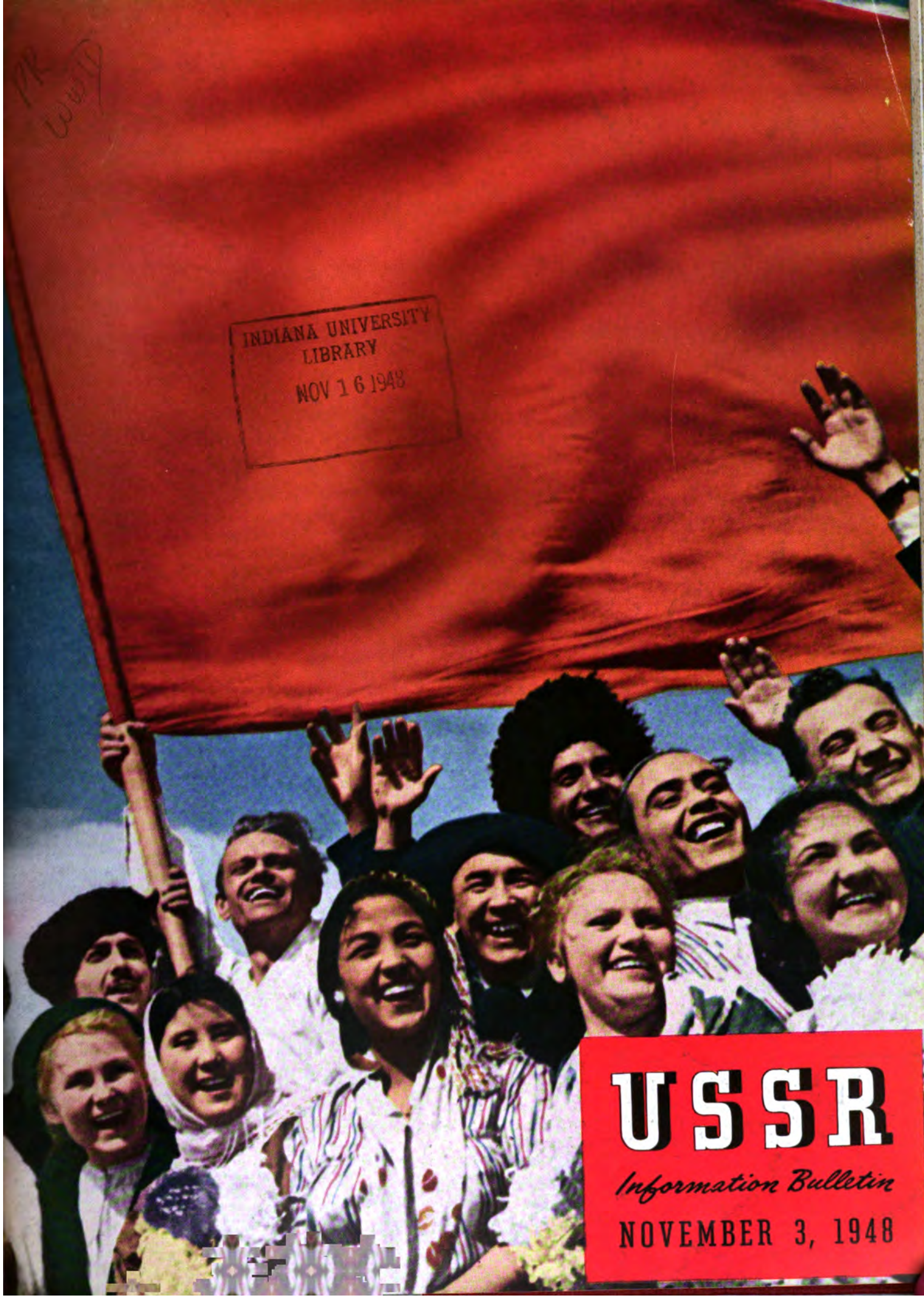

USSR

Information Bulletin

NOVEMBER 3, 1948

"THE . . . REVOLUTION . . . HAS TAKEN PLACE." 31 years ago, V. I. Lenin, at the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, announced the success of the workers' and peasants' Revolution, and the first Soviet Government was formed. FRONT COVER. Friendship among the many Soviet nationalities is symbolized by these young people. BACK COVER. "Worker and Collective Farm Woman", by Vera Mukhina.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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NOVEMBER 3, 1948

VOLUME VIII NUMBER 21

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

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31 YEARS of the SOVIET STATE

NOVEMBER 7 1917 ... 1948

—From the Painting of Lenin by A. Gerasimov

"The slogan is: power to the Soviets, land to the peasants, peace to the peoples, bread to the hungry."

—Formulation by V. I. Lenin of the revolutionary objectives of the Bolsheviks, October, 1917.

From a painting by Ermolaev.

"STORMING THE WINTER PALACE." On the night of November 7, the Tsar's Winter Palace was taken, the Provisional Government arrested.

Soviet Revolution Was Won November 7, 1917

THE scene is in Petrograd, capital of Russia, at 2:35 P.M. October 25, 1917. V. I. Lenin, recently returned from exile, is greeted with a storm of applause, and the historic meeting of the Petrograd Soviet has opened.

Lenin has the floor. He is saying: "The workers' and peasants' revolution, the need for which was constantly stressed by the Bolsheviks, has taken place.

"From now on a new era begins in the history of Russia," he continues. "And this third Russian revolution must in the end lead to the victory of socialism." Later the same day, the second All-Russian Congress of Soviets is to meet in the session which will establish Soviet state power.

The events of this day are being commemorated throughout the Soviet Union this November 7, 1948. The date marks the 31st anniversary of the Great October Revolution. (The date October 25 is from the old calendar and is actually November 7.)

After the overthrow of tsardom in February, 1917, by the industrial workers and the peasants serving in the army, power in Russia had passed to the bourgeois provisional government. This government changed neither the domestic nor foreign policies of the old regime of Nicholas II. The working class, rebuffed by this government, established Soviets of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies to represent the revolutionary people. And so, two organs of power were established.

Under Lenin's leadership, the people were prepared for the further development of the Revolution into a socialist revolution. Lenin overcame the influence of the opportunist parties and won the support of the majority in the Soviets of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies.

When the Bolshevik Party had rallied millions to its banner, there came an effort to crush the Revolution, and the Bolsheviks, prepared, gave the slogan for armed insurrection. Early on the morning of October 24 (November 6) J. V. Stalin gave the signal for the uprising. By that evening the soldiers and armed workers had captured the most important objectives in Petrograd. That night Lenin arrived at the Smolny Institute headquarters in Petrograd to assume personal charge.

It was the next afternoon that Lenin spoke to the meeting of the Petrograd Soviet.

In the next two days Lenin announced the program for the Revolution, the Winter Palace fell and the last ministers of the Provisional Government (deserted by Kerensky) were taken prisoner. The Soviet power issued decrees prepared by Lenin on peace and on land. They established that henceforward all lands of the landlords, great land-holding monasteries and the tsarist family belonged to the people. The Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets appealed to the Governments and peoples of all the belligerent countries to conclude an immediate peace.

The first Soviet Government was formed—the Council of People's Commissars—with Lenin as Chairman and Stalin as People's Commissar for the Affairs of Nationalities.

In quick order, Soviet power was established in Moscow and in all the large industrial centers. During October and November (November and December) of 1917, the Revolution swept to Siberia, the Far East and Central Asia.

For the first time in history, the struggle of the people for their own state had succeeded. The October Revolution freed the peasants from the power of the landlords, the workers from exploitation by the bourgeoisie. It proclaimed as its chief aim the end of exploitation of man by man. It established the foundations of the socialist system of society and a Soviet order with a true people's democracy.

Under that democracy the Soviet people sought peace and the friendship of the world. Then, as now, the Soviet Government worked for a real, peoples' peace.

That democracy, proven in the fire of the Second World War and through years of peaceful socialist construction, is marching forward on this 31st anniversary of its birth.

During the days of mourning for the death of Lenin, Stalin made his "Great Vow" in the name of the Bolsheviks and of the Soviet people—to continue the work, to follow the principles of the great leader of the Revolution. That the vow has been fulfilled with honor is attested by the living reality of the mighty socialist country of which Lenin dreamed.

Real Progress of Socialism Shown In 31 Years of Planning

SOCIALISM has been achieved in the Soviet Union and has brought substantial and lasting benefits to the people who inhabit one-sixth of the earth.

This, in essence, is what the Soviet people will celebrate on November 7 —the occasion of the Thirty-first Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Each of these 31 years has witnessed great new steps forward in the creation of a socialist society in the first state of workers and peasants.

This great task has been accomplished by heroic struggle and labor. in which the people succeeded in upholding their Soviet power despite the interventionists and the whiteguards in the years of the Civil War, and the recent barbaric attack of the German-fascists.

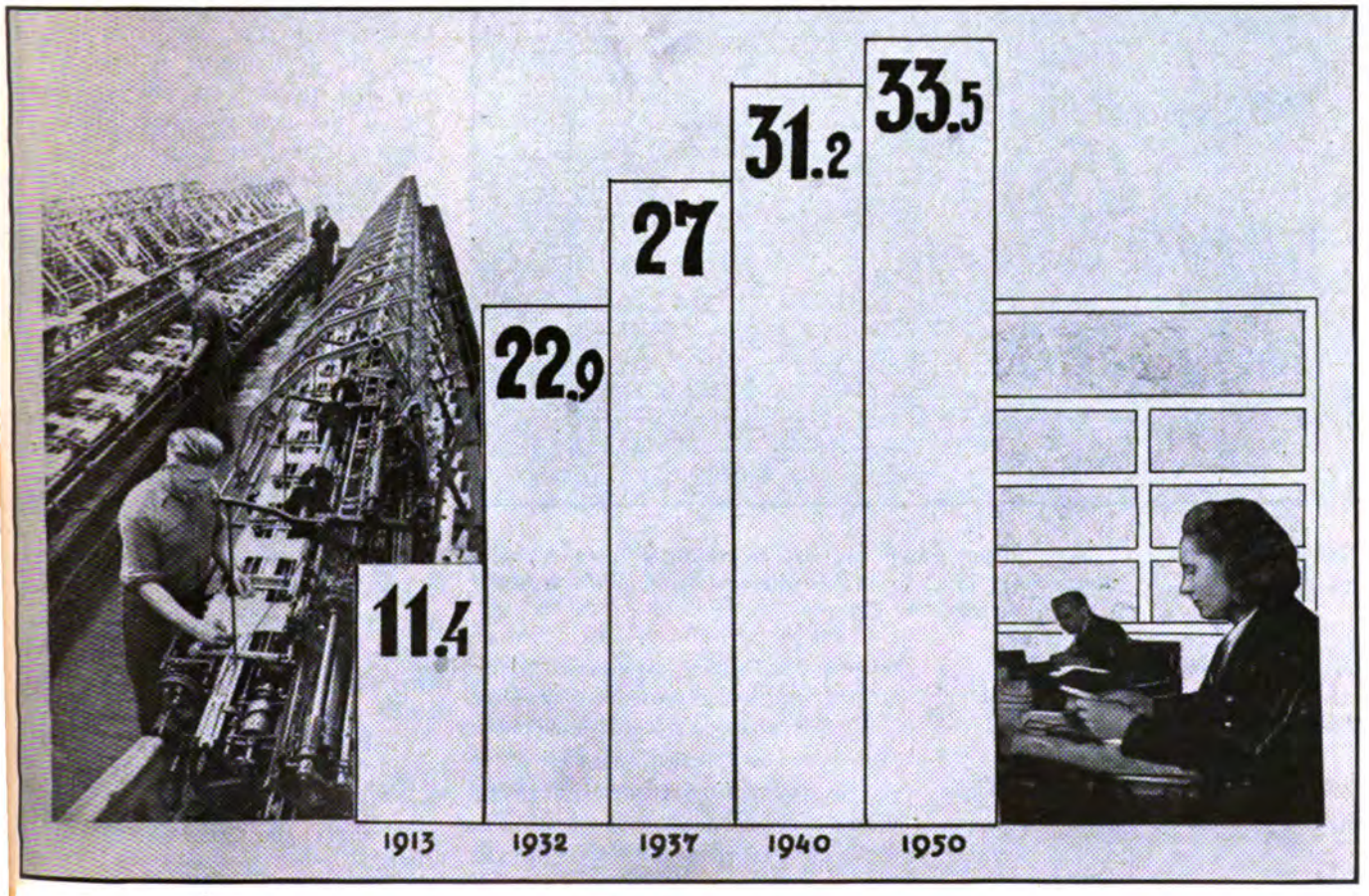
The first Five-Year Plan saw the industrial output of the USSR reach an average annual increase of 5,500,000,000 rubles and soar to an average annual increase of 14,300,000,000 rubles during the third Five-Year Plan. In the current postwar Five-Year Plan the total average annual increase has reached 15,600,000,000 rubles.

During a period of 13 years, from 1928 to 1940, the Soviet Union made a tremendous leap forward in the development of its productive forces. The output of large-scale industry in 1940 was twelve times greater than it was in 1913.

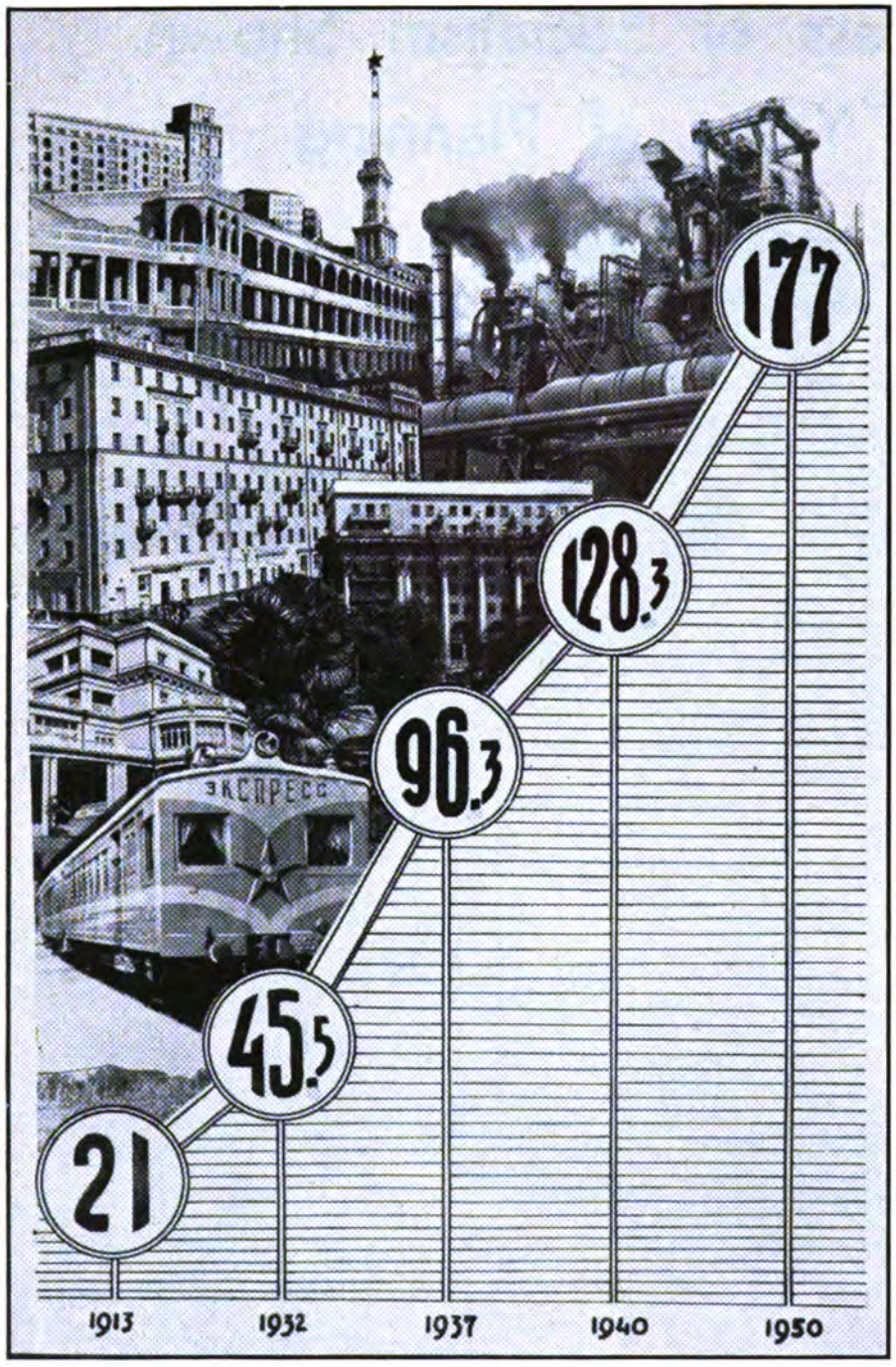
These tremendous gains were made at a time when the industries of other countries were either marking time or suffering from the effects of the economic crises between the two world wars.

The policy of transforming the Soviet Union from a backward, agricultural land into a modern, industrialized one has brought many changes. It has assured the success of collectivization of the farms, the equipping of the countryside with modern machinery and techniques and the development of agriculture on a scale unequaled by any country in the world.

Among the many advances scored by the triumph of socialism in the USSR was the abolition of exploitation of man by man. Socialist society does not know crises, unemployment,



NUMBER OF WORKERS MOUNTS. Prior to the Revolution, the peasantry formed the overwhelming majority of the population. Since 1917, however, industrialization has been intensive, and the number of workers and office employees, as shown in the above diagram (in millions of people) has grown by leaps and bounds.



NATIONAL WEALTH. The diagram shows the rise in national income calculated in 1926-1927 prices, from 1913 to 1950—the last year of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

nor the impoverishment of the people. The workers of the USSR know that the way to a well-to-do and culturally rich life is open to all.

During the process of industrializing the country of socialism, the productive forces of the USSR were immensely augmented by the training of millions as skilled workers and technicians. In the 10 years from 1929 to 1938, for instance, the number of workers and office employees nearly trebled, and wages more than doubled.

As this progress gained momentum, there was born a great and widespread socialist-competition movement among workers in both factory and field. The Stakhanov movement, whose purpose is also to achieve the highest possible productivity of socialist labor—likewise became a part of the life of every plant and collective farm. And the cultural level of the people has risen steadily through the years.

Now the Soviet Union is entering a new stage of development. It is completing the building of a socialist society and gradually moving on to communism.

The war against Hitler Germany put the material and moral powers of the Soviet people to their greatest test. That test fully revealed the political and moral unity of Soviet society and the invincible strength of Soviet patriotism.

Inspired by the Communist Party of Lenin and Stalin, Soviet patriots proved to the whole world that a people fighting in the defense of its socialist homeland cannot be conquered. The Soviet Army, headed by Stalin, the great leader of the Soviet people, saved mankind from the menace of fascist bondage, liberated the peoples of Europe from the yoke of fascism and opened the road to democracy for the peoples of Eastern Europe.

Although the war interrupted the peaceful, constructive labor of the Soviet people, Soviet workers applied themselves to the task of reconstruction and development as soon as the war had ended. They are now working at the task of overfulfilling the postwar Five-Year Plan.

War expenditures and the enormous damage inflicted by the Nazis upon the national economy of the USSR amounted to the stupendous figure of 2,569,000,000,000 rubles—or over 485 billion dollars (nearly eight times the prewar national income of the USA). In such a predicament, any other country would have been faced with utter collapse. But the great strength and vitality of the socialist system of economy have enabled the people to heal the wounds of war.

By 1946, the first year following the war—when other nations were in the throes of the "reconversion" crisis—the USSR had increased its industrial output by 20 per cent as compared with 1945 production.

In 1947 the industries of the USSR made another great stride forward, and raised gross production 22 per cent above the gross production of 1946.

Advances of this tempo in industrial development are unknown abroad, even at the peak of prosperity.

Here are some of the other records

set under the program advanced by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks):

Collective and state farms raised the output of agriculture as a whole in 1947 by 32 per cent, and of field crops by 48 per cent, as compared with the respective outputs of 1946.

Payrolls for workers and office employees rose 23 per cent in 1947, in comparison with 1946 payrolls.

Turnover in retail trade was increased 17 per cent, in comparison with the 1946 turnover.

At the end of 1947, the ration card system was abolished along with "commercial" prices, and a uniform scale of reduced prices was introduced in all state trading enterprises. The reduction in retail prices, alone, gave the country's working people a saving of more than 57,000,000,000 rubles.

With these gains established, the Soviet people launched work on the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan. In the first quarter of 1948, gross industrial output rose by 32 per cent over the first quarter of 1947. And this leap in production in turn served to raise even further the standard of living of the working people. As compared with the first quarter of 1947, sales of bread in the first quarter of 1948 were 72 per cent higher; sugar, 170 per cent; sweets and candies, 57 per cent; textiles, 44 per cent.

Altogether, the reduction of prices, the increase of 41 per cent in the purchasing power of the ruble, as well as the increase in monetary wages, have resulted in an increase in real wages of 51 per cent in the first quarter of this year as compared with the corresponding period in 1947.

The problem of training new workers is also being successfully solved by the Soviet State. In the course of two and one-half years, vocational and factory schools graduated 1,722,000 young skilled workers, and an additional 4,700,000 were trained in special courses, in factory brigades and so on. In two years the number of workers and office employees has increased by 4,200,000 persons.

With this rapidly growing strength, the Soviet Union is creating the conditions necessary for even greater advances in the coming years. With full confidence, the Soviet Union is forging ahead to elevate the flourishing socialist economy and culture, to complete the building of a socialist society and to effect the transition from socialism to communism.

A number of the most important branches of socialist industry have far surpassed their prewar level of production. The manufacture of a great variety of new products has been mastered—bearing witness to the rapid technical progress achieved by Soviet industry. The grim consequences of the war are being eliminated. The advance of agriculture is being pushed with renewed force. Eloquent proof of this is found in the fact that the grain-purchasing plan has been fulfilled ahead of time, in the fact that the collective farms have sold to the State millions of poods of grain over and above quotas.

Each day sees the growth of the splendid group of heroes and heroines of labor who are in the forefront of the countrywide drive of the workers to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in four years. The movement for higher labor productivity, lower production costs and improved quality has embraced every enterprise in the country—factories, mines, electric stations, railways, ships and farms. This socialist drive has caught the imagination of factory and office workers, of collective farmers, engineers, and men of science and art, and is inspiring them to greater achievements.

Soviet culture, science and technique have reached great heights of development. This year more than 33 million children are attending secondary schools, and more than one million young men and women are attending higher educational institutes.

Because of the prevailing system of universal public education and the ready accessibility of higher education to millions of workers and collective farmers, socialist culture is growing.

Soviet culture, socialist in content and national in form, serves the interests of the people. It is the bearer of peace, progress and freedom for all the peoples.

Bound as they are by indissoluble ties, the many peoples of the Soviet Union are confidently solving their historic tasks in spite of the hostile machinations of international reaction.

The achievements of the Soviet people cannot be separated from the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), from its great leaders, Lenin and Stalin. In one of his speeches during the recent war, Stalin described the role and significance of the Communist Party in the history of the Soviet people. He said:

"As in the years of peaceful construction, so in the days of war, the leading and guiding force of the Soviet people has been the Party of Lenin, the Bolshevik Party. No party has enjoyed, or enjoys, such prestige among the masses of the people as our Bolshevik Party. This is natural. Under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party the workers, peasants and intellectuals of our country won their freedom and constructed a socialist society. In this Patriotic War the Party has been the inspirer and organizer of the countrywide struggle against the fascist invaders. The organizational work conducted by our Party has united all the efforts of the Soviet people, and is directing them toward the common goal, and concentrating all our strength and resources on the task of defeating the enemy. During the course of the war, the Party has still further strengthened its bonds of kinship with the people; it has become still more closely connected with the masses of the working people.

"This is the source of the strength of our State."

A new campaign is under way throughout Soviet industry—a drive for economy in raw materials, supplies and fuel, for higher productivity of labor in order to obtain lower costs than were originally called for in the plan.

Moscow workers initiated this drive, undertaking to obtain not less than 2 billion rubles worth of extra accumulations. The Moscow call met wide endorsement from workers in the Urals, in Leningrad, Transcaucasia and the Ukraine.

Only a socialist society could originate such a movement.

Led by the Bolshevik Party and Stalin, the peoples of the Soviet Union are enthusiastically bending their creative energies to the task of building communism and to defending the cause of peace, freedom and democracy.

Atomic and Arms Proposals Underscore Soviet Policy for Peace

By Professor G. A. Deborin

THE SOVIET proposals submitted to the third session of the UN General Assembly on reduction of the armaments and armed forces of the Great Powers by one-third within one year and on the prohibition of the atomic weapon as a weapon designed for aggression and not defense, have evoked warm support among all sincere friends of peace. These proposals are a new and eloquent indication of the peaceable aspirations of the USSR and of its readiness to continue to work for peace and security of nations.

The instigators of new wars, the hirelings of the monopolies which wax rich on war and on the blood and torment of the peoples, met the Soviet proposals with malicious outbursts. They lost no time in declaring that the Soviet suggestions were both sudden and unfeasible. Speaking at the General Assembly session, Ernest Bevin, the head of the British delegation, slanderously accused the Soviet Union of a desire to disarm the whole world while it maintained its own military might intact. Those who are acquainted with the history of the past three decades can very well accuse Bevin of plagiarism. The British Foreign Secretary was anything but original. In fact he was only repeating arguments used by the Conservative, Lord Cushendun, in 1927 and 1928 against the Soviet proposals made in the League of Nations Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference.

This is not the first time that Soviet proposals designed to secure a stable and lasting peace have encountered the resistance of aggressive elements. Only those who have no knowledge of history can describe the Soviet proposals as sudden. The record shows that Soviet Russia has been waging the struggle for peace ever since 1917, during the course of thirty-one years.

The first foreign policy act of the Soviet Republic was the "Decree on Peace" adopted in the very first hours of the Revolution, on the night following November 7, 1917. This decree, written by Lenin, condemned the imperialist war as directed against the vital interests of the peoples and called upon all belligerents immediately to begin negotiations for the conclusion of a just, democratic peace and to terminate the imperialist war. The Soviet Government, the decree pointed out, considered it the greatest crime against humanity to continue the war in order to divide up among the strong and rich nations the small nations they had conquered.

This noble appeal of the young Soviet State for universal peace encountered bitter resistance on the part of the imperialist states.

Anglo - American statesmen were invited to learn more about the Soviet Union in a speech delivered October 4 before the United Nations Political Committee by D. Z. Manuilsky, head of the Ukrainian delegation.

Manuilsky pointed out that objections alleging that the USSR proposals concerning control of atomic energy were "inadequate" were nothing but sophistry aimed at preventing any control whatsoever over the production of the atomic weapon.

The Ukrainian delegate declared:

"Simple but interesting events are going on in our country. You can learn of these events from our press and from the reports of your ambassadors. We are building, and quite successfully at that. And we know your countries better than you know our country because you have never taken serious interest in it. You should not, gentlemen, present your ignorance of the Soviet Union as the result of an 'Iron Curtain' invented by Goebbels—a fairy tale which has been eagerly grasped by Mr. Churchill, and which his Laborite pupils, such as Mr. McNeil, repeat as if it were a school assignment."

In those years the Soviet Republic, which sincerely and honestly proposed peace to the world, could not secure the stoppage of military gambles by the imperialists. It itself was attacked by the intervention forces of fourteen countries; they attacked it in bandit-like fashion, without a declaration of war.

In repelling the onslaught of its enemies, the Soviet Republic continued to work for peace. Month after month it addressed peace proposals to the governments which were waging war on it. But all of these proposals fell on deaf ears.

After the victory of the Soviet people over the forces of intervention, at the very first international conference to which Soviet representatives were invited, the Soviet Government raised the question of measures to secure a lasting peace. This question was raised at the Genoa Conference in the spring of 1922. The Soviet declaration submitted to the conference at its very first plenary meeting, read in part: "The Russian delegation intends at a future stage of the conference to propose universal reduction of armaments and to support all proposals designed to ease the burden of militarism, on condition that armaments reduction will affect all countries and that the rules of warfare will be supplemented by provisos completely prohibiting such barbaric forms of warfare as poison gas, air warfare, etc., and in particular, the application of weapons of destruction directed against the peaceful population."

This proposal on disarmament and on prohibiting weapons directed at the destruction of the peaceful population was proof positive of Soviet Russia's desire for a lasting peace. Nonetheless, the Soviet proposals received a hostile reception by the Western Powers and were rejected by the conference majority.

It is an historical fact that the Soviet Republic was the initiator of the

first disarmament conference after the First World War. The conference was held in Moscow in December, 1922 and only a few countries participated. In addition to the Soviet Republic, on whose initiative it had been called, the conference was attended by representatives of Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Estonia and Finland. The Soviet Government suggested that the countries represented agree to proportional reduction of armaments and armed forces. Soviet Russia declared it was ready to set an example in reducing armaments. But the governments of the other states represented at the conference, who were under the influence of the great Western Powers, turned down the Soviet suggestion.

However, the Soviet Republic continued persistently to work for the consolidation of peace and the security of nations. On November 30, 1927, the Soviet delegation to the League of Nations Preparatory Commission on Disarmament submitted, on the instructions of its Government, a project for general and complete disarmament. The clauses of the Soviet draft contained concretely defined proposals for a complete abolition of the armies and navies of all powers, for the destruction of all weapons of war, the abolition of military service and military training, the complete cessation of the manufacture of war materials of every description, the dissolution of war and navy ministries, general staffs, etc. In particular, the Soviet delegation stressed the readiness of the Soviet Union immediately to carry out on its territory any convention that might be adopted.

The representatives of the Western Powers, who were already at that time preparing the Second World War and facilitating Germany's rearmament, met the Soviet proposals with unconcealed hostility. Having no arguments to cite in opposition to these suggestions, they hastened to brand them as "propaganda"—a method very much in use today! At that time Lord Cushendun came out with his "profound" disquisition which was so diligently repeated 21 years later by Ernest Bevin. With the aim in view of disrupting disarmament, the Western Powers engineered a League of Nations decision to the effect that no disarmament would be effected until "additional guarantees of security" had been drawn up and put into force. The League of Nations created a vicious circle; today the opponents of the Soviet proposals and advocates of "guarantees of security" before disarmament, are trying to place the UN in a similar vicious circle. For it is obvious to every sensible person that the very best guarantee of security is disarmament itself. Without disarmament the security of nations against aggression cannot be guaranteed. If disarmament is counterposed to security, then both disarmament and security are brought to a deadlock. And this is precisely what the League of Nations succeeded in accomplishing.

The League's Preparatory Commission on Disarmament did not adopt the Soviet proposal on universal and complete disarmament. Neither did it adopt the Soviet project of partial reduction of armaments. In fact, it adopted no program of disarmament. No headway was made, either, by the conference on disarmament which met in 1932-1934 and which again under pressure of the imperialists refused to accept the Soviet proposals for complete or even partial disarmament. At this conference the Soviet Union proposed a definition of an aggressor and of aggression, the adoption of which could have marked an important contribution to collective security, of which the USSR was always an ardent champion. The Soviet statement on the subject declared: "In submitting its new proposals the Soviet Government is inspired only by the same desire which prompted it to suggest complete disarmament and to devote so important a place in its foreign policy to the system of bilateral nonaggression pacts, namely, the desire for maximum safeguards of universal peace." The new Soviet proposals were likewise turned down by the conference on disarmament.

It is now clear to all that a timely realization of the Soviet proposals on disarmament, collective security and on curbing the forces of aggression would have averted the Second World War, which resulted in such great losses and so much suffering for the peoples.. But the warning voice of the Soviet Union was not heeded.

Now, after the Second World War, the USSR continues with even greater energy its struggle for a lasting and stable peace and for the security of nations. The Soviet Union is true to its firm policy of peace. That is why V. M. Molotov, its Foreign Minister, proposed to the UN General Assembly, on October 29, 1946, that a decision be made on the universal reduction of armaments and on prohibiting the manufacture and utilization of atomic energy for military purposes. V. M. Molotov said on that occasion that the time had come to take measures for a universal reduction of armaments. The operation of these measures would, at the same time, enhance the belief that the members of the United Nations are really imbued with the desire for lasting peace. Lastly, a reduction of armaments would be a deserved blow to the expansionist proclivities of groups which have not yet properly assimilated the lessons of the ignominious collapse of the aggressors in the recent war.

After the memorable events of the Second World War, the UN General Assembly could not but agree with the Soviet proposals, which were made the foundation of the General Assembly's resolution. However, the practical operation of this resolution was frustrated by imperialist circles.

At the second session of the General Assembly the Soviet Union made its well-known proposal on prohibiting criminal propaganda for a new war and on holding responsible as outright criminals the instigators of a new war. This Soviet proposal was made the basis of the General Assembly's decision on the subject. But this decision, too, has not been put into operation in the Western countries, where rabid war propaganda continues as before.

Now the Soviet Union has again raised the question of effective measures to consolidate peace. The proposals of the USSR, made at the third session of the General Assembly, on armaments reduction and the prohibition of the atomic weapon conform with the basic interests of the peoples of all countries. The proposals of the Soviet Union are motivated by the desire of the Soviet people and of their leader, Joseph Stalin, to secure a stable peace. They are an important contribution to the cause of peace and security of nations.

All Peoples Are Equal in USSR

By S. Ronin

Master of Law

THROUGH the centuries the best minds of humanity have dreamed of a golden era in which all peoples, irrespective of race or religion, would enjoy equal rights. This dream received its first clear political expression in the noble motto inscribed on the banners of the French Revolution: *Liberté Egalité, Fraternité*. In reality, however, this challenging slogan was not carried into actuality. But since then, the principle of equality of all peoples has become deeply rooted in the conscience of the peoples of the world—has become a recognized principle of real democracy.

This principle has been strengthened in the minds of millions by the events of the Second World War and the defeat of the fascist "new order" which exposed in all their horror the results of racist principles.

Can it be said today, however, that after the rout of German fascism and the adoption of the United Nations Charter, which proclaims the aim of equal rights and freedom, the ideology and practice of racial discrimination has been eradicated from the systems of all the civilized states? Can it be said that the blessings of democracy—freedom, independence, and equality—are enjoyed by all the peoples of the world, whether their skins be white, black or yellow and regardless of any other superficial distinctions?

ABSOLUTE and universal—and not merely legal, but actual, equality of all races and nationalities is one of the chief constitutional principles on which social and state life is based in the Soviet Union.

The Soviet State arose from the ruins of the Russian empire, an empire which had pursued a policy of racial, national and religious intolerance toward the numerous peoples inhabiting its colonial outskirts, as well as those (e.g., the Jewish people) who lived within the boundaries of Russia proper. The tsarist Government purposely hindered the cultural and economic development of these peoples. The chief methods used by tsarism to effect its national policy were frenzied chauvinism, discrimination in law and in fact, and the stimulation of internecine strife: the incitation of one people against another.

In the very first days of the Revolution—on November 15, 1917—the Soviet Government issued a special edict: the *Declaration of Rights of the Peoples of Russia*. Its authors were Lenin and Stalin. The edict laid down the following principles:

1. The equality and sovereignty of all the peoples of Russia.

2. The right of the peoples of Russia to self-determination, including the right to secede and to form independent states.

3. The abolition of all privileges and restrictions based on nationality or religion.

4. The right of all nationalities and ethnographic groups to unhampered development.

These magnificent principles served as the foundation on which the USSR was organized and built as a multinational State, (the most multinational State in the world, consisting of 60 major nationalities, and about one hundred smaller national groups and tribes) as a voluntary union of the equal peoples of Russia.

For the first time in history, the citizens of Russia, irrespective of race or nationality, religion or cultural status, were given equal rights and the complete freedom to exercise these rights in all spheres of state, economic and cultural life. Stalin declared: "We have liquidated national oppression, but that is not enough. It is also necessary to liquidate the grim legacy of the past—the economic, political and cultural backwardness of the formerly oppressed nations." And tremendous effort and indomitable energy on the part of the Soviet Government were required to eliminate, with dispatch, this "grim legacy."

The Soviet Government's great effort and steadfastness of purpose

KAZAKH DEPUTIES. All the Soviet peoples are represented in the Supreme Soviet of USSR. One of its two chambers, the Soviet of Nationalities, is concerned primarily with specific national problems.

yielded brilliant results. In place of the racial discrimination and enslavement that dominated tsarist Russia, the absolute equality of all races and nationalities triumphed in the Soviet Union.

As a result of this policy the former colonial agrarian outskirts of the Russian empire—Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenia, and many others—overcame their economic backwardness in an amazingly short time. They became Republics with well-developed industry and large-scale mechanized collective farm agriculture, and are approaching economic equality with the most advanced sections of the European part of the USSR. Whereas, for example, gross output of large industry throughout the entire Soviet Union increased 10.9 times from 1913 to 1940, it increased 22.2 times in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic, 22.3 times in the Armenian SSR, 26.4 times in the Georgian SSR, 160 times in the Kirghiz SSR, and 242 times in the Tajik SSR. Under the tsar the peoples of each one of these areas were sorely oppressed; their way of life was backward and primitive.

The peoples of the USSR have also registered great cultural progress. In regions where before the Revolution almost the entire population was illiterate, a wide-flung network of schools, special high schools, and institutions of higher education have been established; literature and art are flourishing; national intelligentsia have come into being. A number of small nationalities, particularly in the far north of the Soviet Union, acquired an alphabet and a written language of their own only after the accession of Soviet power.

Soviet Kirghizia furnishes a typical example of the cultural advances formerly backward peoples have made under Soviet power. In Kirghizia before the Revolution there was not a single elementary school open to Kirghiz children. Now, seven-year education is compulsory for all children, rural and urban. In the Kirghiz SSR there are six higher schools training highly qualified technical experts. There are 23 scientific research institutes in Kirghizia. The center of scientific thought in this Republic is the Kirghiz Academy of Sciences, a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

PRIMARY READER. Kirghiz children read a story written in their own tongue.

SCIENTIST. A. G. Ali-Zade, Stalin Prize winner and geologist of Soviet Azerbaijan.

A highly important factor in the implementation of the doctrine of equality of the peoples in the Soviet Union is adaptation of the entire social and state system of the USSR in such a way as to ensure that the different interests of all the "minority" peoples are fully met.

The USSR unites 16 sovereign Union Republics. All share equal rights. A number of the Union Republics (for instance, the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic) include autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas.

The Soviet of Nationalities, one of the two equal chambers of the Soviet parliament, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, is composed of deputies representing directly these national state divisions, and charged primarily with matters concerning the interests of the nationalities as such. Regardless of size or population, each Union Republic sends 25 deputies to this chamber; each autonomous republic, 11; each autonomous region, five; and each national area, one.

All of the peoples of the USSR are also represented in the other chamber, the Soviet of the Union; but in this case, deputies are elected on a basis of electoral areas based on population.

The organs of state authority and government, the courts and the organs of education in all the Union and autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas, consist primarily of representatives of the local population. All official business of the State, and of public institutions, as well as instruction in the schools, is conducted in the native tongue of the local population.

Citizens of the USSR, regardless of race or nationality, enjoy equal protection of the law. Judicial proceedings are conducted in the language of the Union Republic, autonomous republic or autonomous region.

Thus we see that the principle of the equality of all races and nationalities is rooted deeply in every phase of the life of Soviet citizens. This principle has become the indefeasible law of the Soviet State, of Soviet democracy. The Constitution of the USSR, which has integrated this principle into its articles, simultaneously condemns any violation of this principle as a grave and punishable crime against the State.

The equality of all peoples exists in the Soviet Union both in law and in fact. In the USSR no person faces discrimination of any sort because of nationality, race, or religion. Conversely, no person has any privileges based upon these factors. All are equal.

In the international field, as at home, the USSR stands consistently for the equality of all nations and races. This policy, often opposed by those nations which neither in domestic life nor in foreign policy follow such principles, is supported by the forces of progress and democracy throughout the world.

NIGHT SCENE. Silhouetted against the sky are the Kremlin towers.

MOSCOW VANGUARD. A year ago the most noted district leaders headed their marchers into Red Square for the historic review.

HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS. Students of a Moscow secondary school.

Celebrations in Other Years

FACTORY STUDENTS. Typical of Moscow's girls, this group is from the "Calibre" Factory Training School.

THEATER CROWDS. These celebrators are in Moscow's Bolshoi Theater.

OLD TIMERS. These veterans of the Revolution of 1905 paraded several years ago.

GRANDSTAND. Section of crowd watching last year's parade.

GIFTS FOR ALL. Last year, as this, children celebrated the Anniversary in their kindergartens.

SPORTS SOCIETY. Girl athletes of the "Trud" group wave at officials.

LENINGRAD GIRLS. These paraders were in the march two years ago.

Text of Stalin's Interview With Pravda Writer

The following is the official text of a question-and-answer interview by a "Pravda" correspondent with J. V. Stalin.

Q. How do you regard the results of the discussions in the Security Council on the question of the situation in Berlin and the conduct of the Anglo-American and French representatives in this matter?

A. I regard them as a display of the aggressiveness of the policy of Anglo-American and French ruling circles.

Q. Is it true that in August of this year, agreement had already been reached among the Four Powers on the question of Berlin?

A. Yes, that is true. The agreement is known to have been reached in Moscow on August 30 last, among representatives of the USSR, USA, Great Britain and France regarding the simultaneous implementation of measures for the lifting of transport restrictions on the one hand and for the introduction of the German mark of the Soviet zone in Berlin as the sole currency, on the other hand. That agreement does not hurt anyone's prestige, it takes into account the interests of the parties concerned and ensures the possibility of further co-operation. But the Governments of the USA, and Great Britain disavowed their representatives in Moscow and declared the agreement to be null and void; that is, they violated the agreement, having decided to refer the question to the Security Council where the Anglo-Americans have a guaranteed majority.

Q. Is it true that in Paris during the recent discussion on the question in the Security Council, an agreement on the situation in Berlin had again been reached in unofficial talks even before the question was voted upon in the Security Council?

A. Yes. That is true. Dr. Bramuglia, the representative of the Argentine and president of the Security Council, who conducted the unofficial talks with

J. V. Stalin

Comrade Vyshinsky on behalf of the other powers concerned, did have in his hands an agreed-upon draft decision on the question of the situation in Berlin. But the representatives of the USA and Great Britain once again declared that agreement to be null and void.

Q. What is the matter then, could you explain?

A. The thing is that those in the USA and Great Britain who inspire the aggressive policy do not consider themselves interested in an agreement and in co-operation with the USSR. What they want is not agreement and co-operation, but talk about agreement and co-operation, so as to put the blame on the USSR by preventing agreement and thus to "prove" that co-operation with the USSR is impossible. What the war instigators who are striving to unleash a new war fear most of all is the reaching of agreements and co-operation with the USSR because a policy of concord with the USSR undermines the position of the instigators of war and deprives the aggressive policy of those gentlemen of any purpose. It is for this reason that they disrupt agreements that have already been reached, that they disavow their representatives who have drawn up such agreements together with the USSR, and, in violation of the United Nations Charter, refer the question to the Security Council where they have a guaranteed majority and where they can "prove" whatever they like. All this is done to "show" that co-operation with the USSR is impossible and to "show" the necessity for a new war and thus prepare the ground for the unleashing of war.

The policy of the present leaders of the USA and Great Britain is a policy of aggression, a policy of the unleashing of a new war.

Q. How should one regard the conduct of the representatives of the six states, members of the Security Council: of China, Canada, Belgium, the Argentine, Colombia and Syria?

A. Those gentlemen are obviously lending their support to the policy of aggression, to the policy of unleashing a new war.

Q. What can all this end in?

A. It can only end in ignominious failure on the part of the instigators of a new war. Churchill, the main instigator of a new war, has already managed to deprive himself of the trust of his own nation and of democratic forces throughout the world. The same fate lies in store for all other instigators of war. The horrors of the recent war are still too fresh in the memory of the peoples; and public forces favoring peace are too strong for Churchill's pupils in aggression to overpower them and turn them toward a new war.

Tass Sends Draft Text

USSR Agreed to Berlin Compromise

THE following is the draft resolution of the Security Council agreed upon by the representative of the USSR, Vyshinsky, and the Argentine delegate, Bramuglia, who represented the other powers, following unofficial negotiations October 24, and rejected by representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France on October 25:

"The Security Council, having given thorough consideration to a number of events which led to the present serious situation in Berlin, and recognizing the main responsibility of the Council for the maintenance of international peace and security, and

"Acting in accordance with Article 40 of the Charter with a view to preventing any complication of the situation in Berlin, and, in particular, with a view to preparing the way for its settlement,

"Appeals to the four Governments which bear in Germany and in Berlin the responsibility of occupying powers: France, the United Kingdom, the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

"1. To prevent the occurrence of any incident which for its character could aggravate the present situation in Berlin.

"2. To carry out simultaneously—namely, on the day when the four Governments concerned are notified of this resolution—measures essential for the execution of points "A" and "B" as follows:

"A. Immediate lifting by all parties concerned of all restrictions in regard to communications, transport and commerce between Berlin and the Western Zones of Germany and restrictions in regard to the flow of transport and trade from and to the Soviet Zone of Germany, with the understanding that the above restrictions are those which were introduced by the parties concerned after March 1, 1948.

"B. Immediate convocation of a conference of the four military commanders with a view to reaching agreement in regard to the unification of currency in Berlin on the basis of the German mark of the Soviet zone. The four military commanders will establish conditions for the introduction and circulation and further utilization of the German mark of the Soviet zone as the sole currency for all of Berlin and will reach agreement on the immobilization of the Western mark "B". All the above-mentioned points shall be carried out in accordance with the conditions defined in the joint directive issued to the four military commanders in Berlin, which was agreed upon by the four Governments in Moscow and published on August 30, 1948, and shall be executed under the supervision of the quadripartite Financial Commission, whose organization, powers and duties have been formulated in the directive. This measure must be fully implemented by the date set out in point "C".

"C. Section 2, points "A" and "B" shall be fully implemented by November 20, 1948.

"3. To resume negotiations in the Council of Foreign Ministers on all pending problems concerning Germany as a whole within ten days after the execution of the measures provided for in Section 2 or in that period, in regard to which agreement shall be reached among the four Governments."

The resolution on the Berlin question voted by the Security Council on October 25 completely coincides with the above draft of the resolution of the Security Council, with the exception of the formulation of Point "C" of the second section which in the Security Council's resolution reads thus:

"C. The date mentioned in the latter part of point 'B' shall be November 20, 1948."

As will be seen, this formulation rejects simultaneous lifting of the transport restrictions and of the introduction of the currency of the Soviet zone in Berlin, since the voted resolution stipulates that the transport restrictions are to be lifted immediately, whereas the introduction of a uniform currency in Berlin is postponed until November 20, a provision fraught with great dangers for the economy of the Soviet Zone of Germany.

The following statement was made by Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, in his capacity as Soviet representative to the Far Eastern Commission, on October 28, 1948.

ACCORDING to U. S. press agency reports from Japan, a secret military conference with General MacArthur was held in Tokyo during the period of October 12 to 14. At this conference, according to an Associated Press report of October 15, the questions of increasing American occupation forces in Japan and of preparing measures against a surprise attack on Japan were discussed, although it is known to everyone that nobody threatens Japan. The same report states that key U. S. military officers have expressed great satisfaction with the fact that the former Japanese naval base in Yokosuka is being converted into a modern naval base, capable of serving large naval forces. Conversion of this base is in contradiction to the Cairo and the Potsdam Declarations as well as to the decisions of the Far Eastern Commission on the same subject.

In drawing the attention of the FEC members to the above-mentioned reports and in making reference to the FEC decision, *Basic Post-Surrender Policy for Japan,* of June 19, 1947 (Part III-1—*Disarmament and Demilitariztion*), the Soviet delegation considers it necessary that the U. S. representative on the FEC inform the Commission of the substance of this matter.

ROLLED SHEET STEEL. The finished product is being stacked at the Dzerzhinsky Iron and Steel works in Dnieprodzerzhinsk.

Most Estimates Exceeded

Third Quarter Report Shows Gains In Postwar 5-Year Plan

The following is the statement of the Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, summarizing the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the USSR, during the third quarter of 1948:

THE work of industry, agriculture and transport, and the volume of capital development and retail trade in the third quarter of 1948 are characterized by the following data:

I

Fulfillment of Production Plan by Industry

The production plan for gross industrial output in the third quarter of 1948 was carried out by the ministries as follows:

MINISTRY	*Percentage of fulfillment of quarterly plan for the third quarter of 1948*
Metallurgical Industry	113
Coal Industry of the Western Areas	103
Coal Industry of the Eastern Areas	101
Oil Industry of the Southern and Western Areas	106
Oil Industry of the Eastern Areas	112
Power Stations	101
Chemical Industry	115
Electrical Equipment Industry	117
Communications Equipment Industry	103
Heavy Machine-building Industry	109
Automobile and Tractor Industry	113
Machine-Tool Industry	108
Machine and Instrument-making Industry	110
Building and Road-building Machinery Industry	119
Transport Machinery Industry	119
Agricultural Machinery Industry	103
Building Materials Industry of the USSR	112
Timber and Paper Industry of the USSR	109
Textile Industry of the USSR	107
Light Industry of the USSR	107
Fish Industry of the Western Areas	102
Fish Industry of the Eastern Areas	85
Meat and Dairy Industry of the USSR	91
Food Industry of the USSR	109
Gustatory Products Industry of the USSR	107
Local industry and local fuel industry in the Union republics	108

The plan for the third quarter of 1948 for gross output of the industry of the USSR as a whole was fulfilled by 107 per cent. The target figure set in the annual plan for 1948 as regards gross output of industry during the first nine months of the year was exceeded by six per cent.

In the course of the first nine months of 1948 the gross output of industry exceeded the average level of the prewar year of 1940 by 14 per cent and in September by 26 per cent.

Although the production plan for the gross output of industry as a whole as well as for the majority of the most important items of industrial output in kind was overfulfilled, separate ministries failed to fulfill the plan for certain important items of output.

The quarterly production plan was not fulfilled by the Ministry of the Metallurgical Industry for steel cable, tin sheeting and transformer steel; the Ministry of the Agricultural Machinery Industry, for self-propelled combine harvesters; the Ministry of the Coal Industry of the Western Areas, for coking coal; the Ministry of the Electrical Equipment Industry, for trunk-line electric locomotives and electric generators under one hundred kilowatts in capacity; the Ministry of the Automobile and Tractor Industry, for passenger cars; the Ministry of the Machine and Instrument-making Industry, for chemical equipment and hydroturbines; the Ministry of the Transport Machinery Industry, for steam turbines, tractors and trunk-line diesel locomotives, and the Ministry of the Timber and Paper Industry, for dressed lumber and ties.

II

Increase in Industrial Production

Production of the most important items of industrial output registered the following changes in the third quarter of 1948 as compared with the third quarter of 1947:

	Third quarter of 1948 in per cent of third quarter of 1947
Pig iron	115
Steel	125
Rolled metal	126
Railway rails	119
Iron tubing	134
Copper	123
Zinc	136
Lead	104
Coal	114
Oil	109
Gasoline	107
Kerosene	118
Natural Gas	103
Electric power	115
Trunk-line locomotives	138
Trunk-line freight cars	167
Trolley busses	298
Trucks	143
Passenger Automobiles	192
Autobusses	117
Ball bearings	124
Metallurgical equipment	206
Electric motors, one hundred kilowatts and under	150
Electric motors, over one hundred kilowatts	135
Metal-cutting machine tools	118
Ring-spinning frames	192
Looms	208
Agricultural Machines	209
Tractors	194
Harvester combines	441
Tractor-drawn plows	211
Tractor-drawn seed drills	194
Tractor-drawn cultivators	119
Threshers	220
Caustic Soda	124
Calcined Soda	140
Mineral Fertilizers (super-phosphate, nitrates and potash)	143
Synthetic dyes	135
Synthetic rubber	199
Automobile tires	127
Haulage of Timber	115
Paper	119
Cement	131
Slate	137
Window glass	114
Soft roofings	123
Bricks	146
Cotton textiles	118
Woolen textiles	126
Leather footwear	123
Rubber footwear	132
Hosiery	146
Meat	115
Animal fats	118
Vegetable oils	107
Soap	136
Alcohol	127

LOCOMOTIVE SHOP. Here a finished boiler is installed in the Krasnoyarsk Locomotive Works.

Gross output of industry as a whole in the third quarter of 1948 increased by 23 per cent as compared with the third quarter of 1947.

In the third quarter of 1948 a considerable quantity of industrial output, including iron and steel and non-ferrous metals, coal, machines and equipment, caustic and calcined soda, dyes, window glass, slate, textiles, flour, vegetable oil, alcohol and soap was produced over and above plan.

The plan set for reduction of production costs of industrial output during the third quarter of 1948 was overfulfilled. The total economy, above plan, accruing from the reduction of costs of industrial production amounted to more than 4,000,000,000 rubles in the first nine months of 1948.

III

Agriculture

The crop area under all farm crops considerably expanded in 1948. The increase of the area under this year's crops amounted to 13,300,000 hectares* as compared with 1947.

In spite of the unfavorable weather conditions in most areas of the Volga valley, the grain harvest throughout the USSR is considerably greater than that of last year.

The gross grain harvest in 1948 reached the level of the prewar year of 1940, while yields per hectare of grain crops exceeded the prewar level.

This year's harvest was carried through better than last year. By October 10, 1948, the grain harvest had been completed on an area 10 million hectares greater than by the same date last year.

The sowing of winter crops and autumn plowing are also proceeding better than last year. By October 10, 1948, three million hectares more had been sown to winter crops than had been sown last year and 10,600,000 hectares more had been plowed than had been plowed by the same date last year.

Considerable improvement has been registered in livestock-raising on the collective farms. The increase in head of livestock on the collective farms by September 1, 1948, as compared with September 1, 1947, was as follows: beef and dairy cattle, 22 per cent, hogs, 71 per cent, sheep and goats, 15 per cent, and horses, 11 per cent. The number of head of livestock which are the personal property of the collective farmers also increased.

IV

Cargo Carriage by Rail and River Transport

In the third quarter of 1948 average daily carloadings amounted to 115 per cent of the third quarter of 1947. Average daily loadings of iron and steel increased by 19 per cent; ore by 9 per cent; coke by 19 per cent; oil by 15 per cent; coal by three per cent; grain by 21 per cent; flour by 63 per cent; salt by 11 per cent; timber by 30 per cent; cement by 25 per cent. The general plan for average daily carloadings was fulfilled by 99 per cent in the third quarter.

Cargo carriage on the riverways increased in the third quarter of 1948 by 27 per cent as compared with the third quarter of 1947, with the plan for the quarter being fulfilled by 107 per cent.

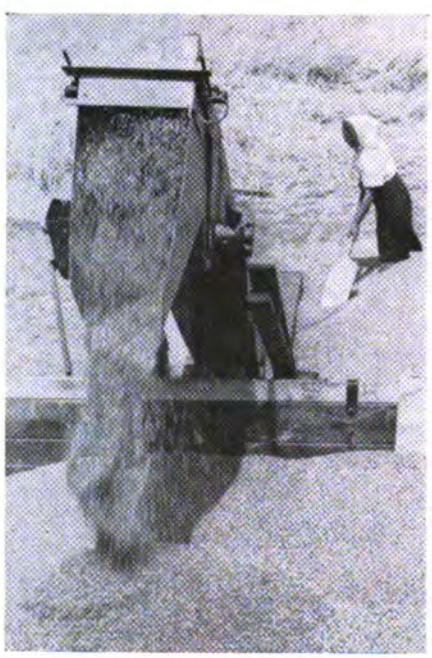
V

Increase in Capital Development in the National Economy

The volume of all capital development during the first nine months of 1948 throughout the entire national economy amounted to 126 per cent of the first nine months of

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

PRIDE. Miners check their records on the mine's honor roll.



LOADING GRAIN. Record harvest was partly due to big "Gigant" State Farm.

SILK PRINTS. Artists examine run at mill in Moscow.

1947, including 127 per cent in the coal industry, 126 per cent in the metallurgical industry, 117 per cent at electric power stations, 111 per cent in the machine-building industry, 130 per cent in the food and light industries, 113 per cent in transport, and 144 per cent in housing.

The Ministry of Construction of Fuel Industry Works, the Ministry of Construction of Heavy Industry Works, the Central Administration (under the Council of Ministers of the USSR) in charge of construction of enterprises of the oil and gas industry, and the Central Administration (under the Council of Ministers of the USSR) in charge of construction of engineering enterprises, although they exceeded the volume of building and assembly as compared with the third quarter of last year, did not fulfill their quarterly plans.

VI

Expansion of Trade

Soviet trade continued to expand further in the third quarter of 1948.

The sale of food and manufactured goods by the state and co-operative retail network increased substantially in the third quarter of 1948. The sale of bread in the third quarter of 1948 increased by 56 per cent as compared with the third quarter of 1947; fish products, by 20 per cent; sugar by 92 per cent; confectionary products by 41 per cent; cotton goods by 55 per cent; woolen fabrics by 41 per cent; silk fabrics by 24 per cent; leather footwear by 28 per cent; the sale of rubber footwear doubled.

The sale of agricultural produce at collective farm markets increased substantially as compared with the second quarter of 1948, and exceeded the prewar level by 22 per cent.

Systematic reduction of prices in the co-operative network and on the collective farm markets continued throughout the third quarter of 1948. Prices on the co-operative market in towns dropped in the third quarter of 1948 by 13 per cent as compared with the second quarter of 1948, and prices on the collective farm markets dropped by 24 per cent during this period.

In connection with the excellent crop of potatoes and other vegetables, the delivery of these products to industrial centers increased considerably: by October 1, 1948, purchasing organizations shipped in 58 per cent more potatoes and 19 per cent more of other vegetables than by the same date last year.

VII

Increase in the Number of Workers and Other Employees and Growth of the Productivity of Labor

The total number of workers and other employees engaged in the national economy increased by 2,400,000 in the third quarter of 1948 as compared with the third quarter of 1947.

The productivity of the labor of workers in industry increased in the third quarter of 1948 by 11 per cent as compared with the third quarter of 1947, including 15 per cent in the machine-building industry, 18 per cent in the metallurgical industry, and 10 per cent in the coal industry.

The wage fund for the whole national economy increased in the third quarter of 1948 by nine per cent as compared with the third quarter of 1947, including 14 per cent for workers in industry, 25 per cent for workers in construction, and 19 per cent for teachers and other school personnel.

During the third quarter of the year, 245 thousand young skilled workers completed their studies at industrial training and railway schools and were provided jobs in industry, construction sites and transport.

VIII

Enrollment at Higher Educational Institutions and Technical Schools in the Autumn of 1948

In the current academic year, 188 thousand students were enrolled as freshmen at higher educational establishments—16 per cent more than in the prewar year of 1940. The plan for enrollment in the 1948 academic year has been fulfilled and for educational establishments in the fields of industry and construction, transport and communications, agriculture, economics, law and medicine, the plan was exceeded.

In the current academic year, 360 thousand students were enrolled in technical schools and other specialized secondary schools—nine per cent more than in 1940. The plan for enrollment in technical schools and other specialized secondary schools was fulfilled.

IX

Restoration of Economy in the Areas Occupied During the War

Gross production of industry in the areas that were occupied by the enemy during the war increased by 38 per cent in the third quarter of 1948 as compared with the third quarter of 1947, the output of pig iron mounting by 29 per cent; steel by 63 per cent; rolled metal by 53 per cent; electric power by 33 per cent; cement by 39 per cent; and coal in the Donbas (Donets Basin) by 20 per cent.

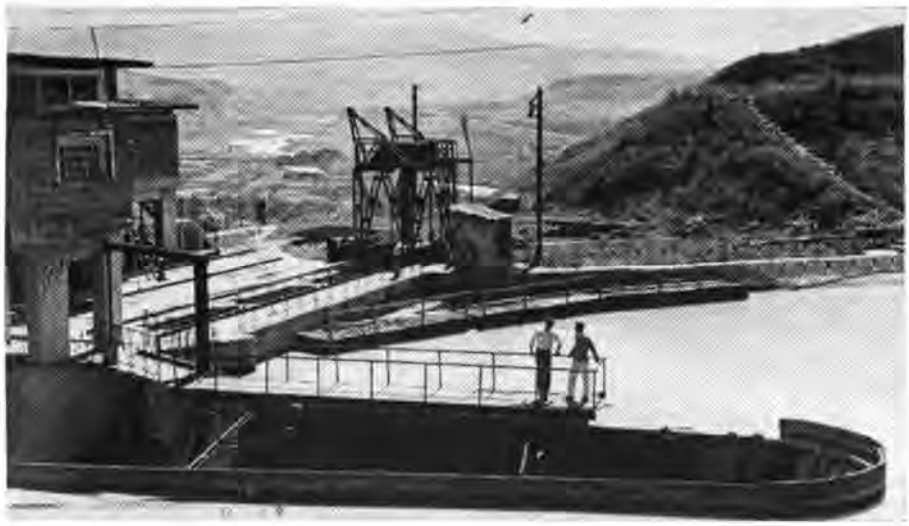
Centralized capital development amounting to 13,200,000,000 rubles was carried out in these areas during the first nine months of 1948. 2,500,000 square meters* of housing floorspace in towns and 175 thousand dwelling houses in rural localities were built or restored.

X

Development of the national economy of the USSR during the past three quarters of 1948 was marked by the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the assignments of the annual national-economic plan. On the basis of widely-developed socialist competition, the Soviet people attained new successes in the struggle for the early completion of the program for the third, decisive year of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan.

CENTRAL STATISTICAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF THE USSR

* One square meter = 10.764 square feet.



POWER STATION. Many hydroelectric stations have been built or rebuilt since the war. A new pressure section of Baksan power station.

Capital Construction High

Soviet Union Has Surpassed Its Prewar Output

By B. I. Braginsky, M.S. (Economics)

THE most noteworthy feature of the current year is the fact that the USSR has surpassed the prewar level of industrial output and that many of its key industries are completing their five-year programs ahead of the scheduled date. The pace of industrial growth may be judged by the fact that the average increase in industrial production over the volume of the prewar year of 1940 was 14 per cent in the first three quarters of 1948, and 26 per cent in September.

Following in the wake of the coal mining industry and power stations, the most important branches of heavy industry have already topped the 1940 level. This means that the objectives set forth in the Five-Year Plan will be surpassed. Never before have the coal and ore mines, power stations and the new projects under construction in the metallurgical industry, the machine-and-tractor stations and state farms, the textile mills and food factories, received as many machines as this year. The increase in the production of machinery over last year is expressed in scores of per cent.

The prewar level is the standard of a highly developed industrial power. In 1940, Soviet industry held the first place in Europe for the volume of production and production capacities. It has not only retained its leading place in Europe, but the proportionate share of the USSR in European industrial production is far greater than before the war.

The statement of the Central Statistical Administration of the USSR on the results of the realization of the Plan for the third quarter of 1948, provides added illustration that the extremely high pace of growth in industrial production, which has surpassed the prewar pace, is a regular feature of Soviet economic development.

Here are some of the figures illustrating the rapid industrial progress of the USSR in the postwar period (figures indicate the per cent of increase in production over the corresponding period of 1947):

1946 as against 1945—20 per cent; 1947 as against 1946—22 per cent; the third quarter of 1948 as against the third quarter of 1947—23 per cent.

For comparison it may be mentioned that the average annual increase in production from 1928 to 1940 was 17 per cent.

The highest pace of increase in production has been attained by the machine-building industry which has substantially expanded its capacities.

Another feature of the third year of the Five-Year Plan period is the accelerated expansion of the raw-material-producing industries and the extension of the basis for the manufacturing industries. A steadily increasing pace of growth is observed in the production of fuel, metals and building materials. This has made it possible to meet all the urgent needs of production and to increase the available stocks. And greater stocks have made it possible to prevent a seasonal decline in production in the winter months and to secure a stable increase in production from quarter to quarter. In the winter of 1948-1949 Soviet industry will likewise have abundant stocks.

The high pace of production increase this year was determined not only by more rationalized usage of the available capacities (and Soviet industry has made considerable headway in this respect), but also by the addition of new capacities on a far greater scale than in the two earlier postwar years.

There has been an exceptional increase in the volume of capital construction this year. As compared with the increase of 17 per cent in 1946 and 10 per cent in 1947, capital investments increased by 26 per cent during the first nine months of 1948. The volume of capital investments is far greater than in 1945 (an increase expressed in scores of per cent). This furnishes a vivid illustration of the growing internal economic forces of the USSR, of its rising industrial might. It should be borne in mind that in 1945, capital investments in the USSR had already attained a very high level.

A CHARACTERISTIC feature of this year is the almost general overfulfillment of the state production quotas. In nine months, industrial production topped the planned target by six per cent. One of the main factors behind the overfulfillment of the plans

is the countrywide socialist emulation movement for the realization of the Five-Year Plan ahead of the scheduled date. Millions of people are constantly pondering ways and means for speeding the fulfillment of the Plan; new suggestions are being constantly advanced on the initiative of the people. This initiative brings to light formerly unnoticed or unknown reserves. The pace of production was quickened this year thanks largely to the introduction of average-progressive quotas. The attention of the engineers and the workers was concentrated mainly upon qualitative improvements, with a view primarily to raising labor productivity, promoting greater saving of materials, and, consequently, lowering the cost of production. More than 4,000,000,000 rubles in accumulations over and above the planned figure for the nine months of the year, was the first result of the effort to make the industrial enterprises profitable.

Labor productivity in industry rose by 11 per cent during the third quarter of the current year, which is a colossal achievement.

The rapid growth of labor productivity in industry opens tremendous possibilities for the future growth of production.

THE tremendous growth in the quantity of production was combined with considerable qualitative changes. The Soviet national economy is completely independent and self-sufficient, able to produce any type of equipment, any raw material. During the postwar period, Soviet industry has convincingly shown its tremendous ability to increase production and to launch the mass production of items formerly not made in the USSR. The new items include hundreds of new types of machine tools, unique machine tools of gigantic dimensions, automatic direct-route production lines, precision machine tools, etc.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINES. Production in this vital branch of industry increased sharply. Combines at the Krasnoyarsk combine plant.

The USSR has attained a very high technical standard in the production of turbines, boilers, generators and electrical equipment. It is turning out an exceptionally large assortment of tractors and agricultural machines.

Much has been done to raise production in the industries producing consumers' goods, to improve the quality and to broaden the assortment of their products.

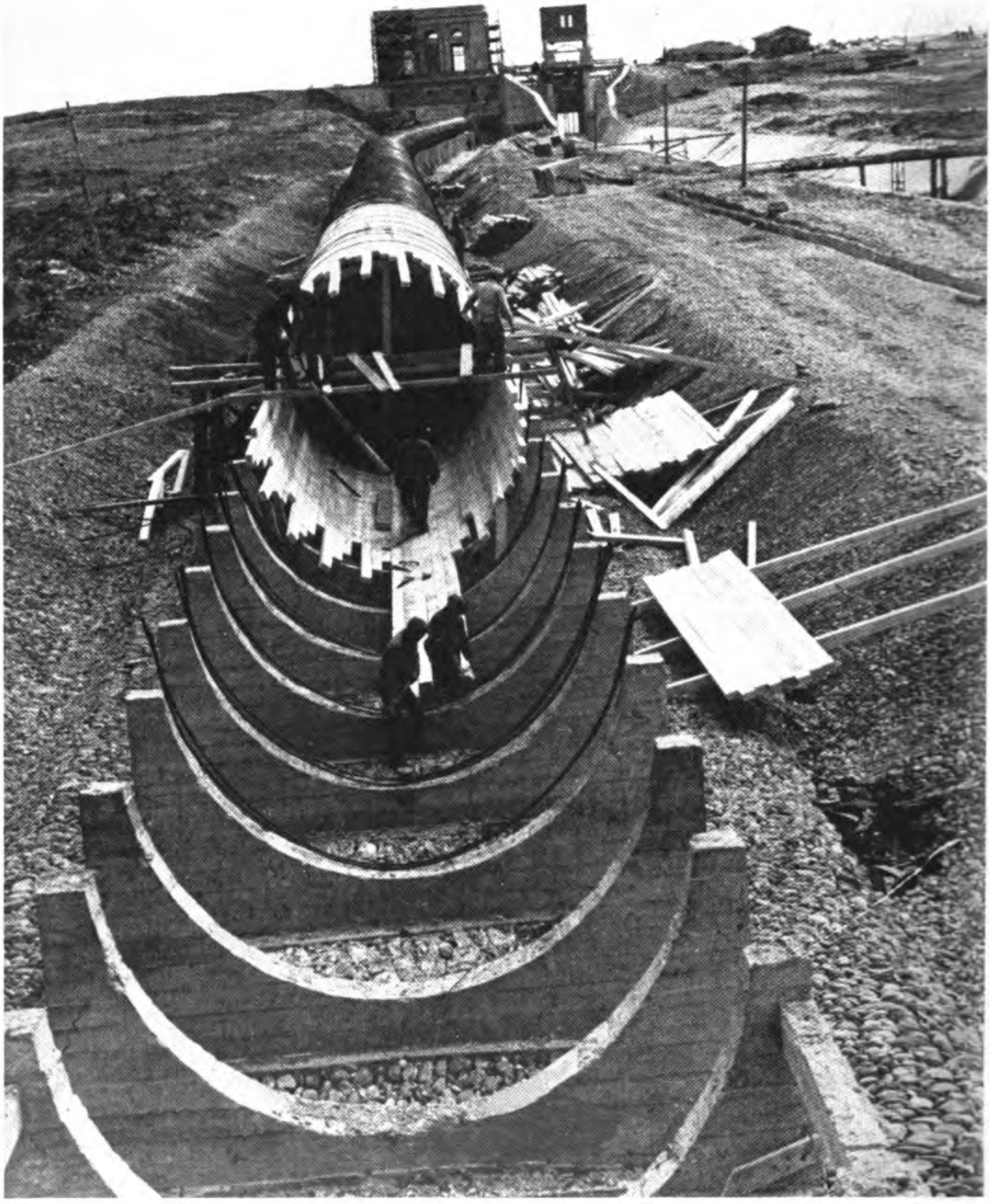
The industrial might of a country is judged not only by the absolute volume of production of the means of production, but also by the all-round development of its heavy industry, and of its core—the machine-building industry. The extent to which the needs of a national economy for means of production are satisfied determines the pace of development of all the branches of that national economy, for all its branches depend upon industry. The fact that 13.3 million hectares* were added to the cultivated area of the USSR in the one year of 1948 (the largest increase in its history), that even the high crop yields of 1947 were surpassed, and that after the frightful drought of 1946 the Soviet Union was able to garner as much grain as in the very favorable prewar year of 1940 is indicative of the growing industrial might of the USSR. These results would have been impossible without the scores of thousands of tractors supplied to agriculture in 1946-1948. As compared with the production of two years ago, the production of tractors and agricultural machines has increased fourfold, and that of mineral fertilizers by 80 per cent. The textile industry would not be in a position to turn out 50 to 60 per cent more fabrics than two years ago, if it had not been for the large number of ring-spinning frames and looms furnished by the machine-building industry. The very rapid progress of capital construction was unquestionably a result of the gigantic increase in the production of equipment and building materials.

The role of Soviet heavy industry in the reconstruction of the national economy is growing steadily. Among the results produced by this development is the higher living standard of the Soviet people, the growth of trade and the rise in wages. In the USSR, the rise in the level of industrial production is directly connected with the increase in public consumption.

The Soviet people are legitimately proud of the great victories scored by their country on the economic front.

MORE LAND SOWN. Scene on Dimitrov Collective Farm.

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.



CONSERVATION TOO. Long before the new program was formulated, millions of acres of once-arid land had been reclaimed by other means, particularly by irrigation. Building Nevinnomisk Canal in the Kuban.

USSR Adopts Great Plan to Protect Land

The following is a brief summary of the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) on the introduction of a grass-and-crop rotation system of agriculture:

THE Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) have adopted a decision published on October 24, 1948, on the planting of protective forest belts, the introduction of a system of crop rotation with grasses and the construction of ponds and reservoirs, with a view to securing high and stable crop yields in the steppe and mixed forest-and-steppe-districts of the European part of the USSR.

This decision notes that frequent droughts and arid winds in the steppe and mixed forest-and-steppe districts of the European part of the USSR cause considerable damage to agriculture in these districts. At the same time it has been proved by science and substantiated by the practice of advanced collective farms, state farms, machine-and-tractor stations and agricultural districts that a correct system of field-husbandry in these districts would furnish every possibility for obtaining high and stable crop yields and for creating a solid fodder base for the development of livestock farming. To achieve this it is necessary to initiate, in 1949 (on the basis of the experience accumulated over the course of many years by a number of scientific research institutes and advanced collective and state farms), the planned and extensive introduction in all collective and state farms of the steppe and mixed forest-and-steppe districts of definite agronomic measures for the advancement of agriculture. This advancement will be based on the theory of the eminent Russian agronomists Dokuchayev, Kostychev, and Williams, which is known as the crop-rotation system with grasses. This plan includes: planting of protective forest zones on the ridges along the boundaries between crop rotation fields, along slopes of ditches and ravines, banks of rivers and lake shores, around ponds and reservoirs as well as the afforestation of sandy land; the proper utilization of territory combined with the introduction of grass planting and fodder-crop rotation, the rational use of land tracts—a correct system of cultivation; correct use of organic and mineral fertilizers; sowing with sorted seed obtained from high yielding varieties of plants adapted to local conditions; extension of irrigation by utilizing local waste water through the creation of ponds and reservoirs.

The aforementioned set of measures constitutes a reliable weapon for resisting drought; it will raise the fertility of soils, help to achieve high and stable crop yields, prevent erosion of soil caused by floods and winds, arrest shifting sands and promote a more rational utilization of the land. At the same time this system will furnish the basis for harmonious development of field husbandry, livestock breeding and other branches of farming, and ensure considerable progress in marketable farm production.

In accordance with the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), the crop-rotation system with grasses, involving all the aforementioned agronomic measures, is to be introduced on a territory of 120 million hectares* embracing the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic; the Bashkir, Tatar and Mordovian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics; the Krasnodar and Stavropol Territories; the Voronezh, Kursk, Orel, Tambov, Ryazan, Tula, Astrakhan, Kuibyshev, Saratov, Stalingrad, Chkalov, Ulyanovsk, Penza, Rostov, Grozny and Crimea Regions.

The concrete plan for the introduction of crop-rotation with grasses approved by the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) provides for a number of highly important measures.

A system of large state protective forest zones is to be created from 1950 to 1965 for the purpose of protecting crops from the disastrous effects of dry winds, preventing erosion of the fertile soils of the Volga area, in the Northern Caucasus and the blacksoil regions of Central Russia and improving river and climatic conditions of these districts.

The eight zones planned will stretch for nine hundred kilometers* from Saratov to Astrakhan along the banks of the Volga; six hundred kilometers from Penza to Kamensk on the northern Donets river; 170 kilometers from Kamyshin to Stalingrad; 580 kilometers from Chapayevsk (near Kuibyshev) to Vladimirovka-on-the-Volga (south of Stalingrad); 570 kilometers from Stalingrad to Cherkessk (northern Caucasus); 1,080 kilometers from the southern spurs of the Urals to the Caspian Sea (along the banks of the Ural river); 920 kilometers from Voronezh to Rostov-on-the-Don (along the banks of the Don river) and lastly, five hundred kilometers along the banks of the northern Donets river from Belgorod to the Don river.

Each state forest zone will consist of several (two to six) belts 30 to 60 meters** wide. The total length of the state protective forest zones will exceed 5,300 kilometers.* The Ministry of the Timber Industry of the USSR, which has been made responsible for the planting of these forest zones, is to initiate this work in 1949. The decision specifies the concrete varieties of trees to be planted in each district through which the state forest zone will pass. Along with the state forest zones, the decision contains extensive provisions for the planting of protective forest belts around the fields of collective and state farms. In line with these provisions, a state plan has been adopted for the planting of protective forest belts over a 5,700,000 hectare area from 1949 to 1965; under this program the afforestation of an area of 3,600,000 hectares is to be accomplished by collective farms with their own forces and means, with the assistance of the state; the Ministry of Timber Industry of the

* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

* One kilometer = .621 of one mile.

** One meter = 1.093 yards.

USSR is responsible for the afforestation of 1,500,000 hectares and the Ministry of State Farms of the USSR for the afforestation of six hundred thousand hectares. The decision binds the Ministries of Agriculture, State Farms, and Timber Industry of the USSR, as well as leading authorities of the republics, territories and regions, to prepare within three months a unified afforestation plan for 1949 to 1965 for the respective regions, territories and republics; to bring to the attention of every district, state farm, collective farm and forestry management, their concrete assignments in connection with the planting of protective forest belts; and to ensure, within the years 1949 and 1950, the restoration of all damaged forest tracts on the territories of collective and state farms. The plan contains provisions for the training of agricultural and forestry melioration specialists. Ten-year credits will be advanced to collective farms to assist them to meet the cost of afforestation.

In order to arrest the penetration of sands from the steppes and semidesert districts to the fertile fields of the Volga region, Northern Caucasus, black soil regions of Central Russia and the Ukraine, it is planned to afforestate an area of sands stretching 322 thousand hectares in 1949 to 1955.

The decision contains provisions for the establishment of state nurseries to supply seedlings for planting in state protective forest zones and protective forest belts of collective and state farms for afforestation of ditches, ravines, lake shores and river banks in the steppes and mixed forest-and-steppes districts of the European part of the USSR. The plan for 1949 to 1955 calls for the supply of 33,712,000,000 seedlings. In addition to existing nurseries, 230 state forestry nurseries are to be instituted in 1949 and 1950; apart from this, special forestry nurseries for collective farms are planned—one nursery for each five to ten collective farms involved in the afforestation program. State forestry nurseries will be equipped with the necessary special machines. One of the most important measures for raising crop yields, creating a solid fodder base for livestock farming and raising labor productivity in collective and state farms is the introduction and extension of crop-rotation with grasses on collective and state farms.

In line with the decision, the program for the enforcement of crop-rotation with grasses in all state farms of the steppe and mixed forest-and-steppe districts of the European part of the USSR is to be fully realized in 1949 and in all collective farms where these measures have not yet been introduced not later than 1950.

The plan for the adoption of crop-rotation with grasses by collective and state farms during 1949 and 1955 provides for measures to promote the growing of seed of perenial leguminous and cereal grasses in order to insure an adequate supply of seed necessary for the complete enforcement of this system of crop rotation of collective and state farms; the plan envisions measures for the raising of seed yields. Control over the enforcement of the planned crop rotation system and agrotechnical measures is to be maintained through special records.

The decision specifies in detail all the concrete measures necessary for ensuring the proper cultivation of soil, correct use of organic and mineral fertilizers, provision of high-yielding sorted seed and for radical improvement in selection and seed-growing. In order to promote extensive irrigation on collective and state farms by directing local waste water into ponds and irrigation canals which will boost the yields of crops, the decision calls for the creation of numerous ponds and reservoirs on collective and state farms—in natural depressions at river sources, ditches and ravines, etc. for the creation of reservoirs at small rivers with a view toward regulating and utilizing local waste waters for irrigation, for the promotion of fisheries and production of hydro-electric power for the needs of agriculture. Altogether 44,228 ponds and reservoirs are to be created on collective and state farms from 1949 to 1955. Expenditures involved in surveying, the designing and the technical direction of the construction of irrigation systems that are to be built by collective farms with their own forces are to be borne by the state budget of the USSR. Measures are also envisioned for rationalizing the utilization of existing irrigation systems.

Extensive mechanization of the planting of the protective forest belts and of work involved in the creation of ponds and reservoirs will be promoted through the establishment of 570 protective-forestry stations from 1949 to 1951; these will include 270 stations under the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR and three hundred stations under the Ministry of Timber Industry of the USSR.

Protective-forestry stations of the Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR are responsible for all work connected with the preparation of soil for forest planting (to be done under contracts with collective farms) the planting itself and for assisting in tending forest zones and in the creation of ponds and reservoirs. The protective-forestry stations of the Ministry of the Timber Industry of the USSR will be responsible for the cultivation and planting of state forest belts and for afforestation of river banks, sandy lands, ditches and ravines. The protective forestry stations will be well supplied with special machinery.

Special teams of agricultural and forestry melioration workers will be formed on the state farms for the purpose of forest planting and cultivation. The decision binds the respective ministries supplying agricultural equipment and other facilities to ensure the implicit realization of the plan for the production of agricultural machines, the high quality of these machines and to accelerate the mass production of improved agricultural machines and implements.

A Central Administration for Protective Forestry Planting to be set up under the Council of Ministers of the USSR will direct and control the realization of all the aforementioned measures.

An edict issued by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on October 23, 1948 provides for the award of the title: Hero of Socialist Labor, and of government decorations to collective farmers as well as to the employees of protective-forestry stations, machine-and-tractor stations, state farms, and forestries, for outstanding results in furthering the planting of protective forest belts.

Includes New Material

USSR Releases All Documents On Berlin Question

By D. Melnikov

WHILE discussion of the so-called Berlin question was in progress in the Security Council on October 19, a collection of documents recently published in Moscow by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR was circulated among the delegates to the Council.

The French publication *Combat* described the appearance of this volume in Chaillot Palace October 19 as "the most significant event of the day."

This newspaper, which could never be suspected of having a friendly disposition toward the Soviet Union, admitted that the Soviet documents made a tremendous impression in the lobbies of Chaillot Palace. They furnished the best evidence of the untruth of all the statements made by representatives of the Western Powers on the Berlin question on October 19 as well as throughout the so-called Berlin crisis, artificially created by the Western Powers.

One feature characteristic of the British Government's "white paper" on the Berlin question is the omission of the instructions to the Commanders-in-Chief issued on August 30, 1948, by agreement among the representatives of the Four Powers. The diplomats of the Western countries obviously wanted to withhold these instructions from the public, for this document shows that they are responsible for the disruption of negotiations on the Berlin question.

The Soviet collection of documents,

Following is the text, as published in the official translation of the Soviet "white paper", of the directive of the Governments of the USSR, the USA, Great Britain and France to the four Commanders-in-Chief of the occupation forces in Germany. It is dated August 30, 1948.

THE GOVERNMENTS of France, the United Kingdom, the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have decided that, subject to agreement being reached among the four Military Governors in Berlin for their practical implementation, the following steps shall be taken simultaneously:

(a) Restrictions on communications, transport and commerce between Berlin and the Western zones and also on the traffic of goods to and from the Soviet zone of Germany which have recently been imposed shall be lifted;

(b) The German mark of the Soviet zone shall be introduced as the sole currency for Berlin, and the Western "B" mark shall be withdrawn from circulation in Berlin.

In connection with the above you are instructed to consult together with your colleagues so as to make, in the shortest time possible, the detailed arrangements necessary for the implementation of these decisions, and to inform your Government not later than September 7, of the results of your discussions, including the exact date on which the measures under (a) and (b) can be brought into effect.

The four Military Governors will work out arrangements involved in the introduction of the German mark of the Soviet zone in Berlin.

The arrangements relating to the currency changeover, and to the continued provision and use in Berlin of the German mark of the Soviet zone shall ensure:

(a) No discrimination or action against holders of Western "B" marks in connection with the exchange of those Western marks issued in Berlin. These shall be accepted for exchange for German marks of the Soviet zone at the rate of one for one;

(b) Equal treatment as to currency and provision of full accessible banking and credit facilities throughout all sectors of Berlin. The four Military Governors are charged with providing adequate safeguards to prevent the use in Berlin of the German mark of the Soviet zone from leading to disorganizing currency circulation or disrupting the stability of currency in the Soviet zone of occupation;

(c) A satisfactory basis for trade between Berlin and third countries and the Western zones of Germany. Modifications of this agreed basis to be made only by agreement among the four Military Governors;

(d) The provision of sufficient currency for budgetary purposes and for occupation costs, reduced to the greatest extent possible, and also the balancing of the Berlin budget.

The regulation of currency circulation in Berlin is to be undertaken by the German Bank of Emission of the Soviet zone through the medium of the credit establishments operating at present in Berlin.

A financial commission of representatives of the four Military Governors shall be set up to control the practical implementaton of the financial arrangements indicated above, involved in the introduction and circulation of a single currency in Berlin.

entitled *The Soviet Union and the Berlin Question* gives an exhaustive analysis of the policy pursued by the Soviet Government on the Berlin question. It contains fourteen documents covering the period from February 13 to October 3, 1948. Along with documents already published in the Soviet press, the collection contains five documents which are made public for the first time: two letters from Marshal Sokolovsky to General Clay dated June 20 and 22, 1948; a letter from Marshal Sokolovsky to General Robertson dated June 25, 1948; the memorandum of the Soviet Government to the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France dated September 18, 1948; and the September 25 note of the Soviet Government to the Government of the USA.

The volume opens with the February 13, 1948 note of the Soviet Government to the Government of Great Britain concerning the convocation of the separate London Conference of the Six Powers on the German question. In this note the Soviet Government denounces the convocation of the London Conference as a violation of the agreement on the control machinery for Germany and of the Potsdam decisions on the treatment of Germany as an integral unit.

Although this note has no direct relation to the Berlin question, its inclusion in the volume is quite in place. The unlawful decisions adopted separately by the Western Powers in London marked the beginning of the "Berlin crisis." They were the starting point of separate moves which were inevitably bound to lead the Soviet military authorities in Germany, and in Berlin in particular, to adopt necessary defense measures.

The decisions of the London Conference disrupted the realization of a joint policy of the Four Powers in Germany and violated the agreement providing that the Council of Foreign Ministers would decide all questions connected with the peace settlement for Germany. Attention was once more directed to this fact in the Soviet Government's note of March 6, 1948. Referring to the separate practices of the Western Powers in Germany, the note points out that the purpose of these practices, intended to dissolve the Council of Foreign Ministers, was to thrust aside all hindrances to the pursuit of a policy on Germany to which the Council of Foreign Ministers could not agree, inasmuch as it departed completely from the earlier agreed policy of the Four Powers.

These words may be truly called prophetic, for they were subsequently borne out by the practices of the Western Powers in Germany. These powers broke up the meeting of the Control Council to adopt, behind its back, decisions which ran counter to the policy agreed upon earlier by the Four Powers. They refused to convene a conference of the Council of Foreign Ministers for deciding a number of general German problems and the Berlin question, choosing to work their way around this body and to pursue their splitting policy in Germany, and in Berlin in particular.

The first move made by the Western Powers after their approval of the decisions of the London Conference was the separate currency reform in Western Germany and in the three western sectors of Berlin. This last measure, taken on June 18, 1948, reflected the essence of the general policy pursued by the Western Powers in Germany: it consummated the split of Germany for which the Western Powers had been working for a long time.

The collection of documents published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR contains several letters from the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Military Administration, Marshal Sokolovsky, which show that the Soviet representatives have been exerting every effort to bring about a quadripartite decision on currency reform. And only after the representatives of the Western Powers had flatly refused to reach a quadripartite agreement, and adopted their own separate decision on currency reform in their zones and sectors of Berlin, the Soviet Military Administration adopted urgent countermeasures and announced a currency reform in the Soviet occupation zone. The Soviet Military Administration, declares the published appeal of this Administration to the German population, insisted on general German currency reform. While insisting as before on the necessity for political and economic unity of Germany, the Soviet Military Administration denounced the practices of the American, British and French occupation authorities in introducing a separate currency reform, and placed upon them full responsibility for the consequences of these practices. Among the countermeasures announced by the Soviet military authorities were the transport restrictions along communication lines between Greater Berlin and the Western occupation zones.

It is perfectly obvious that in the absence of these restrictions, the Soviet zone and Greater Berlin, situated in the center of the Soviet zone, would be flooded by Western currency and the economic situation of the zone would be imperilled. But this very measure served as the pretext for a loud propaganda hullabaloo raised by the representatives of the Western countries.

The collection of Soviet documents exposes completely the unfounded nature of this hullabaloo and shows that the "Berlin question" was artificially created by Western diplomacy with the view of achieving very definite political aims.

Although the disruption of the control machinery and of the machinery for achieving the peace settlement for Germany destroyed all legal and moral grounds for the presence of the Western Powers in Berlin, the Soviet Government agreed to discuss the situation in Berlin with representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France. The collection of documents published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR contains instructions to the Commanders-in-Chief approved by the representatives of the four countries on August 30, during negotiations in Moscow. Ignoring the terms of these instructions (as already mentioned, the Western countries have attempted to conceal them from the world public), representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France have advanced the entirely unfounded demand for the establishment of Four-Power control over all currency emissions in the Soviet occupation zone, for complete abolition of control over air-freight shipments between Berlin and the Western zones. This disrupted the negotiations on the Berlin question.

In its note of October 3 on the situation in Berlin, the Soviet Government showed who really is responsible for the failure of the Moscow nego-

(Continued on page 682)

City Blossoms Anew

Kiev Celebrates Its Liberation

By N. Stor

KIEV, capital of the Soviet Ukraine, is celebrating the fifth anniversary of its liberation from the Nazi invaders this week. The proud city, sorely devastated by the fascists, is making great strides in its restoration.

But first let us recall some history. In a dispatch sent on November 6, 1943 to Joseph Stalin, the Supreme Commander-in-Chief, Nikita Khrushchev, Secretary of the Communist Party of the Ukraine, reported that at dawn of that day:

"The troops of the First Ukrainian Front liberated Kiev from the German occupationists. Leading workers of the city, Party and Soviet organizations arrived in the city with the vanguard troops. . . .

"The Germans pillaged almost all the houses in the city; from several buildings—the buildings of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine and of the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic—they even carried away the doorknobs, window sills, doors, window frames, hardwood floors and marble slabs.

"The Germans attempted to abduct the entire population of the city. They organized a search for the city's residents, making use of dogs especially trained for manhunts."

On November 7—the day after Kiev's liberation—Stalin issued an Order of the Day to Army General Vatutin, Commander of the First Ukrainian Front. Stalin noted that: "As a result of a sweeping operation, combined with a bold enveloping maneuver, the troops of the First Ukrainian Front at daybreak took the capital of the Soviet Ukraine, the city of Kiev, by storm."

This brilliant victory of the Soviet Army was preceded by severe summer battles in the Kursk and Belgorod areas, where the Germans attempted a counteroffensive.

It will be recalled that these battles ended with the repulse of all the desperate efforts of the fascist militarists to smash our units on the Central and First Ukrainian Fronts. The Soviet armies routed the German-fascist troops and began the operations that led to the liberation of Kharkov and Orel.

This marked the beginning of the sweeping offensive operations on the Bryansk, Central and Ukrainian fronts which enabled Soviet units to liberate, within a brief period, scores of cities of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, as well as of the Ukrainian and Byelorussian Republics. In September, 1943, units led by Lieutenant Generals Moskalenko and Cherniakhovsky and the tank troops of Lieutenant General Rybalko occupied Darnitsa, the Kiev suburb on the left bank of the Dnieper. Severe fighting broke out to the north and south of Kiev. Soviet troops succeeded in crossing the Dnieper and established bridgeheads on the right bank.

The Battle of Kiev began in the middle of October, and Soviet troops battered their way steadily toward the the city and tightened their ring around the enemy.

And at daybreak, November 6, Kiev was completely cleared of the German invaders; as this news spread throughout the Soviet Union, there was jubilation among the people.

But within the liberated city a great task had to be done. Let Fyodor Mokienko, former Chairman of the Kiev City Soviet,* [writing about nine months after Kiev's liberation] tell the story:

"I remember when as a lieutenant colonel in the Red Army Engineers,

*A position approximating that of Mayor of an American city.

DEVASTATION OF NAZIS. Ruined buildings along Kiev's main thoroughfare, the Kreshchatik.

RESTORATION IN KIEV. New apartment buildings along Institutskaya Street.

I walked among the corpses that strewed Kiev's gloomy streets, odorous with the smoke of recent fires. In my brief case I had a paper ordering my return from the Army to civil employment as Chairman of the Kiev City Soviet. My thoughts were far from cheerful. I saw a deserted, devastated Kiev, left without water, fuel, light, bread or people.

"Then by degrees, these gloomy prospects melted like clouds in the rays of springtime sun. The people who had taken refuge from German tommy guns and German penal servitude in cellars, woods and nearby villages began to return to the city.

"But there were fewer than 50 thousand—where in the prewar years there had been about one million. The fate of more than one hundred thousand of my fellow citizens is known for certain. They were shot in Babi Yar, or asphyxiated in gas vans. The fate of 107 thousand others is no less tragic: they have been taken to captivity in Germany—to hunger, tuberculosis, spotted typhus.

"But those who survived set to work with such heroism that their spades were as effective as weapons. They had the task of reviving what had once been Kiev. They had to raise Kiev from its ruins despite all the Germans had done. Volunteers of every profession, status and age initiated this immense creative task.

"After nine months, Kiev has bread, water, light, transport, fuel and people. Houses accommodating 106 thousand persons have been repaired. . . . A most important work has been done by volunteers in the restoration of the Kreshchatik, Kiev's main thoroughfare, where the Germans burned and blew up hundreds of fine buildings. The people of Kiev worked tirelessly, sorting and salvaging brick and stone from the ruins, collecting in all five hundred thousand tons.

"The energy and enthusiasm of Kiev knows no bounds. The population has already reached five hundred thousand. Ninety secondary schools, 19 colleges, 62 libraries, 10 motion picture houses, three theaters and nine churches have been opened.

"We have many plans and projects, one of which is to rebuild the Kreshchatik in three years. We know perfectly well what we want—our city must be beautiful, with splendid palaces and gardens worthy of our heroic times."

KIEV INDUSTRY. The Gorky Machine Tool Works functions again.

ONE of the most flourishing and beloved cities of the Soviet Union, Kiev is also one of the largest industrial centers of the Soviet land, with modern metal-working plants, textile mills, leather and shoe factories, knitting mills, garment, chemical and food factories.

Kiev is one of the most important cultural centers of the Soviet Union. Prewar Kiev had more than 30 scientific institutes in which research was conducted by more than 1,500 scientific workers; in the beautiful Ukrainian capital were 20 institutions of higher learning with more than 20 thousand students.

In two years the Germans wrecked about five thousand buildings that had housed state and public institutions; they wrecked municipal services and private homes. During their retreat, the German-fascist troops destroyed the water mains and power station and carried off all the city's trolley-busses. They removed and shipped to Germany about 60 kilometers (out of a total of 62 kilometers) of streetcar rails.

Tens of thousands of Kiev's citizens perished in fascist prisons and concentration camps.

In their letter to J. V. Stalin—penned soon after their city's liberation, the citizens of Kiev described how the Germans ". . . scattered, separated and murdered many people. Countless numbers of people—more than one hundred thousand—were shot in the frightful Babi Yar. The air over our city was filled with the stench of corpses, with the cries of our daughters and with the grief of separations. More than one hundred thousand citizens of Kiev were shipped to Germany, to suffering and death.

"What we have seen and experienced in the years of Hitlerite slavery cannot be described in words, for such words do not exist in any human language. The two years were like two long centuries of existence beyond human law, beyond human standards of life. . ."

BUT in the five years that have elapsed since its liberation, Kiev has again become a beautiful city, a city that bubbles with life and construction just as it did before the war.

Immediately after the liberation, thousands of engineers, architects, artists and municipal employees began work on the restoration of the glorious capital. One after another, the city's factories were put into commission, and many of these have already surpassed the prewar level of production.

Work is well under way on the restoration of the university buildings; and research is again conducted in the scientific institutes, all of which have been restored.

The capital of the Ukraine has 40 new creches, 23 kindergartens, 14 clubs, 13 vocational schools, 67 elementary and high schools and a Palace of Pioneers.

Restoration of housing is well underway; new bridges span the Dnieper, and the power stations satisfy Kiev's full demand for electricity.

On the fifth anniversary of their liberation from the German invaders, the citizens of Kiev will also celebrate a major production victory. For on this day Kiev will receive gas for the first time. It will be conducted to the Ukrainian capital by a specially-built pipeline from Dashava. Constructed in record time, this pipeline will obviate the necessity of bringing in fuel from other districts. More than one hundred thousand Kiev citizens volunteered to help lay this gas pipeline.

Raised from the debris and ashes, Kiev has again become one of the most cultured and beautiful cities of the Soviet Union.

Nominations in Two Soviet Cities Show How All Take Part

By V. Barykin

Article 3 of the Constitution of the USSR reads: "All power in the USSR belongs to the working people of town and country as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies." Regional, territorial, area, district, town and rural and settlement Soviets of Working People's Deputies are the local bodies of state power. The present Soviets were elected on December 21, 1947. The following article tells how nominations were held in two of the largest cities in the Soviet Union, Moscow and Leningrad, and describes the activities of the Soviets. This is the first of two articles.

SHOULD you happen to visit Moscow or Leningrad and wish to shake hands with the "city fathers," the people who administer the affairs of these two largest Soviet cities, you would find it a rather man-sized job. For the Moscow Soviet has 1,392 deputies and the Leningrad Soviet 1,027.

These deputies can really lay claim to being representatives of the millions inhabiting their cities because they were elected by all citizens who had reached the age of 18, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin or past activity. The elections were universal, direct and equal and by secret ballot.

The elections were held in conformity with the regulations governing elections to local Soviets published by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, largest of the constituent republics of the USSR.

In strict accordance with the Constitution of the RSFSR, these regulations establish the procedure for compiling voters' lists, for the formation of electoral areas and precincts, the setting up of election commissions, as well as the procedure for nominating candidates, conducting the polling and counting the ballots. The regulations define the rights of the citizens and article 129 provides for punishing any person who violates the electoral rights of citizens.

The election campaign in Moscow and Leningrad was started by the formation of city election commissions.

But how were these commissions formed and who were their members?

The following example will provide an answer to these questions. A general meeting of the workers, engineers and office employees of the Karl Marx factory in Leningrad was held on October 16, 1947, two months and five days prior to the elections. The meeting was opened by Smirnov, chairman of the factory trade union committee. He began by reading article 51 of the election regulations which states that city election commissions consist of representatives of trade union organizations of factory and office workers, co-operative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations, as well as of meetings of factory and office workers in enterprises and institutions, servicemen in army units and meetings of peasants in collective farms and villages and of workers and other employees on state farms.

Smirnov then gave the floor to technologist Rasskazov, who moved that the factory's personnel advance to the City Election Commission Ivan Nikolayevich Kolodkin, a lathe operator, who has been working at the factory since

CAMPAIGN MEETING. Voters meet to discuss the election in a Moscow district.

1929. Kolodkin has been decorated with the Order of Lenin and the For the Defense of Leningrad Medal. He is a member of the Communist Party.

Speaking in favor of Kolodkin, Rasskazov said:

"At the factory, Ivan Kolodkin has trained 27 young lathe operators. During the war years he worked unsparingly and was always on the job. For his high labor productivity he was given premiums on many occasions and he is rightly regarded as the best lathe operator at our factory. Ivan Kolodkin takes an active part in public affairs; he is a member of the regional committee of the Machinery Workers' Trade Union."

Other workers spoke in support of Kolodkin's candidacy and gave a high appraisal of his efforts on the job and his public activities. Among those present there was hardly anyone who did not know Kolodkin personally, and his nomination was popular. This is how the best lathe operator at the factory was proposed as a representative on the city election commission.

About the same time a meeting was held of the personnel of the Kirov State Academic Opera and Ballet Theater which proposed Olga Koshevarova, a prominent member of the company, for the city election commission.

Similar meetings were held at other Leningrad factories and mills and at the Polytechnical Institute. The Leningrad Communist Party organization also nominated a representative. This is how the city election commission consisting of 13 members was formed. The same procedure was followed in Moscow.

After the city election commissions have been certified by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR they at once started their work. The chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and members of the commission watched over the strict observance of the election regulations; they visited the precincts, checked on the compilation of voters' lists and followed the progress of formation of election precincts by the executive committees of the district Soviets.

Some 1,027 election areas were formed in Leningrad and 1,392 in Moscow, on the basis of one electoral area per three thousand inhabitants (in accordance with Article 49 of the election regulations).

In conformity with the regulations, 25 district election commissions were set up in Moscow and 21 in Leningrad. These commissions were also made up of representatives named by different organizations and societies of the working people. There were 261 members in the 21 district election commissions of Leningrad. These included 149 men and 112 women; 142 were members of the Communist Party and the others were non-Party people. Among the membership of these commissions were 77 workers, 34 engineers and technicians, 13 physicians, 15 teachers, etc.

Next came the setting up of precinct election commissions, to take charge of the polling stations. Altogether there were 1,314 precinct commissions in Leningrad and 1,563 commissions in Moscow. These commissions were formed in the same way as the city and district commissions. Altogether there were 12,429 people working in the precinct election commissions of Leningrad and a still greater number in Moscow.

All citizens residing permanently or temporarily in Leningrad who would be 18 years old or older on election day were included in the voters' lists. Thirty-five days prior to the elections these lists were posted for public inspection. Every inhabitant had the opportunity to examine the voters' list and see whether it was properly compiled and demand that mistakes be rectified and that necessary changes be made. The fact that the people at large examined the lists helped to eliminate the small number of errors in them. A voter who notices an error appeals to the executive committee of the district Soviet which, according to the election regulations, has to take up the complaint within three days and in case of need make the necessary changes in the voters' list.

Candidates for deputy to the city Soviet were nominated in the various electoral areas. The right to nominate candidates is enjoyed by public organizations and societies of working people as well as by meetings of workers and other employees, army men, peasants and workers of state farms.

Public organizations, societies of working people and the personnel of factories and mills, offices and educational institutions, nominated as deputies those they considered their finest people, men and women known and respected by their colleagues. Here is, for example, how nominations proceeded at the Red Defense Clothing Factory of Moscow.

The first to take the floor at the general meeting was a woman, Lazareva, who said: "All of us know Martha Ignatyevna Burenina. She is not a member of the Party. Burenina is a splendid worker and she completed three annual quotas of output by November 7, the 30th Anniversary of the October Revolution. She also takes an active part in public work. I think that all of you will support my motion by nominating Martha Ignatyevna Burenina candidate for deputy to the Moscow City Soviet."

Lazareva's motion was seconded by Fedosova, a woman worker, Tsvetkov, a dispatcher, and others. The meeting unanimously decided to nominate M. I. Burenina as deputy to the Moscow City Soviet from Electoral Area No. 791.

Or here is the way nominations proceeded at a meeting of the personnel of the Leningrad Meat-Packing Plant. Vassili Ivanov, a worker, asked for the floor and said:

"The nomination of candidates for the local Soviet is a matter of prime importance. We have to pick as our candidate an honest, energetic person who would hold work for the good of the people above anything else. I think Natalya Gogolitsyna lives up to all these requirements. She works at our plant as assistant chief of the technical-chemical inspection. I move that we nominate her."

The candidate proposed by Ivanov was very popular. After six other speakers seconded the nomination a vote was taken. The meeting unanimously supported the nomination of Gogolitsyna.

Why did all these present at the meeting vote for Gogolitsyna's nomination? Why did not one of them object to her candidacy? Because she has gained the reputation of an honest worker, a kind-hearted woman who takes a great interest in public work. The past year has shown that Gogolitsyna's fellow workers did not err in their judgment. Natalya Gogolitsyna is honestly and conscientiously discharging her duties as deputy to the Leningrad City Soviet.

Prices Cut Sharply

Collective Farm Markets Doing Brisk Trade

COLLECTIVE farm markets in both urban and rural localities are doing a roaring trade these days. The year's harvest has been good and the influx of produce from the collective farms has been particularly great. Reports to this effect are pouring in literally from all parts of the country.

According to Alexander Dadugin, chief of the collective farm markets administration of the Ministry of Trade of the USSR, this autumn has registered a record in collective farm trade. The present influx of vegetables, fruit, meat and dairy products is the heaviest since the end of the war.

The situation on the markets is the result of the rapid advancement of Soviet agriculture in the postwar period. It will be remembered that only last year the Soviet State obtained as much grain as in the best years before the war. That this year's crop is likewise excellent may be seen from the numerous reports sent to J. V. Stalin from the various republics and regions which indicate that in a number of highly important grain-growing areas, deliveries are proceeding at a higher level than last year. The improvement in grain has a most direct bearing on the advancement of other branches of agriculture, in particular livestock-raising and vegetable-growing, which also have made considerable progress.

SUBTROPICAL. Pomegranates are plentiful in the former arid regions.

Tremendous quantities of farm produce of the new crop, available for the market, have accumulated in the rural areas of the country and are now being shipped to the towns and industrial centers. One of the channels along which this produce finds its way to the urban consumer is the collective farm trade.

"I must emphasize," Dadugin said, "that the predominant position in Soviet trade is occupied by state trade, which before the war, for instance, accounted for two-thirds of the entire retail trade of the country. State stores handle all foodstuffs, including farm produce, and consumer goods. Co-operative trade has also been expanding from year to year in villages and towns. As for the collective farm markets, they handle only farm produce and articles produced by rural handicraftsmen. In a word, collective farm trade is the channel through which the surplus produce of the collective farms and the individual collective farmers finds its way to the consumer."

In step with the advancement of agriculture as a whole, the marketable surplus which the collective farms and their members have for sale increases year after year, and this is accompanied by a corresponding increase in sales at collective farm markets.

Dadugin showed me a report he had received from Kiev, the Ukrainian capital, throwing light on the expansion of collective farm trade in that city. In August, for instance, Kiev markets received from the countryside 4,071 tons of vegetables, 2,541 tons of potatoes, and 1,753 tons of fruit. In comparison with the same month last year, the quantities of potatoes offered for sale increased by 58 per cent, dairy produce by 18 per cent, and fats by 25 per cent.

HOT HOUSE. Tomatoes and other vegetables are grown in abundance.

This increase was the result mainly of greater shipments by the collective farms as such, whose increased marketable surplus of produce reaches the consumer through all three channels—state stores, co-operatives and collective farm markets. It has been estimated that in August the collective farms supplied the Kiev markets with 50 per cent more produce than in the same month last year.

"What about the prices during the past year?" I asked.

"At the Kiev collective farm markets they dropped on the average by 61 per cent," Dadugin replied, showing me a table which I give here in full:

Decline in Collective Farm Market Prices in Kiev between August 1947 and August 1948

	PER CENT
Beef	46
Butter	68
Vegetable Oils	52
Pork Fat	64
Milk	55
Sour Cream	55
Cottage Cheese	58
Potatoes	82
Onions	70
Cabbage	66
Beets	55
Tomatoes	66
Cucumbers	60

Dadugin observed that substantial drops in prices have taken place on all the markets in the country during the past year.

"It is easy to see," he said, "what this has meant to millions of Soviet con-

sumers. Since wage scales have remained the same or increased, what we are witnessing is a sharp rise in real income."

"How do you explain the decline in market prices?" I asked.

"Although fluctuations in prices are caused by changes in the quantities of farm produce offered for sale and by the demand, the main reason is that the price levels in the state and co-operative stores exercise a most direct influence on market prices. You will remember how market prices came down following the reductions effected in the state retail stores simultaneously with the monetary reform and the abolition of rationing. The same has been observed on several subsequent occasions, the last time quite recently when the prices of vegetables were reduced in the state and co-operative stores."

The expansion of collective farm trade has made it necessary to expand many market places. Acording to the Ministry of Trade of the USSR, two hundred new markets were opened in various Soviet cities during the first half of this year alone, bringing the total number of collective farm markets in major centers to more than eight thousand. During the past half year 39 million rubles have been spent on diverse construction work at the market sites, including the building of 507 new blocks and pavilions.

The Zatsepa market is one of the 30 collective farm markets in Moscow. In the summer of 1941, at the very beginning of the war, it was bombed during a Nazi air raid and all the buildings burned to the ground. The first year after the war the market was rebuilt at a cost of one million rubles.

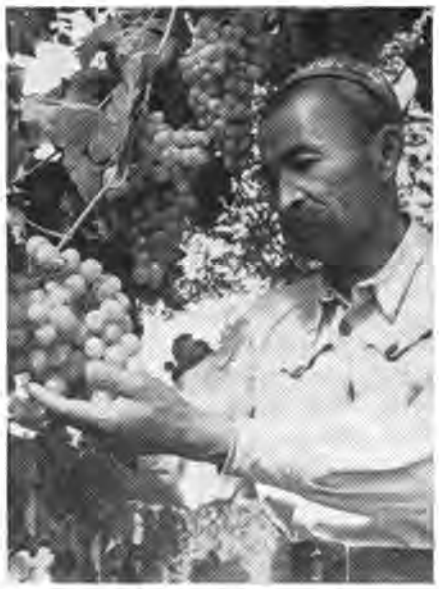
Kuzma Lukyanov, the director of the market, told me that it is visited daily by up to 25 thousand customers and that the daily influx of farm produce from the collective farms averages 50 tons.

Comparing the amount of produce sold during the first 20 days of September with the quantity handled in the same period of a year ago, Lukyanov said that the amount of meat offered for sale had increased 27 per cent, vegetables by 30 per cent. Far more fruit, milk and poultry is sold now than last year. Here too the prices of all foodstuffs have dropped sharply.

Making the rounds of the market I could see for myself that all the five hundred stands were offering an abundance of fresh vegetables and fruits, meat and dairy products. At one of the stalls I found Alexander Sarikov, chairman of the New Road Collective Farm of Kimov District, Moscow Region. Its annual income exceeds one million rubles. The bulk of this sum comes from the sale of produce to the State, although the income from collective farm trade accounts for a substantial sum.

Sixty Moscow Region collective farms regularly sell their produce at the Zatsepa market, besides which many collective farms from other regions of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic as well as in the Ukraine and Byelorussia sell their produce here. With the completion of harvest work on the collective farms and the approach of the holiday season, it is expected that sales will further increase on the collective farm markets during the next few weeks.

"I am quite certain," the director of the market told me, "that the influx of farm produce during the preholiday period will increase several times over and that prices will continue to fall."



GRAPES. Soviet Tajikistan contributed its share to the 1948 record crop.

STRAWBERRIES. An excellent type came from the Altai region.

Berlin Documents Published

(Continued from page 676)

tiations to yield results. Agreement on the abolition of transport restrictions and simultaneous introduction of a single currency for Berlin, says the note of the Soviet Government, was not reached owing to the refusal of the three Governments to agree upon guarantees necessary for preventing the disruption of the economic life of the Soviet zone. The Soviet note further points out that the instructions of August 30 furnished the basis for agreement and that "differences can be overcome if there is a desire to reach an agreement satisfactory to all the Four Powers." Lastly, the Soviet note points out the concrete way to an agreement by the Four Powers—recognition of the instructions of August 30 as an agreement among the Governments of the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France, and the convocation of the Council of Foreign Ministers to consider the situation in Berlin as well as the German question in general, in the spirit of the Potsdam agreement of the Four Powers.

The Soviet collection of documents affords irrefutable proof of the peace-loving and democratic nature of Soviet foreign policy. It exposes the initiators of the racket-raising Berlin question who are endeavoring to screen those who are really responsible for the disruption of negotiations among the Four Powers; to camouflage the separate aggressive policy now being pursued by the Western Powers in Germany.

Latest Soviet Music Enlivened By Fresh Approach

By Tikhon Khrennikov

General Secretary of the Soviet Composers' Union

INTERESTING new trends are observable in Soviet music today. A number of musicians whose work had become so abstract and formal as to lose much of its popularity have turned in recent months to themes of the people —historical themes or those based on folk music. A considerable strengthening of their art, and a definite increase in the popularity of their work, has resulted.

An inherent characteristic of Soviet art is the fact that the public, the Soviet people in general, give great assistance to the composer, artist, producer and actor. The Soviet people do not remain indifferent to problems of creative work.

The creative discussion of important problems of Soviet art and culture is of exceptional importance for the further advance of the theater, music, literature and painting in the USSR.

We are reminded of the heated discussion of problems of music by the Soviet public earlier this year. The people and the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) corrected composers who had taken the path of formalistic trickery and strayed from the splendid traditions of Russian classic music and the musical folklore of the Soviet peoples.

The Soviet people demanded that their composers write music of high content, music that would be truthful and stir the listener's heart.

Our Soviet composers accepted the people's declaration as a program for future work.

This summer was marked by intensive creative activity. Composers have been engaged on new operas, symphonies, cantatas, songs, choral and instrumental work in the smaller forms.

It is difficult now to evaluate all the new works by Soviet composers. But it can be said that the first compositions we have heard since the discussion plainly show that our composers are striving for melodic quality, simplicity and a musical language of a character comprehensible to the people.

A new opera, *The Young Guard,* by the Ukrainian composer Meitus, is being performed at the Kiev Theater of Opera and Ballet. The subject is the heroic and self-sacrificing struggle of the young patriots of the mining town of Krasnodon during the German fascist occupation. Elements of the musical folklore of the Ukraine have been widely employed in this opera. *The Young Guard* is a great success in the capital of the Soviet Ukraine.

Dmitri Shostakovich has composed the music for the film, *The Young Guard,* which is enjoying tremendous success at Soviet moving picture houses.

The Tale of a Real Man, Sergei Prokofieff's new opera based on the book by Boris Polevoi dealing with the real-life feats of a Soviet fighter pilot during the Second World War, will shortly be performed at a concert for Soviet musical circles.

Invasion, based on the well-known play by Leonid Leonov, is another new opera on a war theme, by the composer Dekhterev.

Historical subjects have been chosen by some composers who are interested in the struggle of the people for their freedom and independence—the imagery of the national heroes of the distant past. A Ukrainian composer, V. Dankevich, has written his new opera around the life of Bogdan Khmelnitsky, the hero of the Ukrainian people.

Y. Shaporin is completing work on his opera, *The Decembrists.* [The "Decembrists" were a group of people who participated in an abortive attempt to overthrow the absolute monarchy of the Tsar in December, 1825. Bitterly opposed to tsarist oppression of the masses, they consisted for the most part of officers in the Tsar's army—officers who in the main came from landowning families. Although the movement had the active support of a certain section of the army, the revolt was suppressed, and five of its leaders were hanged.]

Many composers are writing symphonies, oratorios and cantatas. They are distinguished by clarity and purity of melody, simplicity and lucidity. For example, the recently completed *Fifth Symphony* of Sergei Vasilenko, one of the oldest Russian composers, develops the traditions of the Russian classics. This symphony opened the concert season in Moscow.

Vasiliev-Buglai has chosen as the basis of his new work Maxim Gorky's poetic tale *Death and the Maiden.* He has called his cantata, *Love Is Stronger than Death;* it is vivid in imagery and conveys the profoundly humanistic content and noble emotion of Gorky's work.

Vano Muradeli has written three choruses to words by Soviet poets on the Russian landscape. They are to be performed by the Russian State Choir, conducted by Sveshnikov.

Marked progress has been made by Y. Levitin, until recently a representative of the formalistic trend in music. His quartet for strings has an appealing sincerity. His melodies have become expressive, his harmonic language has acquired naturalness.

Some excellent new songs have been composed by V. Makarov (*The Fields are Wide Near Stalingrad* and *Golden Dawns*); by Y. Milyutin (*Seeing Off the Accordion-player*); by B. Terentiev (*The Heart of a Soldier*); and others. Karen Khachaturian, a young composer, has written a concert-piece for a choir, *In Praise of the Komsomol* (Young Communist League). This was first performed at the end of October. Only a few of the new works by Soviet composers are enumerated here. But these, like many others, are proof of the composers' efforts to fulfill the wishes of the Soviet people. These composers will undoubtedly write many distinguished musical works that will become dear to the Soviet people.

Soviet Athletes Broke 12 Marks Set in London Olympics

Platon Ippolitov
Honored Master of Sports of the USSR

THE records set during the past summer by 12 Masters of Sport of the USSR exceed the best marks set by winners in the corresponding events at the 1948 Olympic Games held in London. And the results that have been attained by several other Soviet track-and-field athletes are very close to many of the marks established by 1948 Olympic champions. (The USSR did not compete in the 1948 Olympic Games.)

The accompanying table is an excellent illustration of the progress which Soviet track-and-field contestants have made. This progress provides a powerful contrast to the accomplishments of athletes in the old Russia, where, because of the almost complete lack of facilities (there was not a single stadium in tsarist Russia) there were only a handful of first-rate track-and-field athletes. Now stadia are to be found in every Soviet city; and extensive facilities for athletes are to be found everywhere in the Soviet Union—on the collective farms as well as in the cities and towns. Consequently, a virtual army of top-notch Soviet track-and-field athletes has arisen.

Soviet sprinting ace N. Karakulov kept his USSR sprints crown despite heated competition from P. Golovkin, and a fleet-footed runner from Soviet Georgia, L. Sanadze. Karakulov, who is also the European champion, held his title by running the 100-meter* dash in 10.6 seconds and the 200-meter dash in 21.7 seconds; he also set a new USSR mark of 10.4 in the "100." During last summer's competition both Sanadze and Muscovite V. Koroyev negotiated the "100" in 10.6.

In the middle-distance events, A. Pugachevsky, former Voronezh lathe operator, has been setting the pace in the USSR for the past ten years. He has set new all-Union records in the 800-, 1000-, and 1,500-meter runs and in the 3,000-meter steeplechase as well. Pugachevsky has been clocked in 1 minute, 54.5 seconds in the 800-meter run, and 9 minutes, 6.4 seconds in the steeplechase. And one day he did 3 minutes, 53 seconds in the 1,500-meter run despite cold weather and a wet track.

THE USSR—1948		LONDON OLYMPICS—1948	
Decathlon			
H. Lipp	7,780 points	Mathias, USA	7,139 points
V. Volkov	7,229 points		
Marathon			
F. Vanin	2 hrs., 31 min., 55 s	Cabrera, Argentina	2 hrs., 34 min., 51.6 s
V. Gordienko	2 hrs., 32 min., 24 s		
Hammer Throw			
A. Kanaki	56.13 meters	Nemeth, Hungary	56.09 meters
Discus Throw (women)			
N. Dumbadze	53.25 meters	Ostermeyer, France	41.92 meters
Z. Borisova	42.78 meters		
E. Bagryantseva	42.23 meters		
Javelin Throw (women)			
A. Chudina	48.92 meters	Bauma, Austria	45.57 meters
N. Dyatlova	48.70 meters		
Shot-Put (women)			
A. Andreyeva	14.44 meters	Ostermeyer, France	13.75 meters
T. Sevryukova	13.84 meters		

JAVELIN THROWER. A. Chudina bettered mark made in London Olympics.

Two hammer-throw artists, A. Shekhtel of Leningrad and A. Kanaki of Kiev, staged a battle royal for top honors in their specialty last summer. The hammer-throw record was broken not less than five times during the season, but finally the man from Kiev obtained the upper hand by setting a new international mark of 56 meters, 13 centimeters.*

Another Kiev athlete, Eugene Bulanchik, broke the 110-meter-hurdle record of 14.6 seconds (which had been set by the Moscow timber-topper, Ivan Stepanchenok) by setting a new mark of 14.4. Bulanchik also set a new USSR record of 53.8 seconds in the 400-meter hurdles, taking 1.2 seconds off the 1947 record set by the

* One meter=1.093 yards.

* One centimeter=.393 of one inch.

Moscow hurdler, Sergei Komarov. Komarov was unable to take part in the 1948 championships because of an injured leg.

Timofei Lunyev, a young up-and-coming hurdler, won the USSR championship in the 200-meter hurdles with a new USSR mark of 24.3 seconds.

Heino Lipp, a Tartu University student, bettered the USSR decathlon record twice during the season. In his latest record-breaking performance, his mark in the discus throw was about five meters short of the best figure he had previously chalked up in that event. If Lipp had managed on that occasion to equal his previous mark in the discus, he would have topped the world decathlon record of the American star, Morriss, of 7,900 points.

In the non-decathlon discus throw, Lipp added almost 1.5 meters to the former USSR record of 50 meters, 74 centimeters, which was held by the Turkmenian athlete, S. Lyakhov. In the women's discus throw, Nina Dumbadze bettered her former world record by nearly three meters. This is the fifth world record chalked up by this Soviet sportswoman in the last ten years.

An extremely close competition took place last summer between the long-distance runners, N. Popov and V. Kazantsev. They came close to S. Znamensky's record of 14 minutes, 37 seconds in the 5,000-meter run. Popov's time was 14 minutes, 39 seconds, and Kazantsev was virtually breathing down his neck. One of the most exciting duels in the USSR championships was staged by Vanin and Popov in the 10,000-meter run. Vanin nosed out his rival in a breath-taking finish. Vanin's time was 31 minutes, 1.2 seconds—Popov's 31 minutes, 1.4 seconds.

NEARING TAPE IN THE "100." The Soviet sprinter Yevgenia Sechenova was forced out this year by an injured leg.

DISTANCE RUNNER. Vasili Gordienko broke a London Olympic mark in the marathon race.

Two Soviet women athletes—E. Sechenova and Z. Dukhovich—staged a close contest during midseason for top honors in the 100-meter sprint. Both were clocked in 11.9 seconds, matching the Soviet record set in the spring event at the Dynamo Jubilee meet. An exciting contest between the two girls was expected at the all-Union championships, but Sechenova was unable to finish because of a leg injury, and Dukhovich became the USSR women's champion at both the 100- and 200-meter distances.

Y. Blinova won the Soviet title in the 400-meter run with a new women's mark of 57.6 seconds.

The phenomenal Soviet woman athlete, A. Chudina, holder of the world pentathlon record of 4,561 points, established a new Soviet record of 2,506 points in the triple Olympic event (100-meter sprint, shot-put and high jump) and won top place in the USSR in the pentathlon with 4,365 points. She rang up a mark of 5 meters, 58 centimeters in the broad jump and 48 meters, 92 centimeters in the javelin throw.

The Gorky woman athlete, V. Fokina, won the all-Union 80-meter hurdles title for the tenth successive time. She was clocked at 11.6 seconds. She also holds the USSR record of 11.5 seconds.

N. Ozolin, 40-year-old pole vault champion, retained his USSR title at the championships by vaulting 4 meters, 18 centimeters.

New USSR records were also established in the relays. In the women's division, a 400-meter-relay mark of 48.4 seconds was set, and an 800-meter-relay mark of 1 minute, 43 seconds was established. In the men's division, a new 800-meter-relay record of 1 minute, 29 seconds was set, as well as a 1600-meter-relay mark of 3 minutes, 20.8 seconds, and a new 3200-meter-relay mark of 7 minutes, 41 seconds.

Altogether, the 1948 track-and-field season was a successful one. The results prove the strength and the power of Soviet athletes generally and point the way to future achievements.

A Muscovite's Diary

A young friend in the United States has written me asking if the Soviet Union has anything to compare with those popular American institutions which give technical and other courses by mail.

And I have replied that we certainly do. Only last week I had a chat with a friend who works in one of the Moscow factories. He was full of enthusiasm at the prospect of qualifying soon as a full-fledged power engineer.

He is one of 6,300 students enrolled in the Moscow Correspondence Polytechnical Institute. This is a large organization with eight departments and 47 full professors in addition to instructors and consultants.

Total of 200,000 Study by Mail

As a matter of fact, education by correspondence is very widespread in the USSR. There are 200 thousand students enrolled in various correspondence colleges and universities in the country.

There is one feature of our correspondence schools, however, that is not common abroad. Our "mail order" students keep in touch with a special consultant on each subject, as is done in other countries, but they also have access to laboratories and workrooms as well as library facilities.

But the biggest difference comes at examination time. Our correspondence students are given a three-week vacation with full pay from their factory or office job. And this is over and above the customary "holiday with pay" which every Soviet worker receives as a matter of right.

Student's Thesis Revamps Plant

Frequently these correspondence school students are assigned special tasks by the enterprises in which they are employed and they work them out as their diploma projects.

One such student, V. Khazanji, got "excellent" for his graduate thesis entitled, *A Phonograph Record Press Room With Annual Output of 25 Million Records*. On the basis of this project, the press room in the plant employing the student was reconstructed.

Cossack Found Alaska Strait

Three hundred years ago last October, a daring Russian Cossack, Semen Dezhnev, discovered the strait between Asia and America. The farthermost eastern cape of Asia has been named for this brave seafarer who succeeded in passing from the Arctic Ocean into the Pacific through Bering Strait.

The Presidium of the All-Union Geographical Society organized a celebration of the anniversary, and an official meeting was held in Leningrad. An exhibition was arranged with various materials from Dezhnev's voyage, photostats of his original dispatches, rare maps and other documents.

One of the results of the celebration was the establishment of a Dezhnev prize of 15 thousand rubles to be awarded every third year for the best scientific work on the geography of northeastern Asia.

Before we leave the subject of geography, I want to mention a recent book entitled *Russian Discoveries in the Pacific and North America in the 18th Century*. It has been issued by the State Geographical Publishing House and contains 50 historical documents dealing with Russian discoveries in the Pacific, Alaska and in what is now California, in the 18th Century.

The bulk of the volume deals with the activities of G. I. Shelikhov, noted traveler and founder of Russian settlements in America. The documents deal with his activities on the Aleutian Islands, which were discovered by Russian seamen in 1741.

Talks on Theater By Stanislavsky

Another new book just reaching me is a collection of 35 talks given by the late K. S. Stanislavsky, founder of the Moscow Art Theater. It should be of inestimable value to directors, actors and theater-lovers generally.

The talks were given during the period of 1918-1922 when the young Soviet Republic was fighting for life against whiteguards and interventionists.

Stanislavsky conducted a course in the studio of the Bolshoi Opera House in Moscow during this period. His object was not only to teach opera artists to act, and to elevate the standards of operatic productions, but to find a further application for his views on the development of the theater, to

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

November 7-November 21

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States on the following schedule from November 7 to November 21. All time is Eastern Standard.

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary from 7:45 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. on the following frequencies: 6.05, 7.36, 9.54, 9.56, 9.60, 11.72, 11.87, and 11.96 megacycles.

Daily evening programs of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life are broadcast in two periods: from 6:20 P.M. to 7:30 P.M., and from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M.

Radio listeners may hear the 6:20-7:30 P.M. broadcast over these frequencies: 7.29, 7.36, 11.72, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The 9:00 to 10:15 P.M. programs may be heard on 7.29, 7.36, 9.60, 9.72, 11.72, 11.87, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Tuesdays, November 9 and 16—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays, November 10 and 17—Scientific and cultural programs. Sports review.

Thursdays, November 11 and 18—Youth programs.

Friday, November 12—Trade Unions.

Monday, November 8—Program for farmers.

Friday, November 19—Survey on life in the USSR by a special radio correspondent.

On Saturdays there will be a weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners; on Sundays, concerts and talks on literature.

find new forms for expanding the skill of the actor.

"My so-called system," he said in one of these talks, "is not mine at all, nothing invented by me; it is taken from life, from observations of the creative forces of human beings and is meant for living people, for those people who can understand that to live in art does not mean to seek an outwardly high position in it but to devote to it all of one's love and the best that is in one."

For those specially interested, the book is titled *K. S. Stanislavsky's Talks in the Studio of the Bolshoi Theater In 1918-1922.* It is issued in the Russian language by the All-Russian Theatrical Society, Moscow.

New Documentary Features Real Life

Despite the chill in Moscow's air, I take off my hat in salute to the Leningrad Newsreel Studios for their newest documentary, *Song of the Collective Farm Fields.*

Here is something nobody should miss! The curious thing is that there's not a professional actor in it . . . no tricks, no doubles. It's just straight stuff.

There is Mikhail Kryhankov, chauffeur from a machine-and-tractor station, puttering around his car—and then—in the next scene he is singing in a soft and rich basso, the aria of Ivan Susanin from Glinka's opera of that name.

Then here is Yevgenia Gerasimova, a bookkeeper from a farm near Leningrad. She plays a Chopin *Nocturne* with great taste and finesse. The film abounds in such numbers . . . fragments from the all-Union contest of rural artistic self-expression which held its finals in Moscow last February.

The most valuable feature of the film is that it also shows the new life of the countryside, the conditions of work which made possible the self-expression of these rural artists. In this film we see villages bathed in electric light. . . . The agricultural laboratories, new machinery, schools, libraries, and clubs which are all part of the Soviet farmer's life.

One last word on this film. There is a delightful duet in it. The singers' combined age is 87 years—which would not be worth recording except that one is an 80-year-old shepherd, and his accordian accompanist is just 7.

Miners' Palace Includes Theater

Coal miners of the Donets Collieries in the industrial community of Kadievka will formally open their new Palace of Culture there on November 7.

Erected at a cost of 15 million rubles, the edifice includes a theater and stage, library and reading rooms, recreation and rest rooms. Others are fitted out for study circles, a lecture hall and gym.

Armenia Greets Repatriates

More than 17 thousand Armenians have settled in the Stalin District of Erevan, the capital of Soviet Armenia. They were recently repatriated from France, Egypt, Syria, Iraq and other countries of Europe and the East. After many years in the capitalist countries, these new citizens find themselves far behind their Soviet compatriots in cultural development. Almost half of those who arrived from abroad were illiterate. The Committee on Cultural and Educational Work of the District Soviet of Deputies, with the active assistance of the people, is working to eliminate this illiteracy. In a dozen workers' settlements and various sections in this district, special educational centers have been established. In Butania, a secondary school is being built for the children of the new settlers. In Nor-Aresh, South Aresh and other settlements where the repatriates are living, new libraries have been opened.

Children Still Talk 'Camp'

INASMUCH AS MY OWN children haven't stopped talking about the fun they had this year at summer camp, I was particularly interested in a piece of information just released by the Ministry of Public Health. Over 1,300,000,000 rubles were spent this year on children's summer vacations. Approximately 2,700,000 children—mostly of school age—were accommodated by Young Pioneer camps and sanatoriums. One out of ten of these youngsters were orphans who lost their parents during the Nazi invasion; and their vacations were free. The parents of the other children paid a nominal fee—if they could afford it. If not, the State or trade union paid.

New Institute Aids Farmers

Word comes that the Uzbek Academy of Sciences has organized a new Agricultural Scientific Research Institute to devote its attention to the increasing of cotton yields and improving livestock.

This new Institute will establish cotton-growing and livestock experimental stations. It will have laboratories specializing in technical, biological, plant-protection and irrigation problems.

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LENINGRAD IN WINTER. A picturesque vista in the beautiful city on the Neva. The Alexander Column (center) is a Leningrad landmark. FRONT COVER. A miner's child of the Donbas coal region. BACK COVER. Smelting shop at the Stalin iron and steel works at Stalinsk, Siberia.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Molotov Finds Peace Camp Strong

Following is the text of the address given by V. M. Molotov on November 6, the eve of the Thirty-first Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, before a gathering at the Bolshoi Theater, Moscow.

V. M. Molotov

COMRADES, we are today celebrating the Thirty-first Anniversary of the Socialist Revolution in our country. The working people of the Soviet Union meet this anniversary of the Great October Revolution with a glorious record of victories achieved in the third and decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan.

Socialist competition is spreading and developing among the working class, the collective farm peasantry and the Soviet intelligentsia, is multiplying from day to day the achievements of the peoples of the USSR in the work of building communism. The constructive efforts of the Soviet people are concentrated on the realization of the great plans for the advancement of industry and agriculture, plans of hitherto unprecedented scale and significance. The economic might of the Soviet Union is growing and the material welfare of our people is steadily rising before our eyes. Friendship among the peoples of the USSR grows firmer and firmer, inspired by Soviet patriotism and infused with unbounded confidence in and love for the Stalin leadership of our country. The October Revolution marked the beginning of the collapse of the capitalist system, but for nearly three decades the Soviet Union was the sole socialist country. After the Second World War there fell away from capitalism such European countries as Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Albania and Yugoslavia. In the dependent and colonial countries the movement for national liberation is making giant strides. In spite of all obstacles, the democratic forces are growing and becoming tempered in the struggle against the forces of reaction in the capitalist countries.

The international prestige of the USSR is continuously growing as the main bulwark of the democratic and anti-imperialistic camp opposed to the camp of imperialism and aggression.

Under the great banner of Lenin and Stalin our people are marching forward, looking back with satisfaction on the past years of heroic struggle and glorious victories and full of confidence in their future.

I—A New Upsurge

ALL efforts of our people since the victorious conclusion of the Great Patriotic War are guided by the well-known directing principles outlined by Comrade Stalin: "Having terminated the war with victory over the enemies, the Soviet Union has entered a new, peaceful period in its economic development. At the present time the Soviet people are confronted with the task of advancing further ahead to a new economic upsurge after having consolidated the positions gained. We cannot limit ourselves to consolidating these positions, for that would lead to stagnation. We must advance further ahead in order to create the conditions for a new, powerful upsurge in the national economy. In the shortest possible time we must heal the wounds inflicted on our country by the enemy and restore the prewar level of development of the national economy in order considerably to surpass this level in the nearest future, raise the material well-being of the people and still

further strengthen the military and economic might of the Soviet State."

Everyone can now see that the Soviet people are successfully carrying out this Stalin program of firmly consolidating the positions won and marching forward to a new economic upsurge.

Whereas the program of the first year of the postwar Five-Year Plan was not completely fulfilled, since in the first year after the war much effort was spent on the reconversion of industry from a war to a peace footing and also because of the additional difficulties which arose in connection with the drought and crop failure of 1946, as early as the second year of the Five-Year Plan the position improved along the whole economic front. In 1947 our industry not only fulfilled but considerably exceeded its annual program. The effect of this was that the combined programs of the first two years of the postwar Five-Year Plan were completely fulfilled. It must be reckoned as a great achievement of the Soviet people that by the end of last year our industrial output had already reached the level of the prewar year of 1940. Under these circumstances the present, third, year is of decisive importance for the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan. On the success of our efforts, on the efforts of the Party organizations, trade unions and Komsomol depends the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan as a whole and, what is especially important, the possibility of fulfilling it ahead of schedule. And we know that the idea of fulfilling the Five-Year Plan ahead of schedule has taken a strong hold on the minds of the working class.

Last year the working men and women of Leningrad addressed an appeal to the working men and women of the whole country to fulfill the Five-Year Plan in four years. This appeal met with the broadest response. Thanks to our efforts, in the first quarter of this year the usual decline of industrial output as compared with the last months of the previous year was not in evidence. This year our industry is steadily overfulfilling its programs from quarter to quarter. In the first nine months, the gross output of industry showed an increase of 27 per cent as against the corresponding period of last year. This fact alone indicates how rapidly the postwar rehabilitation and economic progress of our country are proceeding. This is also borne out by the fact that in the current year industrial output is proceeding at a level 17 per cent higher than that of the prewar year of 1940.

Together with the recovery and growth of industry the material prosperity of the working class is also rising. This year the aggregate payroll of factory and office workers is nearly double that of 1940.

The building of houses, schools, hospitals, rest homes, and cultural institutions is proceeding on a broad scale. The program adopted in the Five-Year Plan for the improvement of the living and working conditions of the working people is being effectively realized.

Of course, we shall not rest content with the successes achieved. Nor shall we forget that a number of branches of heavy and light industry where the aftermath of the destructive effects of the war period are still being felt, have not yet attained the prewar level and that not infrequently due effort is not being made to improve the quality of industrial output.

Nevertheless, the achievements already available enable us to accelerate the progress of the lagging branches of industry and to ensure the fulfillment of the postwar Five-Year Plan for industry ahead of schedule. The Party calls us to advance, still better to organize and develop systematic struggle in factories and collective farms for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

In the Soviet Union we witness a general and steady expansion of industry directed by the socialist State. Now the peoples' democracies have also embarked on a similar course. But this cannot be said of the capitalist countries, although they suffered immeasurably less from the war than the USSR and the new democracies.

In the United States, industrial output is not even 80 per cent of the level of 1943 when, nourished by enormous war contracts, it reached its peak. In spite of this, the profits of American corporations continue to grow. Whereas in 1939 they amounted to 6,400,000,000 dollars and at the height of the war they exceeded 24,000,000,000 dollars per annum, last year the profits of the American monopolies reached nearly 30,000,000,000 dollars. On the other hand the wages of the American workers in these past years have been lagging greatly behind the rise of prices, which signifies a considerable deterioration in the condition of the working class. While according to official reports the number of unemployed in the United States barely exceeds two million—which, there is much data to show, is greatly underestimated, the actual figure being at least three times larger—the number of semiemployed, those not working a full week, already amounts, even according to official statistics, to more than eight million.

Or take France, where the condition of the working class is focusing general attention. The real wages of the French workers, owing to rising prices of commodities, have in postwar years fallen to one-half. It is known from published figures that in the first half of this year the profits of the French capitalists amounted to 43 per cent of France's total national income, whereas the wages of the workers and office employees constituted only 39 per cent of the national income. These figures show that profits of the French capitalists considerably exceed the total wages received by all the workers and office employees of France.

Whereas the progress of our industry is entirely based upon our internal resources and on the labor effort of the Soviet people, in the capitalist countries of Europe everything is based on the expectation of receiving credits from "Uncle Sam."

Everybody is familiar with the stir raised in Europe over the "Marshall Plan." This plan is advertised as the factor of salvation for the postwar recovery of Europe's economy. To listen to certain British or French statesmen, without American credits under the "Marshall Plan" economic recovery in the European countries is impossible. However, the American dollars which floated this year into the pockets of European capitalists under the United States' credit plan did not produce any real revival of industry in the countries of capitalist Europe. And they cannot produce that revival since the American credits are not being given in order to restore and expand the industries of the European countries which compete with the United States, but in order

to provide a broader market for American goods in Europe and to place these countries in economic and political dependence on the capitalist monopolies which dominate the United States and their aggressive plans, in disregard of the interests of the European peoples themselves.

In contradistinction to this, the postwar recovery and expansion of industry in the USSR is not dependent upon any capitalist country and entirely serves to satisfy the needs of its own people.

Both industry and agriculture in the Soviet Union have entered a period of new and powerful upsurge.

Here are a few facts.

This year, the gross grain harvest has already reached the level of the prewar year of 1940. We achieved this in spite of the fact that the crop area has not yet attained the prewar level and that the heavy loss of tractors and agricultural machines sustained in the period of enemy occupation has not yet been repaired in agriculture. This makes all the more significant the fact that thanks to more efficient use of available machines and a considerable improvement in the organization of the labor of the men and women collective farmers, the grain crop yield per hectare this year exceeded that of the prewar year of 1940. We are now fully aware that our principal task in agriculture is to achieve a further increase of the yield of grain and other agricultural crops.

Everybody knows how successful were the grain deliveries this year, to which our Government has always attached the greatest significance. The competition which developed between region and region, district and district, as well as between republic and republic, yielded valuable results. You know of this from the numerous letters addressed to Comrade Stalin, which have been published in our press. In spite of the drought, which afflicted a large part of the Volga area, the fulfillment of the plan for grain deliveries this year is successfully nearing completion. A large number of regions and territories have delivered to the State far more grain this year than last year and more than they did in prewar years. Suffice it to say that 131 million poods* of grain were delivered this year more than last year in the Ukraine, 77 million poods more in the Northern Caucasus and 40 million poods more in Siberia. Now not only is the current supply of bread to the population fully ensured, but the necessary government stocks have been built up for the future.

With a view to accelerating the further progress of agriculture—the production of cereals, cotton, beets and other crops—as well as to creating a fodder base for the all-round advancement of animal husbandry, the State is initiating broad measures for advancing farming methods to a higher level in the collective farms and state farms, for the supply of chemical fertilizers and all necessary machines. With the support of the State, the collective farms will now be in a position to advance all branches of collective animal husbandry and at the same time increase its productivity. This year the farms will receive from the State three times as many tractors, twice as many motor trucks, twice as many agricultural machines as in the prewar year of 1940. The State is continually initiating new measures for the all-round extension of the technical facilities of agriculture, for lightening the labor of the collective farmers and for enhancing the productivity of their labor.

This year competition in the collective and state farms attained especially broad dimensions, for which our Party organizations primarily deserve the credit. At the same time the collective farms have begun more effectively to combat idlers and disorganizers of the collective labor, and this will contribute to a further improvement of the organization of collective farm production and to the growing prosperity of the collective farmers. Last year's decision of the Government to award decorations for outstanding achievements in agriculture was a powerful stimulus to the development of socialist competition in the countryside. We now have thousands of Heroes of Socialist Labor in the collective farms and among state farm workers. Tens of thousands of men and women of the collective farms have been awarded orders and medals for great achievements in agriculture.

This year it has been decided to raise the requirements for those who will in the future be decorated by the Government for their achievements in agriculture and stockbreeding and in mastering agricultural technique. It need not be doubted that this year the number of recipients of decorations will not diminish but on the contrary will greatly increase. This is indicated by the scope of competition and the growing labor enthusiasm on the collective farms.

Only a few days ago, there was published a decision of the Party and the Government, adopted on the initiative of Comrade Stalin, introducing a plan for the planting of protective forest belts, development of grass crop rotation and building of ponds and reservoirs for the purpose of ensuring big and stable harvests in the steppe and forest-steppe areas of the European part of the USSR. The objective envisaged is to utilize the great practical experience and achievements of agricultural science so that the collective farms and state farms of the steppe and forest-steppe districts, armed with advanced techniques, may, during the next few years make a great spurt in the further development of agriculture and animal husbandry.

Particular importance is attached to the development of grass crop rotation and to the large-scale planting of wind screens for the protection of fields. The realization of this majestic state plan, with the adoption of which war has been proclaimed on drought and crop failure in the steppe and forest-steppe regions of the European part of our country, will lead our agriculture into the high-road of great and stable harvests, will render the labor of the collective farmers highly productive and will greatly enhance the economic might of the Soviet Union. Our confidence that this epoch-making plan will be fulfilled is indicative of the speed with which our strength is growing, and of our achievements and our potentialities when we follow the path mapped out by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and by our great Stalin.

In view of the fact that the task of directing the national economy has become more complicated, we are faced with new problems in the field of state planning, the organization of supply of materials and the development of advanced techniques in all branches of economy.

* One pood=36.113 pounds.

In the field of economic planning, special importance now attaches to the work of co-ordinating and expediting the development of the various branches of production. As you know, the plans of production and construction are now drawn up for plants on the basis of progressive technico-economic norms of utilization of equipment and materials, which helps to accelerate the progress of industry, transport, and other branches of the national economy. The purpose of control over the way plans are being fulfilled is not simply to ensure the total planned volume of gross output, but also, and as an essential requirement, the fulfillment of programs in respect to the main classes of goods, and in respect to the assortment and improvement of quality of product.

The speed of our economy's development largely depends upon the proper organization of supply of materials, the creation of necessary material stocks, and the economical utilization of the state resources. In view of the present vast scope of production and construction, efficient organization of supply and control to ensure that the established norms of expenditure of materials are observed, is of paramount importance to the State. Accelerated mechanization of processes requiring great expenditure of labor and the introduction of up-to-date techniques in all branches of industry, transport, and agriculture have always been considered a most important task of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

Comrade Stalin has said in connection with our postwar objectives that "mechanization of labor processes is for us that new and decisive force without which it will be impossible to maintain our tempo or the new scale of production." Our potentialities in this respect have grown immensely. The industries of the Soviet Union can now produce any machine, and the scale of machine-building has, moreover, already far surpassed the prewar scale. The number of machine tools in our country has greatly increased compared with 1940, and within a short period can be increased still further.

The systematic introduction of up-to-date technical equipment in all branches of the national economy is a powerful lever for enhancing the might of the Soviet State.

One highly important measure introduced in our country since the Thirtieth Anniversary of the October Revolution was the currency reform, coupled with the abolition of the ration system of supplying the population and the establishment of uniform and reduced state prices for manufactured goods and foodstuffs. This decision helped rapidly to eliminate the pernicious effects of the excessive amount of money in circulation, a heritage of the war period, and created favorable conditions for accelerating the progress of the national economy. As a result of the reduction of state retail prices for foodstuffs and manufactured goods and the accompanying reduction of prices in co-operative trade and in the collective farm markets, the purchasing power of the ruble increased twofold. Thanks to this and also to the growth of money wages, the real wages of workers and office employees have more than doubled compared with those of last year.

Thus the currency reform and the Government's measures to improve trade have greatly contributed to raising the standard of living of the workers and office employees.

These measures had already become possible two years after the end of the war, during which the fascist invaders had inflicted untold misery and ruin on our country. This fact is a demonstration to the world of the vast forces and internal potentialities inherent in the Soviet State.

At the same time, following the abolition of the ration system, new tasks have arisen in all their urgency in the sphere of Soviet trade, both in town and country. Everything must be done to expand to the utmost the production of consumer goods and to improve their quality and assortment, and also to improve service to the consumers by the trading organizations—both state and co-operative. On the other hand, the favorable results of the currency reform can be ensured to the full only if we observe the strictest economy in everything, do not tolerate extravagance and spare Soviet kopecks. Consciousness of the importance of these simple duties has now penetrated the broadest sections of the Soviet public.

This year has seen the birth of a new patriotic movement among the working masses—a movement for the mobilization of internal reserves, for rendering our enterprises profitable and for accumulations in excess of plan.

In the first nine months of this year, the total of economies above plan, resulting from reduction of the cost of industrial products exceeded 4,000,000,000 rubles. The competition which has developed in this field permits us to hope that by the end of this year the total of accumulations above plan will have increaesed by at least 50 per cent. Competition in this field, furthermore, leads to more efficient utilization of machines and of equipment generally at the plants, and facilitates better organization of production, which deserves encouragement on the part of all our directing bodies. This is a movement which now embraces many thousands of the country's plants and has acquired nationwide importance, thanks to the initiative of the Communist organization and the working people of our capital, Moscow, which this time too has justified the high appreciation accorded to it by Comrade Stalin when he called it the "standard-bearer of the new, Soviet epoch."

We are living at a time when our factory and office workers and the collective farm peasants throughout the country are taking part in socialist competition. There are not, and there should not be now, any mills or factories or collective farms which do not take part in competition or do not strive to increase the number of those participating in socialist competition within the enterprise or collective farm.

"Competition is a communist method of building socialism," Comrade Stalin has said. And now we see that this communist method of building socialism has been adopted by the entire mass of working people of our country. This is an achievement of the October Revolution whose vastness cannot be overrated.

The immortal Lenin said: "Socialism, far from extinguishing competition, for the first time creates the possibility of developing it on truly broad, truly mass lines, of truly enlisting a majority of the working people in endeavors where they may display their ability, develop their capacities, and reveal their talents, of which there are inexhaustible wellsprings among the people and which capitalism mutilated, crushed and stifled by the thousand and million.

"Our task, now that a socialist Government is in power, is to organize competition." Lenin further said: "The creation of the opportunity on a broad and truly mass scale, for the manifestation of enterprise, competition and bold initiative is appearing only now. Every factory from which the capitalist has been ejected or at least curbed by real workers' control, every village where the exploiting landlord has been smoked out and his land taken away, is now and only now a field in which the man of labor shows what he is worth, can unbend his back a little, can straighten up, can feel himself a man. For the first time after centuries of working for others, of compulsory work for exploiters, there appears the possibility of working for himself and working with the backing of all the achievements of up-to-date technique and culture."

Lenin wrote these lines in December, 1917—that is, more than 30 years ago. Everyone can now see for himself the fundamental and practical significance of the great tenets of Lenin.

The scope and profundity of socialist competition show that the entire Soviet people has become a closely-knit family of working people, regardless of national or religious distinction. The dispatches and reports addressed to Comrade Stalin which are daily published in our newspapers, telling of the labor achievements of factories and collective farms, construction jobs and scientific institutions, districts and cities, whole branches of industry and transport, regions, territories and Soviet republics, all this testifies that our country has become a closely-knit family of nations which displayed its unbreakable solidarity and invincibiity in the years of the Patriotic War and is now, from day to day, by its participation in the front of labor, demonstrating the growing power of the moral and political unity, the socialist consciousness of the Soviet people. In our country all are workers, there are no idlers or parasites nor should there be. It is sometimes said abroad that by dislodging these gentry from their snuggeries we acted not quite democratically. But the results have not proved to be bad. Just because we are a state of workers, where there is no room for idlers or parasites, we today constitute a closely-knit multinational laboring family and at the same time a strongly organized, mighty, and invincible army.

Lenin and Stalin teach us not to get swell-headed and not to rest content with what we have achieved. Comrade Stalin incessantly explains the importance of the method of criticism and self-criticism for our progress and for workers of all ranks without exception.

The work of our organizations on the cultural front is steadily growing in scope and significance. We have 730 thousand university students and in addition 270 thousand university correspondence-course students and more than 34 million high, elementary and secondary technical-school pupils. Our press and our cultural organizations are carrying on immense work of scientific education among the masses. Let that capitalist state come forward which would like to vie with the Soviet Union in the field of cultural progress!

We are entitled to be proud of the accomplishments of Soviet arts, and especially of late, of the accomplishments of Soviet literature, which is no mean achievement of the guidance and direction of the Party. Our literature, cinema and other arts are being increasingly enriched with productions which in their characters reveal the ideological substance of events and the endeavors of the people of the Soviet epoch.

True art appeals to the people and leaves deep traces in their minds—hence the great importance of the present efflorescence of the Soviet arts for the development of what has been accomplished in the communist education of the Soviet people. Soviet art penetrates far beyond the borders of our country, telling of the life and deeds of our homeland—which the capitalist press strives to conceal from or distort in the eyes of the working people.

Of great fundamental and practical importance for the promotion of scientific theory was the recent discussion in scientific circles on questions of biology. The discussion on the theory of heredity raised profound and fundamental questions relating to the struggle of genuine science, founded on the principles of materialism, against reactionary idealistic survivals in science such as the Weissman doctrine of the immutability of heredity, which denies that acquired characteristics can be transmitted to offspring. This discussion stressed the creative significance of materialist principles for all branches of science, and this should help to accelerate the progress of scientific theory in our country. We should recall the task set before our scientists by Comrade Stalin, the task of "not only overtaking but outstripping in the nearest future the achievements of science outside our country."

The discussion on biological questions was also of great practical significance, especially for the further advancement of our socialist agriculture. It is not fortuitious that this struggle has been headed by Academician Lysenko, whose services in our common effort to promote socialist agriculture are well-known. The keynote of this discussion was Michurin's famous motto: "We cannot wait for favors from nature; we must wrest them from her." This injunction of Michurin's, it may be said, is infused with the Bolshevik spirit and is a call not only to scientific workers but also to the millions of practical farmers to engage in active creative work for the benefit and glory of our people.

The scientific discussion on biological questions was conducted under the guiding influence of our Party. Here, too, Comrade Stalin's guiding ideas played a decisive part, opening new and broad vistas in scientific and practical work.

Our country is on a new upgrade. This is borne out by the fervent labor and the improving conditions of the ordinary Soviet people, by the achievements of scientists and artists and by the accomplishments of socialist construction, which we observe daily, in which we share, each according to his strength and ability, and of which we have the right to be proud.

Only yesterday our enemies were attempting to convert vast areas of our country into a "desert zone", demolishing and destroying everything in their path. We have still not healed many of the wounds of war, have not rebuilt a number of cities, have not built all the buildings and houses we need in order to eliminate the aftermath of the incursion of the fascist barbarians. But we are conducting this work successfully and are advancing ever more rapidly and confidently and have already left behind many an achievement of prewar days.

Great is the progress made by our country, where the family of Soviet na-

tions is cemented by friendship and common effort for the benefit of the motherland, displaying examples unparalleled in history, of co-operation and fraternity among the peoples of the multinational Soviet Union. We are united and animated in the struggle and are led forward by the Bolshevik Party and the great leader of the Soviet people, Comrade Stalin.

II—In the Vanguard of Struggle for Lasting Democratic Peace

FOUR years ago Comrade Stalin, defining the tasks of the postwar period, said:

"To win the war against Germany is to accomplish a great historical task. But winning the war is not in itself synonymous with ensuring for the nations lasting peace and guaranteed security in the future. The thing is not only to win the war but also to render new aggression and new war impossible, if not forever then at least for a long time to come."

In order to assist the effective realization of these aims, the USSR took an active part in the elaboration of a number of international agreements while the Second World War was still being waged.

Everybody will recall how the agreement was elaborated among the Soviet Union, the United States of America and Great Britain, to which China and France adhered and which later was taken as a basis of the Charter of the United Nations Organization. Of utmost importance were the agreements among the Soviet Union, the United States and Great Britain on the German question adopted at Yalta and Potsdam. We also know that the Potsdam decisions defined the general line of the postwar settlement not only in Europe. A special Potsdam Declaration on Japan, together with the Cairo Declaration and the Yalta Agreement, should serve as the basis for the peace settlement in the Far East as well.

It should not be forgotten that these international agreements were sealed with the blood of our peoples who bore countless sacrifices and made it possible for us victoriously to end the war against fascism and aggression in Europe and Asia. Since then the Soviet Union has invariably insisted that the obligations undertaken under these agreements must be sacredly adhered to and carried out in practice by all states. It cannot be said that these obligations have remained only on paper. It is sufficient to recall that the international organization of the United Nations has been created and is functioning, although it is often attempted to lend a twist to its work which does not correspond with its fundamental purposes. Five peace treaties have been concluded—with Italy, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary and Finland—which are an important contribution to the peace settlement in Europe.

On the other hand we cannot close our eyes to the fact that the peace treaty with Germany is making no headway. At the same time, in the American, British and French zones of occupation of Germany, which in contravention of the agreements among the Soviet Union, the United States, Britain and France have been removed from quadripartite control, people who were prominent under the fascist regime are being restored to key positions in industry and administration. Moreover, many democratic organizations are deprived of the opportunity of functioning normally, which the Soviet Union considers arbitrary and impermissible.

Nor is the peace treaty with Japan making any headway. Naturally the Soviet Union is insisting that the work of framing the peace treaties for Germany and Japan be expedited in conformity with what was envisaged in Allied agreements. This means that it must be the purpose, in framing the said peace treaties, to prevent the resurgence of Germany and Japan as aggressive powers, and consequently it must help to promote the demilitarization and democratic reconstruction of these countries. In conformity with this, the Soviet Government insists upon the complete disarming of Germany and on the implementation of the well-known plan of international control of the industrial region of the Ruhr as the principal base of Germany's war industry. In conformity with this, too, the Soviet Government insists that war industry be completely banned in Japan and that proper international control be established to prevent the restoration of war industry in that country. But at the same time the Soviet Government considers that peace industry must not be stifled either in Germany or Japan. Both the German and the Japanese peoples must be given the opportunity to secure everything their own industries, serving peace needs, can provide. If we want to be true to the obligations we assumed with regard to the peace settlement with Germany and Japan, this is the course we must follow. Only those who want endlessly to protract the occupation of Germany and Japan, disregarding the legitimate interests of their peoples, can evade fulfilling the aforesaid international agreements.

This is how matters stand regarding the chief tasks of the postwar peace settlements.

Another major point in the foreign policy of the USSR is the struggle against the new forces of aggression, and consequently against propaganda for a new war, and the instigators of a new war.

With this purpose, as far back as 1946 the Soviet Union submitted to the UN its well-known proposal for a general reduction of armaments and prohibition of atomic weapons.

In spite of the resistance of the aggressive elements this proposal was in the main accepted by UN.

Last year the Soviet Union submitted a proposal to the General Assembly for the adoption of measures against war propaganda and instigators of a new war. After all sorts of reservations and limitations had been introduced into our draft, the UN adopted a decision on this matter. The General Assembly's resolution was so thoroughly washed and scrubbed that it contained not a word of reference to instigators of a new war. Only in the title of the resolution did there remain any mention that it was aimed against instigators of a new war. Nevertheless, even this resolution is of positive value in the eyes of all honest supporters of international security, since it condemns all forms of propaganda having the purpose of creating or capable of creating or hastening a threat to peace, a violation of peace, or an act of aggression.

In order that the resolution on reduction of armaments and prohibition of atomic weapons should not remain a dead letter, the Soviet Union this year made concrete proposals in ex-

tension of the said decision of the UN.

The Soviet Union proposed a reduction by one-third within one year, of all the existing armed forces and armaments of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, France and China—the five countries which, as the permanent members of the Security Council, bear the chief responsibility for the maintenance of international security. This proposal directly affects only the great powers and does not apply to the armaments of any other state.

Furthermore, the Soviet Union proposed that the atomic weapon be prohibited as a weapon designed for aggressive purposes and not for purposes of defense. In order to exercise supervision and control, to see that the measures for the reduction of armaments and armed forces and the prohibition of atomic weapons were carried into effect, we proposed that an international control body be set up within the framework of the Security Council to which the United States, Great Britain, the USSR, France and China would have to submit full official data relative to the state of their armaments and armed forces.

This question was debated in the General Assembly and its committees for more than a month. The great powers resorted to every excuse not to agree to a reduction of their armed forces and armaments or to the prohibition of atomic weapons, and secured the passage by the General Assembly of a resolution which suited their wishes.

Particularly unfriendly was the reception the representatives of the United States and Great Britain gave to our proposal to prohibit atomic weapons. They cannot deny the indisputable statement that the atomic bomb is a weapon of aggression and not of defense, that it is designed for the mass destruction of peaceful citizens and chiefly of big cities, and that only fascist fiends and not representatives of free nations can dream of employing such a weapon. But those whom Comrade Stalin called obedient "Churchill's pupils in aggression" are seeking every excuse to prevent the prohibition of the criminal atomic weapons.

In this connection two major camps of public opinion are becoming more and more clearly defined.

In the United States the recently formed Progressive Party headed by Henry Wallace has come out in favor of prohibiting atomic weapons, as also have quite a number of American scientists and public figures, not to mention the millions of working people whose voice is not reflected in the bought and hired organs of the yellow bourgeois press.

In the summer of last year in the so-called working committee of the Atomic Commission of the Security Council, the majority of the states, including Great Britain, pronounced in favor of destroying atomic bombs although, owing to the pressure of the United States, they did not adhere to this position very long. It has long been known that many British scientists consider the position of the Soviet Union in this matter to be correct. There can be no doubt that in any country the supporters of prohibition of atomic weapons constitute the overwhelming majority of the people, although this does not find reflection in the General Assembly. The more stubbornly the aggressive elements resist the prohibition of atomic weapons, the wider will become the split between the forces of aggression and imperialism on the one hand and the forces standing for the promotion of general peace and democracy on the other.

From this it follows that the partisans of atomic weapons will with every day become more and more isolated from world public opinion. From this it also follows that in leading the struggle for the prohibition of the criminal atomic weapons the Soviet Union stands at the head of all peace-loving nations, of all progressive men and women, throughout the world.

Until the Second World War the capitalist world was divided into bourgeois-democratic countries and fascist countries. At that time the chief instigators of aggression were the fascist and militaristic countries—Germany, Italy and Japan—which formed the so-called anti-Comintern bloc. It was they that started the Second World War, which ended in the ignominious failure of all fascists.

Long before the Second World War the Soviet Union called upon all non-aggressive countries to unite in order to resist fascist aggression, and always condemned deals by individual great powers with aggressive fascist countries at the expense of other peace-loving nations, such as the shameful Munich compact at the expense of Czechoslovakia. When the Second World War broke out, the Soviet Union did not have to change its policy upon entering the anti-Hitler coalition with Great Britain and the United States. This was a natural continuation of the foreign policy which the Soviet Government had been pursuing before the Second World War as well. The dangerous threat overhanging Europe—and not only Europe—which emanated from fascist Germany and aggressive Japan, with their lunatic plans for world supremacy and for crushing all states that opposed them, compelled the ruling circles of Great Britain and the United States to unite with the Soviet Union against the forces of aggression and fascism. Thanks to this alliance among the USSR and the democratic countries, the aggressive powers were vanquished and important agreements were concluded with regard to the post-war settlement.

The Soviet Union to this day holds by these agreements which were designed to protect the interests of democracy and to prevent new aggression. The Soviet Union legitimately demands that these agreements be carried out in practice and that new questions which may arise in connection with this be also settled by mutual agreement between the interested powers. No one can deny the consistency of the Stalin foreign policy of the Soviet Government, or that it is fully in accord with the interests of international security.

The whole point is that since the end of the Second World War changes have taken place in the policy of the ruling circles of the United States and Great Britain which virtually imply renunciation of all agreements concluded jointly with the USSR aimed at the establishment of a stable democratic peace after the war, and which reflect the desire of these circles to impose their peace, an imperialist peace, upon other countries, which is incompatible with the liberating aims of the anti-Hitler coalition of the powers.

They evidently consider that since the danger of war has passed for them

they may ignore the old agreements with the USSR, disregard their existence. Among the ruling circles of these countries there are many who hanker to proceed toward the realization of their predatory plans, plans aimed at establishing the world supremacy of the Anglo-American bloc. They believe that with the victory over Germany and Japan, the ground has been cleared for the realization of their plans of domination over all other nations, although they cannot say so openly. The press of the imperialist circles attacks our country with ever-mounting shrillness and vociferousness, for it is known to all that the Soviet Union is an irreconcilable foe of imperialist predatory plans.

After this it will be clear why major international agreements concluded with the participation of the Soviet Union are being violated at every step, and why, for instance, the Berlin question, in spite of the agreements reached among the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France, still remains unsettled.

Comrade Stalin gave a profound explanation of this policy of the ruling circles of the USA and Great Britain: "The thing is that those in the USA and Great Britain who inspire the aggressive policy do not consider themselves interested in an agreement and in co-operation with the USSR. What they want is not agreement and co-operation, but talk about agreement and co-operation, so as to put the blame on the USSR by preventing agreement and thus to 'prove' that co-operation with the USSR is impossible. What the war instigators who are striving to unleash a new war fear most of all is the reaching of agreements and co-operation with the USSR because a policy of concord with the USSR undermines the position of the instigators of war and deprives the aggressive policy of those gentlemen of any purpose."

Comrade Stalin defined this policy when he said: "The policy of the present leaders of the USA and Great Britain is a policy of aggression, a policy of the unleashing of a new war."

From this viewpoint it is clear why new American military bases are being created in all parts of the globe, why the American authorities want to maintain their troops in so many countries and why the American military budget has been inflated this year to wartime dimensions, and to eleven times the size it was, for instance, in the prewar year of 1940. From this viewpoint it is also clear why in Washington there is being preserved to this day the Anglo-American military staff which was set up during the Second World War and which is now working on new plans of aggression which are kept secret from both the American and the British peoples. There is a particular lot of talk of late about the creation of all sorts of "alliances" and "blocs" of western states, although they are not being threatened by any other state. All this fuss about the formation of "Western Alliances", "Atlantic Alliances", "Mediterranean Blocs" and the like is camouflaged by defensive declarations by which only excessively naive people can be taken in. In reality these "Alliances" and "Blocs" have as their purpose the preparation for new aggression and the precipitation of new wars in which definite ruling groups are interested, but certainly not the peoples of the United States, Britain, or any other country. In the case of Britain and France they are at variance with the pacts of friendship and mutual assistance which these countries have with the USSR.

Comrade Stalin has also pronounced his authoritative word on how the policy of the instigators of a new war can end. He said: "It can only end in ignominious failure on the part of the instigators of a new war. Churchill, the main instigator of a new war, has already managed to deprive himself of the trust of his own nation and of democratic forces throughout the world. The same fate lies in store for all other instigators of war. The horrors of the recent war are still too fresh in the memory of the peoples, and the public forces favoring peace are too strong for Churchill's pupils in aggression to overpower them and turn them toward a new war."

Comrade Stalin's statement should have a sobering effect. It shows that the anti-Soviet intrigues in which various agents of the instigators of a new war are now engaged are under the vigilant observation of the Soviet Union and the democratic forces of the whole world. Everyone knows that such things do not love the light. But the time has passed when the peoples were blind tools of one or another ruling clique.

The elections in the USA on November 2 resulted in victory for the Democratic Party and President Truman. The failure of the Republican Party and Dewey, who came forward in the elections with a frankly reactionary and most aggressive program, indicates that the majority of the American people reject this program. The Second World War, which ended with the defeat of fascism, led to substantial changes in Europe, and not only in Europe.

The weight of the strengthened Soviet Union in international affairs has been further enhanced. A number of peoples' democracies, with which the USSR is bound by ties of friendship and mutual assistance, have taken the road to socialism. The treachery of the leading nationalist group in Yugoslavia has done great damage to her people, but there can be no doubt that the Communist Party of Yugoslavia, backed by its internationalist traditions, will find the way which will enable Yugoslavia to rejoin the closely knit family which embraces the USSR and the new democracies.

The Communist Parties in the European countries have grown in strength and numbers. The demolition of fascism has opened broad prospects for the growth and solidarity of all the forces of the democratic and anti-imperialist camp.

The situation in Asia has likewise radically changed since the Second World War.

The population of Asia comprises 1,200,000,000 of the 2,250,000,000 people of the globe. The peoples of Asia have now stirred into movement, in which an ever greater part is being played by the forces of national liberation. Only sworn enemies of humanity's progress can throw spokes in the wheel of this national liberation movement.

Such is the onward march of history.

The pillars of imperialism are steadily crumbling and becoming unreliable. At the same time the forces of democracy, peace and socialism are growing and cementing their ranks.

In this situation the imperialist forces more and more frequently base their plans on intensifying the aggressiveness of their policy, on creating an atmosphere of war hysteria and so on. These methods are familiar. The

noisier the warmongering gentry become, the more will they repel the millions of common folk in all countries and the sooner will they become internationally isolated. And at the same time the international camp of the supporters of peace and democracy, in whose vanguard stands the USSR, is growing stronger and stronger and becoming a great and invincible force.

★ ★ ★

OUR country is on a new upgrade. This is to be observed in the economic achievements, in the scope and character of cultural endeavor, in the moral and political unity of the Soviet people, which has risen to a new, higher level. The strength of the Soviet people grows from year to year. The international prestige of the USSR and its influence in world affairs become ever stronger, confirming the correctness of the policy of our Party. And accordingly, the Stalin foreign policy is imbued with unwavering consistency and calm confidence in the morrow.

We owe our achievements to the Bolshevik Party, to the guidance of Lenin and Stalin.

In the summer of 1917, in the days of military defeats and economic dislocation, when our opponents declared that there was no political party in Russia which would consent to take the entire political power into its hands, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin at once retorted that there was such a party, that "Our Party does not refuse to do so; it is prepared at any minute to take over the entire power."

In that very year the Bolshevik Party, which then numbered only 240 thousand members, headed the October Socialist Revolution and led our country to the triumph of the people's rule—Soviet rule.

Then the Bolshevik Party brought our country out of the imperialist war, turned over the landed estates to the peasants, and put down the attempts at resistance by the capitalists and landlords. Then, too, we defeated the forces of foreign intervention which had formed a puppet "Alliance of Fourteen States" and which were defeated in their attempts to restore bourgeois and landlord rule in Russia.

After this, the principal task of the Bolshevik Party was to repair the economic dislocation caused by the protracted civil war. Our enemies declared: "The Bolsheviks know only how to destroy." How often did they affirm that, without the landlords and capitalists, the national economy could not be restored. The Party of Lenin and Stalin retorted to these affirmations with the Bolshevik plan of socialist industrialization, with the triumphant Stalin Five-Year Plans which transformed our country.

After this they prophesied that: "The Bolsheviks will break their necks over the peasant question," that socialist reconstruction of agriculture was impossible. Guided by Comrade Stalin, the Bolshevik Party solved this problem too; having eliminated the kulaks as a class, it brought about the collectivization of many millions of peasant farms and created unprecedented conditions for the progress of agriculture and the radical improvement of the conditions of the peasantry. The outcome of these transformative measures was that we were able to secure the elevation to a new level of the alliance of workers and peasants, which turned into the moral and political unity of socialist society, no example of which had been previously known to world history.

In accomplishing these tasks, the Party time and again encountered the resistance of agents of the class enemy, especially of the Trotskyites and Bukharinites. Having purified itself of them, the Bolshevik Party became still stronger and rallied around Comrade Stalin.

The events of the Great Patriotic War are fresh in the memories of all. Stalin headed the defense of our country and took over direction of the country's armed forces, and the Soviet people vanquished German fascism and its allies. It was thought that the USSR would be impoverished and weakened, but it grew stronger than ever in the Great Patriotic War. It was expected that after the war, the Soviet Union would be dependent on the leading capitalist states, but the Soviet State, as heretofore, is continuing to pursue its independent Stalin foreign policy, guided by the interests of the Soviet people and of international security.

The war ended. We obtained the opportunity to return to our peaceful labors. The Soviet Union is overfulfilling its new postwar Five-Year Plan. Progress is likewise being made in the other countries which have taken the road of socialism. Now in ruling bourgeois circles, all sorts of absurd "fears" are rife—they are frightened by our achievements, they are afraid of the increasing tempo of the economic progress of the USSR. Naturally, this will not induce the Soviet people to relax their labor efforts, but on the contrary, will animate the millions of laboring people of our country—our workers, collective farmers, intellectuals, our youth—to still greater effort.

What is the foundation of our mounting successes? This question may be answered briefly. The foundation of our successes is the guidance of the Bolshevik Party, of great Stalin, who has welded together the working class and the working peasants in their struggle for the triumph of socialism.

There are capitalist countries where much wealth and human experience have been accumulated, where there are natural resources and much else. But the obsolescent capitalist system itself, with its private ownership and anarchy of production, and the social and political antagonisms and crises which rend it, doom these countries to instability and catastrophic slumps, to periodic shocks and revolutionary upheavals.

Different is the situation in the Soviet Union, where the socialist social system stands firmly on its feet and is the inexhaustible source of the growing strength of our State, of the labor enthusiasm and spiritual progress of the Soviet people. In our country, in great things and in small ones, can be seen the directing and mobilizing will of the Communist Party, which recognizes no insuperable obstacles.

The October Revolution tested and steeled the Lenin-Stalin leadership of our country, which has won the boundless confidence and love of the Soviet people. Our people has come to occupy its honorable and historic place among the nations, and has demonstrated that, led by the Communist Party and great Stalin, it is capable of performing ever-new, great deeds.

Long live our Soviet motherland—stronghold of friendship of our peoples and shrine of their glory!

Long live the great Bolshevik Party, the Party of Lenin and Stalin, the battle-steeled vanguard of the Soviet people, the inspirer and organizer of our victories!

Under the banner of Lenin and the leadership of Stalin, forward to the triumph of communism!

BANNERS IN PARADE. Most sections carry slogans of various types. These Muscovites pledge to complete the Five-Year Plan in four years.

Economic Gains Marked

Moscow and Leningrad March On Big Anniversary

By Vladimir Tregubov and Mikhail Kazakov

Moscow, the capital of the Soviet Union, and Leningrad, where 31 years ago the working people took the power of state into their own hands and established the Soviet Government, together with other cities of the USSR, this year celebrated November 7, the Anniversary of the Revolution, with brilliant parades and celebrations.

Moscow's Red Square presents a truly majestic and beautiful spectacle during the national holidays of the Soviet people.

The ancient Kremlin towers, decorated with intricate ornaments, rise behind the marble mausoleum, the last resting place of the immortal Lenin. Ruby stars gleam with unfading light atop the towers. The wind ruffles the red state flag of the Soviet Union flying over the government building. The buildings on the opposite side of the square look particularly attractive in their holiday decorations. Portraits of the great leaders of the socialist revolution, Lenin and Stalin, are prominently displayed on these buildings.

Gigantic red banners bordering the state emblems of the 16 constituent republics of the Soviet Union were displayed on November 7, inscribed with appeals of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks). "Long live the friendship and co-operation of the peoples in their struggle against fascism, for the victory of the peoples' democracy," reads one of the banners displayed on Red Square.

The granite reviewing stands were filled to capacity for the beginning of the festivities.

Thousands of Soviet people, raised to fame by their distinguished labor, were present among the honored guests, together with delegations of workers from foreign lands. Members of the diplomatic corps and foreign correspondents were likewise present.

As the clock on the Kremlin tower struck ten and the leaders of the Soviet Government and of the Communist Party appeared on the tribune of the mausoleum, a thunder of applause rose from the Square.

Two horsemen appeared from the gates of Spassky tower—Marshal Semyon Timoshenko, who is reviewing the parade, and his aide-de-camp.

The review of the troops, which constitute the first section of the parade, begins. The whole Square echoed with vibrant Russian cheers as pilots, infantrymen, sailors, artillerymen and border guards responded to the greetings of Marshal Timoshenko.

Then Marshal Timoshenko ascends the government stands to deliver his address to the soldiers of the Soviet Army and to all of the Soviet people.

Confidently advancing toward their great goal, communism, says Marshal Timoshenko, the Soviet people have marked their holiday by scoring new and significant victories in every field of endeavor. While engrossed in peaceful construction, the peoples of the USSR are conducting an indomitable struggle for a stable and democratic peace in the whole world, for co-operation among all peoples. The peace policy of the socialist State encounters resistance from world reaction and primarily from the Anglo-American imperialists—the instigators of a new war. But all efforts of the aggressors to unleash a new war are doomed to failure. All the democratic forces of the world stand on guard for peace along with the Soviet people. They regard the Soviet Union as a reliable bulwark of peace and security, of freedom and independence of the peoples.

The thunder of an artillery salute roars out and then come the strains of the state anthem of the Soviet Union, merging with the great ovation that rises from the Square.

As always, the parade is opened by the students of the military academies. These students consist of officers who received their practical schooling in the Second World War and are now reinforcing their experience with theoretical training. As the students file past the government reviewing-stand, steel airships appear over the Square. Jet planes cut across the sky with a

speed approximating that of sound, greeted by enthusiastic applause from the reviewing stands.

The students of the military academies are followed by sailors, border guards and infantrymen.

All the services are represented in the parade. Artillery, which gained glory in all the decisive battles of the last war, is represented by guns of different types and calibers from the light howitzer to the famous *Katyusha,* and siege mortars. Tanks roll across the Square to complete the military section of the parade.

The military parade on Red Square is a convincing illustration of the might and power of the armed forces of the USSR, which guard the peaceful labor of their people.

For a brief moment the Square is empty and then a sea of fluttering red banners rises in front of the Lenin Mausoleum—the banners of the Muscovites, the standards of their factories, scientific institutions, theaters and building-construction organizations. In the midst of these banners is a huge portrait of Stalin.

The demonstrators file past the reviewing stands in step with a march played by a mixed orchestra of 1,200 musicians. It is composed of bakers, steelworkers, machine builders and doctors who devote their leisure to amateur art activities; they have come to the demonstration to display their achievements in art. Physical culturists march in the leading column of Muscovites, and the square blossoms forth with all the colors of the rainbow—colorful silk banners of sports societies and the bright costumes of young men and women athletes.

Bright streamers raised high over the marching columns are inscribed with proud slogans: Moscow is reporting the heroic labor of its citizens.

"Dzerzhinsky District of Moscow Completed the 1948 Plan," announces one of the streamers.

"Kautchuk Fulfilled its Program Under the Postwar Five-Year Plan," reports a poster carried by its workers. Workers of Krasny Proletary Machine-Tool plant carry portraits of their fellow-workers, Markov and Ugolkov, honored for their fine work as turners.

Adjoining that of the Krasny Proletary workers is a column of students of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, who carry portraits of the scientists Michurin, Lysenko and Williams, sheaves of wheat symbolizing high crop yields, and a huge panel. The panel carried by the future agronomists shows the distribution of the forest zones designated to protect the fertility of collective farm fields.

The Soviet Government and the Communist Party have adopted a decision which will mean the radical transformation of almost all of the European territory of the Soviet Union. Green forest zones to be planted along the banks of the Volga and Don Rivers will form a barrier that will keep drought out of the Kuban-Salsk steppes, the Crimea and the Ukraine. It is this giant program which is hailed by the students.

Bricklayers, plasterers and builders carry a streamer reporting that twice as many apartment houses have been built in Moscow in 1948 as in 1947.

A huge white seagull is floating over a column of employees of the Moscow Art Theater, which has recently celebrated its fiftieth anniversary.

For several hours the demonstrators streamed through Red Square, reflecting in their banners and in their proud and joyous mien their love for their great country, their confidence in the future which their labor builds.

LENINGRAD, the city that bears the name of the great genius Lenin, the city that was the cradle of the October Socialist Revolution, is always beautiful and impressive. But its majesty and beauty are especially striking on big popular holidays when columns of radiant citizens pour in from all parts of the city to Palace Square, where 31 years ago Russian workers, soldiers and sailors stormed the Winter Palace, and established the workers' and peasants' right to govern their country. The name of this Square is associated with the world-famous, historic victory of November 7, 1917, when the working people of Russia, headed by the party of Lenin and Stalin, opened a new era in the history of mankind.

Following established tradition, the procession this year was headed by workers who have earned the right to lead the parade by dint of their unselfish efforts for the good of their beloved socialist country.

First came the workers of the famous giant of Leningrad's industry—the Kirov Plant (formerly the Putilov Works). Hitler's Germany felt the force of its output at one time, but now the thoughts and efforts of its workers are directed toward the cause of peace. Ahead of the column of thousands went ten of the special tractors intended for work on the country's afforestation plan.

Looking at the exhibition float of the Sverdlov Machine-Building Works of Leningrad, the spectators saw that it has a new machine with a capacity of two thousand revolutions a minute! The people responsible for the newest and most advanced inventions in engineering are applauded from the stands.

Plant after plant, factory after factory—the whole of Leningrad's powerful industry is engaged in peaceful work and displayed on this day the results of its creative efforts.

Here are the workers of the Electrosila Plant; this year they have constructed two turbogenerators with hydrogenic cooling, of a capacity of one hundred thousand kilowatts. This is something entirely new.

The Svetlana Works does not lag behind in industrial production, and among the innovations it displayed is a powerful generator lamp.

Then through the Square came women from the textile mills and rubber plants, metal workers, subway builders, people who are building the new fuel-and-power center near Leningrad.

At the head of the students of 53 universities and institutes marched those of the Mining Institute, which is celebrating its 175th year of existence. They are followed by writers, composers, actors and artists of this beautiful and heroic city, in which the rebuilding and restoration of all that had been damaged or ruined during the war is being completed, in the main, this year.

Printers were accompanied by the employees of Leningrad's publishing houses. The result of their work is splendid—33 million books in ten months.

The people of Leningrad have a single purpose—to work better and harder than ever to give the country as much as possible. They are calm and confident in their powers, in the powers of their socialist country.

Would Revive Yalta Spirit

Mexico's Plea for Big Power Unity Within UN Lauded

By V. Stambulov

THE Mexican proposal appealing to the great powers to renew their efforts for the elimination of the disagreements among them and the establishment of a lasting peace is a much-needed and timely reminder of the cardinal principles on which the United Nations organization is based.

The idea of the UN arose during the tragic years of the Second World War. After organizing the powerful antifascist coalition which played such an important part in the Allied victory, the freedom-loving nations were firmly convinced that the unity which they had achieved should not be confined to the duration of the war, and that the fate of the dearly-bought peace hung upon whether concord among the great powers would endure in the future.

The Mexican proposal points out, and this is by no means fortuitous, the necessity for the return of the great powers to a policy in the spirit of the declaration they signed at Yalta. It appeals to the General Assembly to confirm, in its turn, that part of the declaration which concerns the unity of the great powers. It is a fact that the main conditions for the preservation of universal peace and security and the principal guarantees of the effectiveness of the UN are defined in the Yalta decisions. Widely-known though the Yalta Declaration may be, it can do no harm to refer to it once more. Asserting in it their "common determination to maintain and strengthen in the peace to come that unity of purpose and action which has made victory possible and certain for the United Nations in this war," the USSR, the USA and Britain declared this unity to be a sacred obligation owed by their Governments to their peoples and to all the peoples of the world. "Only with the continuing and growing co-operation and understanding among our three countries and among all the peace-loving nations can the highest aspiration of humanity be realized . . . a secure and lasting peace." Subsequently, these principles formed the basis of the Charter. It was then, at Yalta, that the rule of unanimity (proposed by President Roosevelt) in the Security Council was acknowledged as the most important guarantee of unity and co-operation among the great powers.

The USSR has always attributed exceptional importance to the principles defined at Yalta and the obligations undertaken there by the powers. Consistently and unwaveringly it has made every effort to preserve the unity of purpose and action of the great powers, stressing the vital necessity of developing and strengthening their co-operation in all international affairs, on the basis of respect for the legitimate rights and just interests of all nations without exception. The USSR has carried on an unceasing struggle against all that led to the aggravation of the contradictions among the great powers and to their division into warring camps. Unfortunately, these efforts not only found no support on the part of the other great powers, but even encountered their systematic opposition. The old myth, long since refuted by life, of the alleged impossibility of the peaceful coexistence and co-operation of two systems, was dragged to light once more. The obligations acknowledged as sacred at Yalta were consigned to oblivion. In the settlement of international questions the principles of agreement on the basis of friendly co-operation, respect for the rights and interests of other states, and mutual concessions, were replaced by the method of dictates and pressure. The term "cold war," wholly alien to the spirit of the United Nations organization, has acquired the rights of citizenship in several countries. In the UN—the whole strength and effectiveness of which as an instrument of peace and security consists of unanimity and concord—the roughshod rule of the numerical majority prevails now, without reference to the interests of nations numbering millions, thus excluding any stimulus to co-operation among the nations and permitting questions to be decided without considering the will of the peoples. Even in cases where the UN actually has arrived at a unanimous decision, as in the questions of prohibiting atomic weapons, the reduction of armaments, the struggle against propaganda for a new war, the powers which were not desirous of carrying out these decisions found ways of reducing them to dead letters. As a result the UN did not justify the hopes of the nations, lost a great deal of its prestige and influence, and found itself in a more and more hopeless impasse.

Striking recognition of this impasse is seen in the moving of the Mexican proposal. The unusual unanimity with which this proposal was accepted by the Political Committee of the General Assembly, is plain proof that the error of the course followed by the UN of late is recognized by the overwhelming majority of its members. Hence it is clear that the boasted "balloting machine" which affords an invariable "triumph" to the powers which use it for their own ends, has presented a distorted picture of the real will of the United Nations.

The Mexican proposal, which was undoubtedly not the expression of Mexico's opinion alone, but of the majority of other small nations, speaks to the point: the line which has been followed lately, heading for a split and, eventually the liquidation of the UN, is harmful and fraught with dangerous consequences; it would doom the international organization to impotence and would not permit the nations to expect from it the effective defense of the peace they need so sorely. An end has to be put to this course; only

when the great powers return to the spirit of Yalta—that is, to the restoration of their unity—and the UN becomes a center of concerted action and true co-operation, will this organization be capable of carrying out the great and noble tasks with which it is confronted. It is significant that not one voice was raised in objection to the Mexican proposal. Although it undoubtedly failed to appeal to some of the powers, it was plain to all that any frank objection to it would have been a challenge to public opinion.

The USSR sincerely and warmly supported the Mexican proposal because we have always considered agreement and co-operation among the great powers necessary and possible, and have seen in that an important guarantee of security for a lasting peace. It has sternly condemned every attempt to provoke disagreement among the powers and has bent its efforts toward the settlement or elimination of such disagreements. With this in view, the USSR has insisted on the strict fulfillment of the obligations of agreements, on the speedy conclusion of peace treaties, the liquidation of occupation regimes, and the cessation of the armament manufacture which impoverishes and ruins the nations, undermining their mutual trust and creating a real danger of a fresh catastrophe. Setting the example to other powers, the USSR removed its troops from China and North Korea, demobilized the men of ages called up during the war, and considerably reduced expenditure on armaments.

In a conversation with Harold Stassen in the spring of last year the head of the Soviet Government, Joseph Stalin, asked why, if two different systems could co-operate in wartime, they could not co-operate in peacetime. The irrefutable logic of the question is understandable to all peace-loving people. If the Soviet, American, British, French and other nations could co-operate fruitfully and could guarantee the common victory by their joint efforts, then their co-operation in the preservation and strengthening of peace is still more feasible. This truth is incontrovertible. As Joseph Stalin pointed out, the whole point is the desire to co-operate. The USSR has demonstrated on more than one occasion its unchanging desire for co-operation. Now it is the turn of the other powers.

Hunger Ban Also Fails

Move To End Death Penalty Lost in UN Body

By Y. Mirov

THE Soviet Government, which shortly after the end of the Second World War abolished the death penalty in peacetime throughout its territory, recently proposed in the UN Committee on Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Questions that the Committee recommend that capital punishment in time of peace be abolished by all states.

Although all members of the Committee had agreed to the general preamble that "all men have the right to life", both the proposal on the abolition of capital punishment and another Soviet proposal that governments guarantee conditions which would prevent the danger of death from hunger and exhaustion, met with opposition, and were defeated.

A roll-call vote was taken on the measure dealing with capital punishment. The delegations of the USSR, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Ukrainian SSR, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic and Mexico voted for its adoption. Twenty-one delegations, including those of the United States, Great Britain and France voted against it; 18 delegations refrained from voting; and the representatives of 10 delegations left the hall before the vote was taken.

The Soviet Government, in making these proposals, was suggesting that other states follow, to a small degree, the lead of the USSR in adopting measures leading to the guarantee of the most basic of human rights.

In the USSR, for instance, the economy is so organized that unemployment and depressions are nonexistent; the right to gainful employment is guaranteed by fully-implemented law. Medical treatment is available to all without charge. Payment of wages continues from the Social Insurance Fund during illness, for all workers. There are adequate old-age pensions. The national income constantly increases, and the living standard rises with it. These measures go far beyond the mere elimination of the waste of life by hunger and exhaustion.

But it appears that the representatives of some powers, while willing to adopt pious generalities and, indeed, to trumpet them from the housetops, become violently alarmed if it is suggested, for instance, that the right to life involves the right to an earned income sufficient to sustain healthy life. The very idea of eliminating the causes which give rise to unemployment, to death by hunger and exhaustion, is held to be dangerous.

Similarly, the idea of depriving states in time of peace of the power of life and death over their citizens is held by the representatives of these powers to be dangerous. This stand is a confession of weakness, of fear of the people. In many parts of the world, such as Spain under the fascist Franco regime, execution is the penalty for democratic action. By their stand on capital punishment, the representatives of the imperialist powers which sponsor these war-breeding regimes confess that they consider rule by the threat of death, rather than by the democratic expression of the people's will, to be a necessary condition of government.

By abolishing the death penalty except in the extreme contingency of an armed invasion of the Soviet Union, the USSR demonstrated not only the supreme humanity of its concept of government, but also its great strength and its confidence in the people. In proposing that similar measures be universally adopted, it demonstrated its confidence in the democratic and peaceful peoples of the world and its hatred of oppression.

Peace is Sole Objective in Policy of USSR in the Far East

By Pavel Krainov

WHAT are the aims pursued by the Soviet Union in the Far East? The foreign press frequently gives a distorted answer to this question. The purpose of this article is to acquaint the reader with the real essence of Soviet policy in the Far East and the methods of its realization. This may be illustrated by concrete facts pertaining to the attitude of the Soviet Union toward Japan.

It is known that the Japanese machine of aggression was destroyed through the combined efforts of the Allied forces. The stubborn struggle conducted by the American troops undermined Japan's naval forces. However, aggressive Japan was strong not only at sea, but also on land. The bulwark of Japan's domination on the mainland, the Kwantung Army, equipped with first-class materiel, was concentrated in Manchuria and Korea. In order to achieve complete victory over Japan it was necessary to destroy her land forces. This honorable task was accomplished by the Soviet Army, which crushed the Kwantung Army in a short time. Only after the defeat of Hitler Germany, in which Soviet troops played the major role, and the Soviet defeat of the Kwantung Army, did Japan recognize her defeat and accept the terms of the Potsdam Declaration presented to her by the Allied States on July 26, 1945, i.e., five weeks before the instrument of surrender was signed on board the battleship *Missouri*.

As a party to the Potsdam Declaration proclaimed by the Allied Powers, the Soviet Union has persistently demanded its practical realization. The principal conditions set forth in this Declaration are well known, i. e., the demilitarization and democratization of Japan.

It is quite natural that the Soviet Union, which had repeatedly suffered from Japanese aggression, should like to have as its neighbor a peaceable and democratic Japan, free from any aggressive plans and designs. Referring to this victory over Japan, Generalissimo Stalin said: "Our Soviet people did not spare its strength or labor for the sake of victory. We have lived through hard years. But now every one of us can say: we have won. From now on we can consider our country saved from the threat of German invasion in the West and of Japanese invasion in the East."

It will also be remembered that at the time of the victory over Japanese militarism, President Truman said: "We shall not forget Pearl Harbor. The Japanese militarists will not forget the *USS Missouri*. The evil done by the Japanese warlords can never be repaired or forgotten. But their power to destroy and kill has been taken from them."

It follows that the Soviet and American peoples, as well as all the freedom-loving peoples, have weighty reasons for preventing a resurgence of Japanese aggression. And for this reason, the Soviet representatives at international conferences, in UN, in the Allied Council for Japan, the Far Eastern Commission, etc., have been insistently demanding the practical realization of the Potsdam Declaration and other concerted decisions adopted by the Allies in connection with the Japanese question. For example, the Soviet representatives in the Allied Council for Japan introduced a number of constructive proposals intended to facilitate a democratic reorganization of Japanese life, to eradicate fascist-militarist remnants and to prevent a revival of militarism in Japan. At one of the meetings of the Council, the Soviet delegate proposed concrete measures concerning the introduction of progressive legislation in Japan. These proposals call for the creation of favorable working conditions for Japanese factory and office employees, for measures to safeguard their interests against the arbitrary practices of employers, for a guaranteed living standard, the eight-hour day, and labor protection measures.

Of extremely great significance for eliminating the survivals of feudalism in Japan was the proposal of the Soviet representative for a progressive agrarian reform in that country. The reform proposed by the Soviet delegate calls for the transfer of the land from the hands of the landlords to those of the laboring peasantry. This would extricate the peasants once and for all from their enslavement by the prevailing lease system and the rule of the feudal-estate owners.

The measures recommended by the Soviet representatives in the Allied Council with regard to the establishment of systematic control over the activities of former Japanese officers, the political elimination of fascist-militarist elements and the dissolution of the monopoly concerns (the *dzaibatsu*) were all intended to facilitate the realization of the conditions set forth in the Potsdam Declaration, to prevent a revival of militarism and to do away with the rule of the *dzaibatsu*, which propelled the country along the course of aggression.

At the same time, the USSR is trying to bring about an improvement in the living standards of the Japanese people. An illustration to this effect is furnished by the statement made by the Soviet representative in the Far Eastern Commission on September 23, 1948, specifying that the USSR is in favor of the unrestricted restoration of Japanese production for civilian needs. But the Soviet Union resolutely insists that the restoration of Japanese war industry should be strictly prohibited. In order to prevent this danger, the Soviet Union has proposed to the Far Eastern Commission that the revival and creation of Japanese war industry should be prohibited, and that there should be estab-

USSR Invites FEC To Discuss Proposal on Japan

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, acting in his capacity as Soviet Representative to the Far Eastern Commission, made the following statement at a meeting of that body on November 4, 1948.

STATEMENT OF THE SOVIET REPRESENTATIVE ON THE FAR EASTERN COMMISSION ON THE QUESTION OF THE LEVEL OF ECONOMIC LIFE IN JAPAN.

At the previous meetings of the Commission the delegations of China, Australia and New Zealand made queries in respect to the terminology used in the Soviet statement on the question of the level of Japan's industrial development. In connection with this the Soviet delegation considers it necessary to draw the attention of the Members of the Far Eastern Commission to the following part in its statement of September 23, 1948, namely, that "a high level of industrial development of Japan will not in itself be dangerous if Japan is not permitted to revive her war industry and militarism. Japanese industry in the past served as an economic basis for Japanese aggression, not because it had reached a comparatively high level of development, but because of the fact that its development had been subordinated to the needs of war. Japanese militaristic circles, acting contrary to the vital interests of the Japanese people, directed the development of the country's industry as well as of the economy as a whole in such a way that it was adapted to meet the needs of the army and navy, i.e., it worked for the preparation of war."

It was further said in the statement of the Soviet delegation that such a situation suited the interests of aggressive Japanese circles. However, this situation should not be repeated, since militaristic Japan was defeated and there is an opportunity to direct the development of Japan along democratic and peace-loving lines, the necessity of which was recognized in the Cairo and Potsdam Declarations of the Allies.

This statement of the Soviet delegation is fully sufficient to enable one to understand clearly the Soviet Union's position in respect to the question of the character of Japan's industrial development. In determining policy in respect to the level of economic life in Japan, the basic question is: what character will be given to Japan's industrial development, and, also, whether the liquidation of Japanese war industry will be fully accomplished. As has already been stated above, Japanese industry in the past served as an economic basis for Japanese aggression, not because it had reached a comparatively high level of development, but because of the fact that its development had been subordinated to the needs of war.

On the question of what should be considered "war industry" and what should be considered "peaceful industry" the Soviet delegation proposes to proceed from the Far Eastern Commission decision of August 18, 1947: *Reduction of Japanese Industrial War Potential.*

Thus, war industry ought to include that group of facilities which was defined in that paper as "primary war facilities" as well as that defined as "secondary war facilities". The industries enumerated in the category of "war-supporting industries" should be permitted to the extent necessary for the satisfaction of peaceful (non-military) needs of Japan. The remaining facilities and industries may be included in the category of "peaceful industry".

Naturally, the Soviet delegation is ready to discuss other proposals, as well, on the question of dividing Japanese industry into peaceful and war industries.

Having made this statement, the Soviet delegation invites the Members

(Continued on page 716)

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lished, for a period of several years, a control over the fulfillment of this decision, to be exercised by those Powers most interested in preventing a new Japanese aggression.

Provisions for this control should be included in the Japanese peace treaty, on the conclusion of which the USSR has been insisting for a long time.

The purpose of Soviet policy with regard to a peace settlement for Japan is to facilitate the transformation of Japan into a peaceable and democratic Power and to ensure a stable and lasting peace in the Far East. This policy was clearly formulated in the official Soviet statement circulated by TASS on May 23. The Soviet Union, declares the TASS statement, favors the speediest conclusion of a peace treaty with Japan and the withdrawal of the occupation troops. This has been further confirmed by Soviet statements in the United Nations organization. The Soviet Union is insisting on the preparation of a peace treaty for Japan in accordance with the provisions of the Potsdam agreement, i.e., that it should be prepared by the Council of Foreign Ministers, composed of representatives of the USA, the USSR, China and Great Britain.

Such, in brief, is the Soviet policy with regard to postwar Japan. It shows that the Soviet Union is energetically fighting for a peaceable and democratic Japan. True to the principles of peace and security for the nations, the USSR has been energetically insisting on measures that would make it impossible for Japan ever again to become a menace to other peoples, and would enable her to join the family of peace-loving nations and advance along the democratic course of development.

Guest from Spain

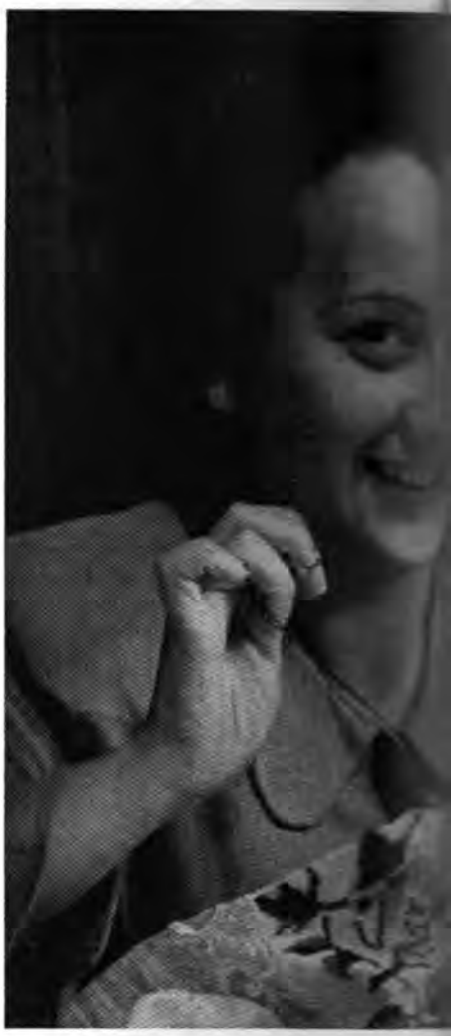
Ten years ago Marta Gonzales-Gil, then a girl of 14, was sent as a refugee from her native Madrid to Moscow with other children of Spanish Republicans. Her father had been killed by Franco's fascists. Now a young woman, she is a student in her junior year at the Moscow Region Pedagogical Institute.

Marta is but one of Moscow's Spanish Republican colony—a group that quickly learned to share all the common interests of the young people of the Soviet Union, but whose members retain their national identity and a keen interest in their homeland.

Studying to become a teacher, Marta Gonzales-Gil rooms in the student dormitory with her chum, Conchita Brufau, a construction engineer. She is an expert needleworker, and finds time for such extracurricular activities as the Spanish dramatic circle which stages its own plays in the Spanish language.

EXTRACURRICULAR. Marta Gonzales-Gil is helping make posters for the jubilee of the Young Communist League, celebrated as a great holiday of youth.

DRAMATICS. The Spanish Circle presents its own plays. Marta is at the left. Plays are given in Spanish.



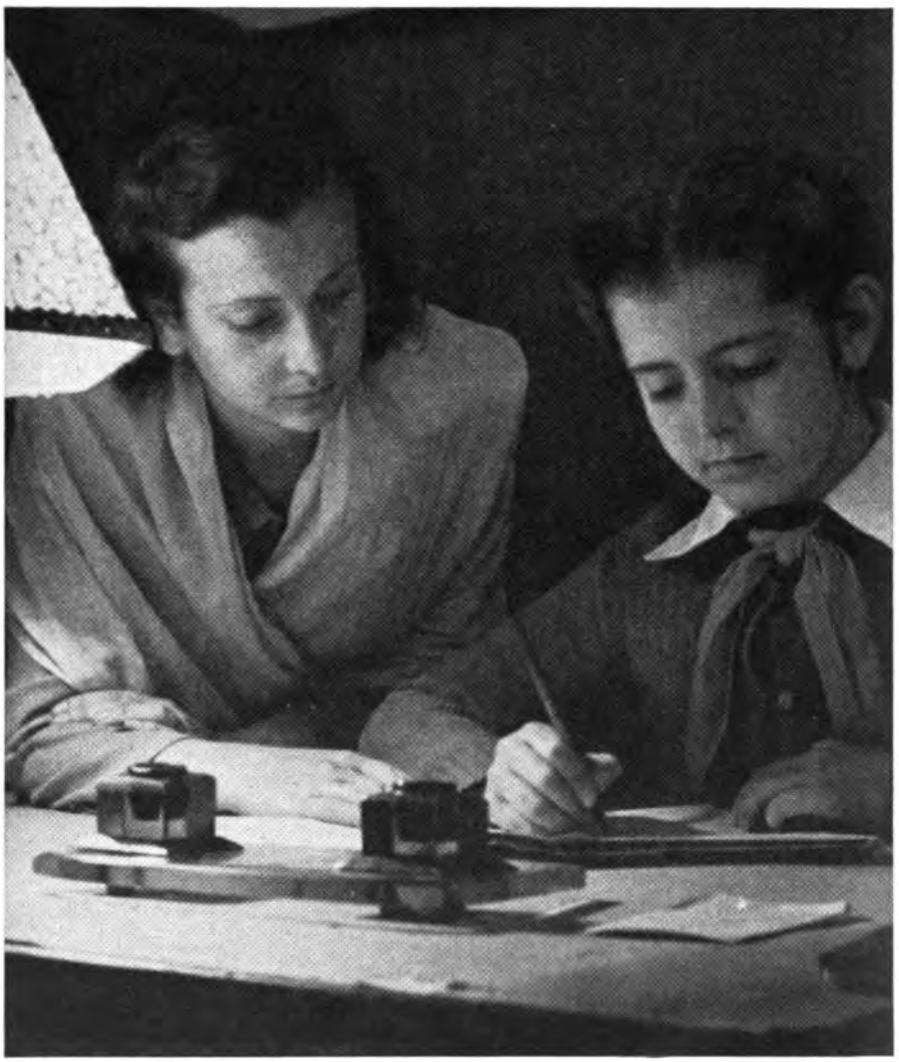
SPANISH REFUGEE. Happy in Mosco

LABORATORY. Here Marta studies ph in mat

injoys embroidering and is an excellent
er.

structor is at the right. Marta is majoring
d physics.

PRACTICE TEACHER. Marta gives a math lesson in P.S. 352, Moscow, as her instructor, Maria Filicheva, and fellow-students look on.



HOME WORK. Josefina Bobadilla, a younger refugee from Franco, gets help from Marta. Josefina is in her fifth year at school.

Harnessed Volga To Furnish Power While Floods Are Checked

By Nikolai Bobrov

Upon Lenin's initiative and under his guidance, the plan for Russia's electrification was first laid in 1920. This plan gave special attention to the utilization of the Volga as a source of electric power and to the improvement of navigation on this great Russian river.

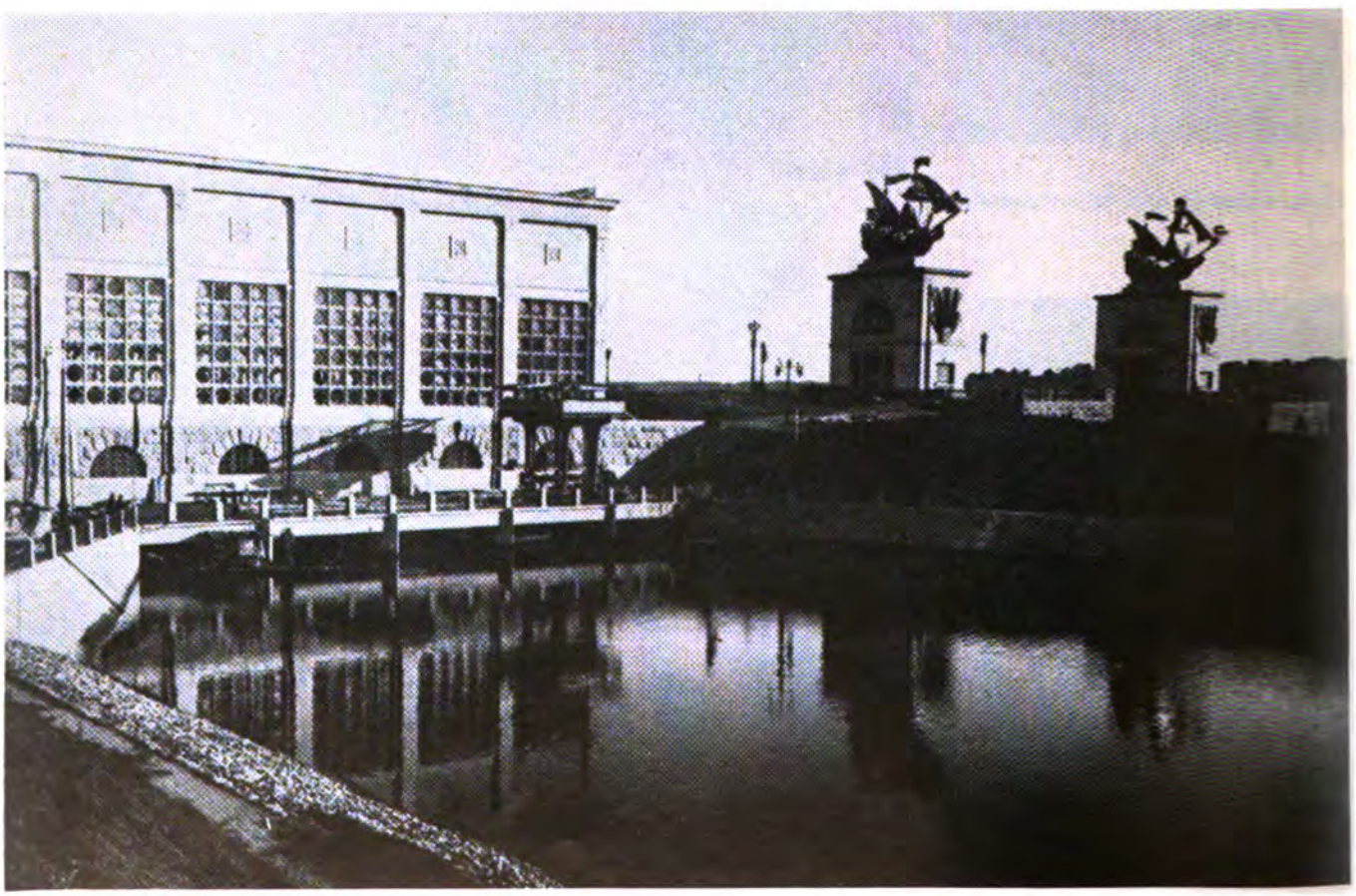
Actual development of the Volga and its utilization as a source of power began in the course of the second Five-Year Plan; in 1933 the Soviet Government adopted the general plan for its development.

The "Greater Volga" project is a tremendous undertaking of socialist construction; and its realization will solve many problems of navigation, electric power and land improvement.

The Soviet people have already done an enormous amount of work toward the complete realization of this plan. They have built the Moscow-Volga Canal, 79 and one-half miles long—and Moscow has become a port of three seas. On the upper reaches of the Volga three hydroelectric stations have been built and the dams have improved navigation on the upper Volga. The gathering of the spring floodwater in reservoirs near Shcherbakov has made possible the regulation of the water on the Volga down to the mouth of the Kama River. And during the Second World War, the hydroelectric stations on the Volga were able to supply electric power to the defense industries.

With the end of the recent war the question arose of the construction of the next hydroelectric development on the Volga—the Gorky power plant.

Work on the construction of this power plant, one of the greatest undertakings under the postwar Five-Year Plan, has already begun near the ancient Russian city of Gorodets, a short distance above Gorky. Eight miles of dam construction will create a water level 56 feet high and will improve navigation on the river. This hydroelectric station will supply power to the Moscow, Gorky, Ivanovo, Yaroslavl and Kostroma Regions.



ON MOSCOW-VOLGA CANAL. Real art work goes into the design of Soviet structures of the most utilitarian purposes. This photo shows locks and pumping station on the Moscow-Volga canal.

The Gorky hydroelectric station, however, is but one stage in the realization of the grand "Greater Volga" project. Work of even greater scope lies ahead.

A powerful hydroelectric station will also be erected between Kazan and Cheboksary. The next step is the Kuibyshev power development. Further south will be the Kamyshin power plant. On the Kama, construction of hydroelectric stations is projected at Solikamsk, Vodkin, Lower Kama. A powerful hydroelectric station of original design is already being built in Molotov, on the Kama. The Kama power plants will supply electric current to the entire Urals area.

A hydroelectric station is also being built on the Oka, in the vicinity of Kaluga. This station will enlarge the power supply of the central industrial area of the European part of the USSR, and will make it possible to link the Volga with the Dnieper, through the Oka and Desna Rivers.

The capacity of all these power plants will amount to approximately 10 or 12 million kilowatts. The annual electric-power output of these plants will reach 55,000,000,000 kilowatt-hours, and will considerably top the prewar electric-power output of Great Britain or that of France and Italy combined. This electric power will equal the work of 250 million men. It will be enough to supply electric current to a thousand cities the size of Gorky. Such is the grand scale of this project. Its realization will make it possible to electrify industry, railways, and agriculture and maintain the water level of the Caspian Sea. The spring floodwaters will be utilized in such a manner that the Volga will have an abundance of water also in the summer and fall.

The dams on the Volga, Kama and Oka will transform the Volga into a chain of immense lake-reservoirs of great depth. These will retain the spring floodwaters and release them in the low-water season.

With the construction of the Volga-Don and the Kuma-Manych Canals, and the linking of the Volga with a number of rivers—with the Pechora and Vychegda through the Kama; with the Ob River through the Chusovaya and Iset Rivers, and with the Dnieper through the Oka and Desna Rivers, the great Russian river will become a vast water-transport artery connected with all the seas that wash the European part of the Soviet Union.

RIVER TRAFFIC. Both excursion and freight boats ply the Moscow-Volga canal. This scene shows one of the locks.

These projects offer tremendous advantages. Much cargo now being carried by rail will be carried by water transport. This will greatly relieve the railways and will reduce the cost of transportation. The output of the Urals enterprises—the lumber and coal from the Pechora area—will receive a cheap outlet to the south and the west. As a consequence of this great artery, new industrial centers will be born.

The land-improvement program is no less stupendous in compass. The territory along the middle and lower reaches of the Volga is often subject to droughts because of the proximity of the Kizil-Kum and Kara-Kum deserts. From these deserts dry winds sweep the scorching fine sands that doom vegetation.

The "Greater Volga" project envisages a gigantic offensive against the desert, and the irrigation of tens of millions of acres of land.

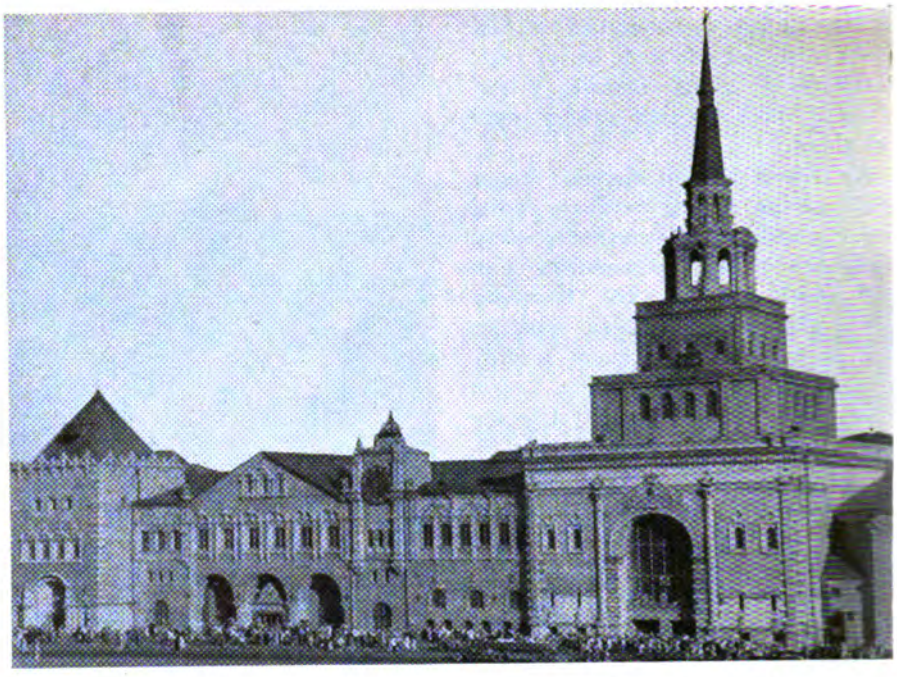
We can already visualize vast reservoirs from which water will flow through a complex network of canals —where the terrain permits, by its own force; in other areas, pumped by powerful electric pumps. In some regions this water will take the form of artificial rain. And the irrigated soil will yield bumper crops.

This will truly be a rejuvenated land.

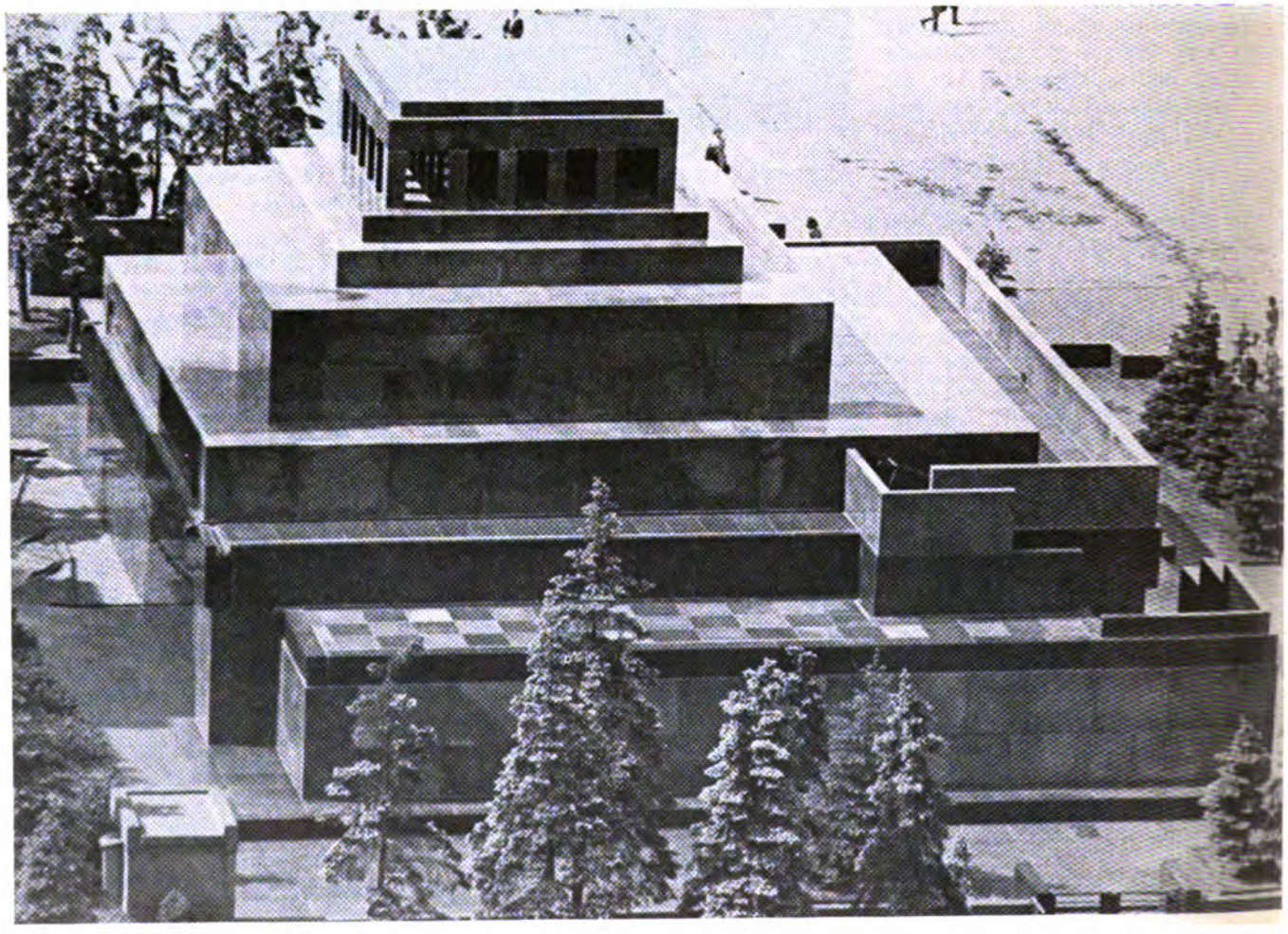
This is the "Greater Volga" project.

This magnificent undertaking will solve a problem the like of which has never been solved anywhere else in the world. And indeed, it is a problem which successfully defies solution—except in the land of socialism, where all natural and man-made wealth are exploited for the use—not of a handful of wealthy men—but for the broadest masses of the common people.

TASHKENT THEATER. Among Shchusev's many prize works is this edifice in Uzbekistan.



KAZAN STATION. This beautiful Moscow railway depot is also the work of Shchusev.



TOMB OF LENIN. The Lenin Mausoleum in Moscow's Red Square was designed by Shchusev. At the right, center, may be seen the gallery from which Soviet Government officials review parades.

Designer of Lenin's Tomb

Russia's Great Architect, Shchusev, Honored on Anniversary

Nikolai Kolli

THE seventy-fifth anniversary of the birth of the great Russian architect, Alexei Shchusev, was celebrated October 8 by the Soviet people, who have the happy faculty of giving honor to genius while it is still alive.

Shchusev is perhaps the leading Soviet architect. He is the designer of Lenin's Mausoleum in Moscow's Red Square and holder of the Order of Lenin and two Orders of the Red Banner of Labor. He also has been awarded three Stalin Prizes for his accomplishments in his chosen field.

Shchusev was born in 1873 at Kishinev. His fondness for drawing appeared at an early age and after his matriculation examinations, he entered the architectural department of the Higher Art School at the Academy of Arts in St. Petersburg (Leningrad).

While a student, he painted and drew under the guidance of the noted Russian painters Ilya Repin and A. Kuindji. He studied architecture under Academicians G. Kotov and L. Benoit.

In 1897 Shchusev completed his studies with the degree of architect-artist. For a period he engaged in the study and restoration of old buildings and was made a member of the Academy of Architecture for his restoration of the church in the town of Ovruch. In 1912 he was commissioned to design the Kazan Railway Station in Moscow. The capital city was the center of his creative work for several years.

The Kazan Station is an ensemble of buildings and towers united in a single architectural conception. A large part of it was completed after the October Revolution.

Although Shchusev's style had been formed by the time of the Revolution, conditions that afforded real scope for the unfolding of his gifts were actually created by the Soviet socialist system.

His best work is the Lenin Mausoleum. As an example of artistic imagery and architectural composition, it embodies the features of a remarkable work of socialist art. The architect has attained in this work a high pitch of feeling with its classic simplicity and expressiveness.

AT ACADEMY OF ARCHITECTURE. Left to right are Nikolai Kolli and Alexei Shchusev, members of the Academy of Architecture and Arkadi Mordvinov, chairman of the federal committee on Architecture.

The Soviet Government demonstrated its appreciation of Academician Shchusev's services and in 1931 conferred upon him the title of Honored Architect of the USSR—which he alone holds. The Stalin Prize was awarded him in 1946 for his interior design for the Mausoleum.

One of the new ideas Shchusev brought to his work was the designing of whole new towns and the reconstruction of old ones. His town-building principle is a typical and distinctive feature of Soviet architecture. Each building, whether it be residential, communal or public, is treated as the organic part of a city block, street, square and, of course, of the whole city.

Shchusev, who took part in the replanning of Moscow beginning in 1918, has taken an active part since then in the reconstruction of towns throughout the country. The Moskvoretsky Bridge, constructed from his designs in the period from 1934 to 1937, is one of the capital's most beautiful spans.

In 1943 Shchusev designed the new Istra, a town in the Moscow Region burned down and razed during the war. In 1944 he submitted his suggestions for the restoration of Minsk, capital of Byelorussia, and also of ruined Stalingrad. Later he was entrusted with the replanning of the ancient Russian city of Novgorod and designed the reconstruction of the famous Kreshchatik, main thoroughfare of Kiev. Another important job was his design for the reconstruction of Kishinev, capital of the Soviet Moldavian Republic.

The list of Academician Shchusev's accomplishments is too long to recite here. He has been awarded three Stalin Prizes for his work. At present he is engaged on the huge ensemble of buildings of the USSR Academy of Sciences in Moscow, and the Kazakh Academy of Sciences in Alma-Ata. A man of great erudition, he has written more than 170 books on vital questions of architecture. In 1943 he was elected to the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

Shchusev has recently been elected as a member of the Moscow Soviet of People's Deputies—a tribute to a great man by the people of the city he has helped to beautify.

Soviet Branched Wheat Promises To Multiply Grain Yield

From an Article by A. Gradov
Agronomist

WHEAT that promises harvests five times as rich as standard varieties is being grown in the fields of a Soviet experimental station near Moscow.

As one might expect, Trofim Lysenko is playing a leading role in this work on the fields of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences, of which he is president.

"The wheat of the past and the future" is what Lysenko calls this type. It is a branched wheat which has large heads containing an average of 150 to 200 grains and sometimes as many as 250 grains. The ear of ordinary, single-headed wheat contains only 30 to 40.

Lysenko calls it the "wheat of the past and the future" because it was known at the very beginning of agriculture, but was never widely adopted and at one time was even forgotten; and because its successful cultivation requires modern agronomic methods.

Environment sharply influences the hereditary properties of this wheat. It has an odd characteristic of returning to ordinary unbranched types with a sharply reduced yield if planted in soil of poor fertility or in soil with certain admixtures, or if sown in dense rows. Branched wheat is scarcely ever found in large-scale operations, but at the experimental station near Moscow it is being grown in highly fertile soil and is displaying all of its valuable qualities.

In addition to its highly productive ears, branched wheat has a very firm stalk. It is hoped that branched wheat may yield a crop of about ten metric tons per hectare.*

The work being carried on at the experimental station of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences, which is headed by Lysenko, is based on the control of the development of plants. It is in this field that Lysenko won international fame for his work developing vegetables and wheat to grow in the Soviet Arctic.

This is the basic idea of the advanced Soviet science of agrobiology, whose

Trofim Lysenko

banner bears the words of the great Russian biologist, I. V. Michurin: "We cannot wait for nature's favors; we must wrest them from her."

This Michurin slogan is being put into effect on an ever-widening scale by the work of Soviet scientists—biologists, agronomists and selectors. If Darwin explained evolution by proving, through his theory of selection, the purposefulness of nature, Soviet Darwinist-Michurinites have learned to understand the causes of the variation of organisms, and are boldly implementing the evolution of vegetable and animal forms by changing nature itself.

Lysenko explains it this way: "From a science which chiefly explains the past history of the organic world, Darwinism—from the point of view of practical work—is becoming a creative, efficient means for the planned guidance of living nature."

One of the reasons wheat has not been as productive as other cereals is the tendency of its stalks to lodge (fall in the field). Rice and millet sometimes give yields of 10 tons per hectare because these crops do not exhibit this tendency.

In the cultivation of branched wheat, the Michurinites believe they can attain this high level of wheat production. When the plan commenced, they had 66.13 pounds of grain in the spring of last year, while in the autumn they had 1.6 tons, which will make it possible to sow 12 hectares to branched wheat next spring.

By applying the methods of accelerated propagation of seeds, the Michurinites succeeded during 18 months in making each grain of branched wheat yield more than three million grains. The history of seed cultivation has never known such a high coefficient of wheat propagation.

Workers in the experimental station near Moscow are persistently and successfully elaborating the scientifically-based agrotechnique of branched wheat. But this is only one side of the matter, although a very important one. Certain shortcomings of branched wheat must be overcome.

Branched wheat is a hard summer wheat. To create a winter variety of this most valuable crop means to utilize still more of its remarkable properties, to increase its crop yield still further. With this aim of increasing its productivity, branched wheat is being crossed with numerous frost-resisting varieties of winter wheat. From this year's crop the experimental station will obtain more than 440 pounds of hybrid seeds from the first generation. All the hybrid plants grown at the station at Gorki Leninskie proved fertile. Many hybrid bushes yielded up to 1,500 grains. Here again, the efficiency of Michurin's teachings made themselves felt—teachings on the basis of which this interspecies-crossing of the hard-branched and the soft winter wheat was carried out. The hybrid stock, accumulated in a very short time, provides a real basis for the cultivation of a variety of winter wheat with a branched ear—an absolutely new, hitherto unknown, vegetable form.

In 1949 experimental-productive plots of branched wheat will be sown on four hundred hectares in the fields of 18 collective farms and a number of state farms of Moscow Region.

* One metric ton = 2204.62 pounds.
* One hectare = 2.471 acres.

CHILDREN'S SANATORIUM. A couple of youngsters savor breakfast at the Malakhovka Sanatorium near Moscow. No country in the world prizes its children as does the Soviet Union. Every effort is made to ensure that they will grow to healthy adulthood.

Free Care of Mothers and Children Is Big Item in USSR Budget

By. A. Lurie

In the Soviet Union, where the genuine emancipation of women has taken place, a state system of safeguarding maternity and infancy has been instituted for the first time in the world, a system in which the most modern methods and techniques are used. In a work of such immense importance as this, the Soviet State has taken as its starting point the basic principles of the policy of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and of the Soviet Government, a policy which from the first days of the Great October Revolution gave men and women equality in legislation. In 1919 Lenin wrote that the Bolsheviks had not left one stone standing upon another in regard to those despicable tsarist laws which decreed the inequality of women, an inequality which survives in all but a very few countries. We have the right, a thousand times over, to be proud of what we have accomplished in this field. For only the Soviet system guarantees to every mother the most favorable conditions for childbearing and the raising of children.

A cohesive network of state institutions for children has been constructed throughout the Soviet Union, as a result of which women can bear and rear their children without suffering loss of health, capacity for work or usefulness to the society in which they live.

The consultation centers are among the most remarkable of these institutions. They are intended for the all-around care of children's health from birth to the age of three. Throughout this period these institutions ensure the necessary conditions for normal healthy development of the children.

Care for the future Soviet citizen begins long before his birth. The specialists at the consultation centers keep the health of the expectant mother under observation throughout her pregnancy. If the specialist finds the work in which an employed woman is engaged is too heavy, the expectant mother is transferred to lighter work, without losing any privilege or any part of the wages received in her usual work. Thirty-five days previous to the birth of her child she is given leave of absence with full pay. This leave lasts until 42 days after the child's birth and, in cases of difficult pregnancy and birth, is extended. The mother is paid from the state social insurance fund; she also receives, from the same source, a special allowance for the child's layette and extra food.

Some time before the baby is born a visiting nurse is sent from the local consultation center to the expectant mother's home. This nurse talks to the parents, explains how to create the most hygienic conditions and gives other practical advice.

The consultation center receives daily information about the number of births on the previous day. On the first day that the mother returns home from the hospital with her child, the local consultation center doctor and nurse visit them. For many inexperienced mothers this is the hardest day of all. The nurse helps the mother to look after the child and shows her the normal routine for feeding. If the infant has been born slightly prematurely or is not robust, the doctor keeps him under special observation. At the most critical times —when the working mother is about to return to her job, when the feeding routine is changed, and when the infant is weaned—the nurse visits the mother more frequently.

Systematic examination of babies is carried on by specialists at the consultation centers, where they are weighed, vaccinated, inoculated for prevention of diphtheria, and given anti-dysentery treatments.

The child-welfare consultation center is a place where the mother receives literally everything the newborn infant requires: qualified medical aid, care, medicine, vaccination, etc.

At each of these centers there is a dairy-kitchen where fresh milk foods, special milk preparations for children, cream, curds, rice-and-milk liquids, vitamin jellies and so on, are to be obtained every day. The State has allotted considerable sums for this purpose, so that women whose wages are not high may receive the necessary food free of charge. It is also supplied free to mothers of large families and to unmarried mothers.

In 1936, the state expenditure on maternity homes, nurseries, dairy-kitchens, kindergartens, etc., was 2,174,000,000 rubles. As a result of the general improvement in the standard of well-being of the Soviet people and of the state aid to mothers and infants, child mortality has dropped to half of what it was in 1913, the last peacetime year before the Revolution.

Substantial material assistance to mothers is provided by the decisions of the Soviet Government. On the birth of the third child, an allowance of two hundred rubles is granted. On the birth of the fourth child the mother receives, besides her allowance at the time of birth of 650 rubles, a monthly allowance for the child's upbringing during the first five years. On the birth of more children the allowance is increased. Unmarried mothers receive monthly allowances during the child's first 12 years. From year to year, state aid to mothers steadily increases. In 1945, a sum of 2,104,000,000 rubles was paid in state allowances to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers. In 1946 this sum was almost doubled — 4,072,000,000 rubles. The trade unions are of great assistance, too. By a special decision the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions has obliged the administrations of the enterprises, offices, etc., where mothers of large families, or unmarried mothers, are employed, to give them assistance out of their own funds. If conditions do not permit the unmarried mother to bring up her child at home then she may, if she wishes, put him in one of the special homes for babies, where her child will be reared in excellent health and hygienic conditions, have the best of care and the attention of a qualified staff. She may visit her child when she wishes, and may remove him from the home if it becomes possible to care for him at home.

Number One Babies' Home in Moscow is a model institution of this type. The personnnel have transformed it into a real home. The rooms are lofty, airy and sunny, the food is first-rate. In the summer the children are taken to a house in the country.

During the course of the past six years the number of children's and women's consultation centers increased from 5,800 (in 1941), to 7,700 (by the beginning of 1947).

The Soviet State is expending increasingly larger sums every year on the improvement of aid to mothers and children. A sum of more than 4,255,000,000 rubles—24.4 per cent of the entire budget for Soviet public health measures—was expended in 1947. A sum of nearly 5,000,000,000 rubles was allocated for the maintenance of children's institutions in 1948.

The current Five-Year Plan provides for the further extension of the system of children's and mothers' consultation centers, children's hospitals and dairy-kitchens.

The outcome of these measures is that the time is fast approaching when child mortality in the USSR will be negligible. This is not a utopian dream to be realized in the distant future, but a perfectly practical prospect which is possible in the country of socialism.

NURSERY. A baby gets a medical exam in a creche in Ufa, capital of the Bashkir Republic. Soviet day-nurseries care for eight hundred thousand children from the ages of one to three.

PHYSIOTHERAPY. A physiotherapist treats Stalinugol miners. In the Soviet Union, all medical treatment—from simple first aid to the most complicated surgical operation—is free of charge.

Health Program in USSR Open to Everybody

By G. Leonidov

HEALTH education in the USSR and steps taken by the Soviet Union to fight disease during the past 30 years were graphically demonstrated in a recent exhibition at the Central Institute of Health Education in Moscow.

In the Soviet Union—where all medical care of every type is free of charge, where all medical institutions are maintained by the State—the object of the health-protection system is not only the cure, but the prevention of disease. With this in view, the Soviet land is seeking to create healthful disease-preventing living-and-working conditions for everyone. This is the goal of Soviet medicine, which, formulated by V. I. Lenin, became an integral part of the program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

"The Communist Party of the Soviet Union bases its work in the field of public health-protection primarily on the execution of extensive measures in healthbuilding and hygiene, aimed at preventing the spread of disease," the Party program declares.

The two thousand exhibits on display in Moscow at the Central Institute of Health Education graphically demonstrate what "disease-prevention" means in the Soviet Union. Backed by Soviet law, it means healthful working conditions, a broad, ramified network of medical-hygiene and antiepidemic institutions, the total clearance of the last remnants of tsarist slums and the expansion of new housing, and the organization of public restaurants, factory restaurants, "babyfood kitchens" in pediatric clinics, etc., on a wide scale.

On one of the stands at the exhibition is a photostatic copy of a 1912 issue of *Pravda* which carries a report on a strike in the ordnance shops of the former Putilov Works in St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) caused by inadequate provisions for sanitation and hygiene. "These shops," *Pravda* said, "manufactured tuberculosis germs as well as guns." Another stand at the exhibition shows how different the conditions are today at the same works, now named after S. M. Kirov (a Soviet statesman who was assassinated by a Trotskyite in 1934). The works now has a large polyclinic, dozens of dispensaries and health centers in the shops, an overnight sanatorium, and a system of day-to-day public sanitary inspection. The workers live in modern apartment houses instead of the hovels and barracks in which they lived in tsarist times.

The exhibition shows how the prevention and the treatment of disease constitute two inseparable aspects of the health drive in our country. Institutions specializing in each of these two aspects work hand-in-hand to prevent disease. Extensive dispensary facilities; early diagnosis of tuberculosis and other social diseases; all-round medical supervision over the conditions of public health; and wholesale inoculations are some of the basic elements of the State's concern for the health of the Soviet people.

All this has proved possible only under the conditions of Soviet society. Under capitalism, disease-prevention is limited in scope and divorced from medical treatment. Those public disease-prevention institutions that exist in capitalist nations function on an insignificant scale.

In Britain, for instance, even the feeble moves made in recent years toward extending public medical services, have encountered the furious resistance of private medical practitioners. Even before the so-called National Health Service Act was passed earlier this year, they established a "strike fund" to conduct a campaign against the law.

Tsarist Russia was swept by fearful epidemics and the young Soviet health services had to wage a stubborn battle to stamp out this evil legacy. The results are gratifying: such diseases as cholera, smallpox and the bubonic plague have been completely stamped out; and all the other contagious ailments, including scarlet fever, diphtheria and dysentery have been reduced to isolated cases. The efficacy of Soviet disease-prevention measures was demonstrated with particular clarity during the Second World War, when the movement of large numbers of people from one section of the country to another created every condition for the spread of epidemics. In spite of the unfavorable situation, the Soviet Union did not suffer a single epidemic.

In its battle against epidemics, the Soviet Union makes use of all the

latest scientific and technical discoveries. Inoculation against contagious diseases is practiced on a wide scale—particularly inoculation against typhus, dysentery and diphtheria. In addition to compulsory vaccination against smallpox, some one hundred million inoculations against other contagious diseases are made annually, free of charge.

How important state disease-prevention measures are, and how detrimental their absence is to public health, may be judged from the facts cited by the British journal *Public Health* in its Number 8 issue, 1947. In an article dealing with the protection of school children's health, the publication stated that 30 per cent of all the young people from 18 to 37 who received medical examinations in the United States as a preliminary to induction into the American Army during the Second World War proved unfit because of physical or mental defects. The journal observed that most of these defects were of a kind that could have been detected and cured when these young people were still attending school. The author goes on to say that half of all school-age children in the United States never receive a medical examination, nor any of the routine disease-prevention treatment which in the Soviet Union is taken for granted.

The Soviet health services attach great importance to health education and the organization of disease-prevention by the masses of the people themselves. Every year tens of millions of rubles are spent on health education, and some five hundred diverse institutions, specializing in that field and headed by a central federal research institute, have been opened. This state-maintained system of health education is the only one of its kind in the world.

The exhibits on display show the great diversity of the forms and methods of health education in the USSR, which range from lectures and posters to a special Health-Education Theater.

With the rise of the cultural level of the population, especially in the non-Russian areas, printed literature on hygiene and sanitation has acquired increasing importance. During the past 30 years tens of millions of copies of books and other materials in this field have been published.

Demonstrations and displays occupy an important place in Soviet health-education work. These are arranged at medical institutions, workers' clubs, collective farm clubs, reading rooms and dormitories.

This has helped to draw the public into active participation in the work. Besides the large number of state sanitary inspectors who supervise hygiene and sanitation at factories, apartment houses and in residential districts, there are an enormous number of volunteer workers who assist the former in their spare time. These public inspectors are nominated by the workers of factories and offices and the members of collective farms. Moreover, millions of adults and children are given instruction in first aid, and also play a large part in carrying out the disease-prevention measures sponsored by the state health authorities.

Health education in the USSR radically differs from health education in many countries, where—conducted in the main by charity organizations—it consists largely of ineffectual well-wishing. Health propaganda abroad is frequently conducted by large monopoly firms manufacturing patent medicines and articles of hygiene and interested solely in increasing their profits. Occasionally this health propaganda amounts to nothing more than advertising by private medical concerns.

The last section of the present exhibition traces the achievements scored during the past 30 years in public health in the USSR. The death rate has dropped sharply, and child mortality is a mere fraction of what it was before the October Revolution.

The exhibition affords a vivid picture of how the Soviet State has, since its inception, devoted every attention to protecting the nation's health. For this is a task which, as recorded in Article 120 of the Constitution, is the responsibility of the State.

This section reads: "Citizens of the USSR have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability.

"This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of factory and office workers at state expense, free medical service for the working people, and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people."

AIR AMBULANCE. Soviet air-ambulance service is well-developed. In urgent cases, doctors fly for consultation or to perform an operation to the remotest parts of the land. Patients also are often transported by air.

Ballot Tallying Ends Big Drive To Get Out Soviet Votes

By V. Barykin

The following article is the second of a series dealing with the manner in which Soviet legislators (deputies to the village, town, city, regional and republican Soviets and the Supreme Soviet of the USSR) are elected. The first article, which appeared in the November 3 issue of the USSR Information Bulletin, dealt with the nomination of candidates; the second of the series deals with campaigning and the elections themselves.

In the Soviet Union, the common man is the sole source of electoral power.

The Soviet people exercise absolute —and not merely nominal—control over every phase of the election of their legislative representatives — from the choosing of election commissions (which provide overall administration of the elections), through the nomination of candidates, the campaigning for candidates, to the actual counting of the ballots.

Let us consider, for example, the institution of campaigning for candidates.

Article 90 of the election regulations of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic reads:

"Each organization which has nominated a candidate who is registered with the respective area election commission, as well as every citizen of the RSFSR, is ensured the right of unlimited campaigning for this candidate at meetings, in the press and by other means, in accordance with Article 129 of the Constitution of the RSFSR."

All of the other Soviet republics have similar laws.

Campaigning is conducted through the press, radio and at meetings. Campaigners for the candidates talk to the voters and tell them about the lives and the activities of the candidates. The candidate meets his voters at meetings and addresses them. At such get-togethers, the voters voice their wishes and demands; and by election day all the voters of an election area are familiar with the past record of their candidate.

FAMILY VOTES. Here the Kuprianov family puts its ballots into the sealed boxes.

The election regulations stipulate that a voter who for any reason does not wish to speak at a public meeting against a candidate may submit a written statement with his objections to the respective election commission.

Elections are held on a nonworking day, from six A.M. until midnight. The precinct election commissions must publicize the coming election daily for 15 days prior to election day, notifying the voters of the exact day on which elections will take place, and of the places where voters can cast ballots. For this purpose the press, radio, leaflets and posters are used.

The voting is secret and every polling station has specially-outfitted booths in which the elector can mark his ballot. When a voter is in a booth no one is allowed to enter it.

Every voter votes personally by casting his ballot into a ballot box.

Should a voter, because of a physical defect, be unable to mark the ballot personally, he has the right to invite any other voter into the booth to help him fill out the ballot.

No campaigning for candidates is permitted in the polling places on election day.

The precinct election commission is responsible for the maintenance of order at the polling station and its orders must be carried out by everyone present.

At midnight the chairman of the precinct election commission announces that voting has been completed and the commission proceeds to open the sealed ballot boxes. The election regulations stipulate that the counting must be witnessed by specially authorized representatives of public organizations, societies of the working people, and representatives of the press as well as members of the precinct election commission.

The chairman of the election commission announces the vote for every ballot. Nonregulation ballots and ballots with the name of more than one candidate remaining on them are declared null and void. In case there is doubt as to the validity of a ballot, the election precinct commission takes a vote on the matter among themselves, and files an affidavit recording their disposition of the ballot.

After tallying the vote, the precinct election commission prepares minutes which contain the time when the polling began and ended, the total number of voters included in the lists, the number of voters who received ballots, the number of voters who took part in the polling, the number of ballots

declared invalid, the number of ballots on which the names of the candidates were crossed out, the number of votes cast for each candidate, a brief description of all statements and complaints filed with the precinct election commission and the decisions taken on these by the commission.

All minutes of the precinct election commissions are sent to the area election commissions, which, on the basis of these minutes, tally the total vote and record the results of the polling in their area.

After the votes are tallied and the minutes signed, the chairman of the area election commission announces the election returns. In order to be elected, a candidate has to receive an absolute majority of the votes cast, i.e., more than half of all the votes cast in that electoral area.

All questions that may arise in the election commissions are settled by democratic procedure—by majority vote.

The results of the elections are made public by the city election commission in the local press. For example, the results of the elections in Moscow were carried in the press on December 23, two days after elections. A total of 99.99 per cent of all registered voters went to the polls to elect deputies to the Moscow City Soviet. In the 1,392 electoral areas of the Soviet capital the candidates of the bloc of the Communists and non-Party people polled 99.36 per cent of all ballots cast.

Only 117 ballots were declared invalid. After examining the returns for each electoral area, the Moscow City Election Commission registered the election of deputies in all the 1,392 election areas.

In Leningrad, 99.93 per cent of all voters took part in the elections; in no country in the world does such a high percentage of the electorate vote.

The candidates of the bloc of Communists and non-Party people received 99.17 per cent of all the votes cast.

WHAT is the composition of the Moscow Soviet?

The Moscow deputies include 727 workers, 400 of whom work directly at the bench; 648 deputies are office employees and professionals; 812 are members of the Communist Party and 580 are non-Party people. Women deputies number 503. Among the deputies are 26 Academicians, 38 professors, 13 architects, 54 teachers, 41 physicians, 28 workers in the arts, 8 writers and poets, 178 leading executives of all-Union and republican state institutions, 176 leading members of public organizations, 133 industrial executives, etc. Among the deputies to the Moscow Soviet are 1,323 Russians, 26 Ukrainians, 9 Byelorussians, 10 Armenians, 19 Jews. And it is significant that 999, or 72 per cent, were elected for the first time. This is typical of Soviet life. For the legislators who serve the Soviet people are not professional politicians whose sole ambition is to "get elected" time after time, and who rarely return to make contact with their electorate—and then only for the purpose of "mending fences." Soviet legislators are the very flesh of their people—and the aspirations, the demands of the electorate are also the demands of their deputies.

Soviet legislators are not only close to the people because of their socialist background and training, but because they are working people and are thoroughly sensitive to the people's needs.

All of these elected officials are duty bound to report to their people and are subject to recall at any time upon decision of a majority of the electors in the manner set by law.

Of the deputies to the Leningrad Soviet, 668 are men and 359 are women; 634 are members of the Communist Party and 393 are non-Party people. The deputies include 362 workers, 70 heads of educational establishments and scientific institutions, 43 engineers, designers and architects, 36 physicians, 40 teachers, 10 judges and members of the judiciary, 14 workers in art, 3 housewives. Twelve nationalities are represented in Leningrad's Soviet: 940 Russians; 24 Ukrainians; 10 Byelorussians; 4 Georgians; 5 Armenians; 28 Jews; 3 Poles; as well as Letts, Ossetians, Tatars, etc.

The first sessions of the Moscow and Leningrad city Soviets, which were held approximately one month after the elections, heard the reports of credentials commissions. These commissions established the fact that the elections were conducted in full conformity with the Constitution of the RSFSR and the regulations governing elections to local Soviets.

The 1,392 deputies to the Moscow Soviet and the 1,027 deputies to the Leningrad Soviet are recognized as the genuine representatives of their millions of voters, as the real "city fathers" of the greatest of the Soviet cities.

COUNTING BEGINS. The election commission begins tallying ballots in a Moscow precinct.

CO-OPERATIVE SCHOOL. This class in embroidery is part of an arts-and-crafts school in Moscow sponsored by a producers' co-operative. In the Soviet Union, the producers', artisans' and consumers' co-operatives play an important part in economic life.

Small Artisans Thrive Alongside Giant Soviet Industry

By Ivan Degtyarev

Chairman of the Leningrad Metalworking Industrial Co-operative

You might call Soviet industry the biggest industrial concern in the world, but it nevertheless presents no threat to the interests of the small handicraftsmen. On the contrary, the Soviet State displays the greatest solicitude for the artisan.

According to the laws of our country, private handicraftsmen may pursue their occupations on their own, provided they do not exploit hired labor. That is why in any Soviet town you can see the signs of tailors, shoemakers or watchmakers who work alone or with the assistance of members of their families. More frequent, however, are producers' co-operatives —because the overwhelming majority of handicraftsmen in our country have become aware of the advantages of joint endeavor.

The Soviet State has always rendered great assistance to these co-operatives, providing them with premises and supplying them, frequently on credit, with the necessary equipment, raw materials and fuel. The co-operatives fill orders for state industry, and turn out a wide range of consumer goods. They also play an important role in providing diverse public services.

It appears that the view is quite common abroad that there is no difference between a collective farmer or a handicraftsman who belongs to a co-operative, on the one hand, and the worker employed at a state enterprise, on the other hand. This is true only insofar as we all work not only for ourselves but for the entire Soviet people. Nevertheless, a handicrafts co-operative is by no means a state enterprise, although the State does give it general guidance in its production activities. The plant, production and funds of a co-operative are its own property, that is, the property of the members of the co-operative, who cannot be deprived of it. The members of a co-operative manage its affairs through a board which they elect by secret ballot. The board, in its turn, is responsible to the membership and duty bound to report to the general meeting, which exercises supreme authority within the co-operative. The Soviet industrial co-operative bears no resemblance whatsoever to the capitalist joint-stock company. It is true that each member pays for his share (the size of which is determined by his earnings) in easy installments, and in the event he wishes to leave the co-operative he may withdraw his share. Nevertheless, each co-operative mem-

ber has only one vote irrespective of the value of his share, and—what is most important—he must himself work for the co-operative.

I am an old metalworker who has been a member of industrial co-operatives ever since they first appeared. If you should want to know the main benefit I have derived from this association, I would tell you it is the fact the co-operative has freed the handicraftsman from all fear of the "rainy day," giving him the economic security which distinguishes the Soviet workingman from the workingman under capitalism.

It goes without saying that all co-operatives do not make an equally good showing; but there never has been a case of one of them going bankrupt. This is because of the absence of cut-throat competition in our country, the support given us by the socialist State, and the extensive mutual aid practiced by the co-operatives themselves. All co-operatives belong to producers' unions headed by boards elected by the membership. The output of all the co-operatives belonging to a given union of producers' co-operatives is sold on an equal footing in all the stores and stalls belonging to the union.

The Trade and Co-operative Bank grants credits on highly favorable terms, depending on the financial condition of each co-operative. Our co-operative received a loan of 3,350,000 rubles payable in 10 years, at one per cent interest. We are now building a spacious new building and have bought a great deal of new equipment with this money. The loan will enable us to increase our output by approximately 40 per cent, launch the production of bicycle and outboard motors, and greatly improve the working conditions of our members.

Since the affairs of our co-operative are in good shape, I expect that we will be able to get another loan of about one million rubles on the same terms next year for housing construction. Neither I nor any of our members need worry about not being able to pay back these loans—the planned economy of the Soviet land, the constant influx of orders from the State and the rising buying power of the Soviet people ensure a steady market for all our goods.

The stability of our financial condition is in large measure the result of the day-to-day effort contributed by each member toward increasing the productivity of labor and cutting the cost of production. For instance, one of our members, the worker Mikhail Lesin, considerably simplified the design of the saw frames which we produce for state industry. This improvement effected a sizable economy for our co-operatives and other co-operatives, and netted Lesin a premium of seven thousand rubles. Along with other leading production people, Lesin was elected to the board of the co-operative. Lesin's election is an indication of the close attention devoted by members of the co-operative to production. The same can be said of the recent recall of another board member, Novoselov, whom the members removed from office because he neglected the work of the co-operative for the sake of his private interests.

Another reason for the good condition of our finances may be found in the postwar measures of the Government, which extended a great number of privileges to the producers' and consumers' co-operatives at the end of 1946—in particular cutting the profit tax to a fraction of what it was during the war.

The net profit remaining after the payment of wages and taxes, payments on loans, expenditures on construction and deductions for the social insurance and cultural funds is distributed at the discretion of the general meeting. Last year 40 per cent of the net profits were used to augment the co-operative's working capital; 20 per cent went for bonuses to the best workers and for various measures to improve the living standard of the members, and the remaining 40 per cent was divided among the membership.

The latter 40 per cent could be called a sort of dividend—a dividend not on capital, but on the labor invested. Last year this "dividend" amounted to 11 kopecks for each ruble earned; hence, the better a co-operative member works, the greater his "dividend." This year we expect to make twice as much profit, which means that we will have more funds to spend on improving living conditions and to divide among the members.

In the Soviet Union, social insurance covers not only workers and other employees of state enterprises and institutions, but also all handicraftsmen united in co-operatives. The producers' co-operatives have their own insurance funds, financed by payments made by the various co-operatives. These payments amount to more than 10 percent of the wage fund. The insurance benefits are paid out in case of illness and for maternity leaves on the same basis as to the workers and other employees of state organizations. Vacations are paid by the co-operatives on the same basis as in state institutions, the minimum annual leave being 12 working days.

Producers' co-operatives have a ramified network of medical institutions; here members and their families are given free medical aid. Producers' co-operatives also have their own sanatoriums, rest homes and children's summer camps. Like people employed at state institutions and enterprises, co-operative members are provided accommodations at these health centers free of charge or at low cost, the difference being covered by insurance funds or by the special fund set aside by the co-operatives for the improvment of living conditions.

Proposal on Japan

(Continued from page 701)

of the Far Eastern Commission to express their opinions as to the two proposals submitted by the Soviet delegation on September 23.

As is known, the Soviet delegation proposed that

1. No limitations should be imposed upon the restoration and development of peaceful Japanese industry which seeks to satisfy the needs of the Japanese population, nor upon the development of export in accordance with the needs of Japan's peaceful economy.

2. The revival and creation of Japanese war industry should be prohibited and there should be established, for a period of several years, a control over the fulfillment of this decision, to be exercised by the Powers most interested in preventing a new Japanese aggression.

These proposals were included in the draft policy decision of the Far Eastern Commission, which was submitted by the Soviet delegation.

Juvenile Art Exhibition Honors YCL

By Samuel Marshak
Soviet Writer

On October 9, 1948, the Third All-Union Exhibition of Children's Art opened in Moscow. It was organized by the Young Pioneers' Section of the Central Committee of the Young Communist League, in honor of the 30th Anniversary of the founding of the YCL. Artistic works numbering 562 were displayed in the exhibition rooms of the Soviet Artists' Union; these works were done by the children of all the 16 constituent republics of the Soviet Union. The exhibition was a tremendous success and attracted thousands of visitors.

THIS was not the first exhibition of juvenile art to be held in Moscow. Once again we were the guests of the children of our country—young people from Moscow, Leningrad, Byelorussia, the Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Latvia and many other places. In short, children from the whole of the Soviet Union. In substance and content the exhibition far surpassed all those that preceded it. Its able and artistically-responsive organizers made a careful selection of the talented work of juvenile artists —work that spoke in children's own language and with all the spontaneity and warmth and vigor natural to childhood, about the feelings and the experiences of Soviet children.

Here was the work of children who have lived through the most significant events of a great epoch, who have seen much, who have thought deeply. The work that was hung on those walls was not done specifically for exhibition; the artists labored over it with no other purpose than to express their impressions and their feelings. Perhaps that is why the work impressed and moved the spectators so deeply.

All of us—whether we are writers, artists, engineers, workers, or scientists —work not only for the present but for the future. And the exhibition we attended was a window looking into the future. Here we saw many plainly-marked traits, typical of the rising generation, and of our tomorrow.

The art that surrounded us at the exhibition was not on a professional level, nor was it the work of students; it was, above all, the expression of the pastime of talented children. Yet in every piece of work was clearly marked the faculty for seeing life, for perceiving it—not indifferently—but actively and purposefully.

What did this exhibition say to us? Children are always children: joyous, capricious, greedy for impressions. They have a sense of broad scope; they have real boldness. A drawing 12 by 16 inches can actually be a complete picture, a "large canvas." Let us look for a moment at a miniature "large canvas" of this type which depicts the battle of Kulikovo Field. In this work one finds the well-defined traits of two nationalities, the Russians and the Tatars; one finds masses of people and at the same time picturesque separate figures; in this work there is a sense of history and at the same time the outlook of a contemporary who is a Soviet patriot. Take another "large canvas," a drawing of tractors in the field. What a splendid feeling the artist has for ploughland, and for man's toil, fierce and serious. Here is the poetic view of the artist, and the understanding of the importance of the work that people and machines are doing—and the child's natural, attentive interest in technical things, in all the details of the tractor.

Children's talent should not be exaggerated—to do so would violate Soviet principles of rearing children. But one may say with confidence that it would be a good thing if adult artists could retain throughout their lives that freshness of feeling, sincerity, stirring of emotion and honest observation that distinguishes the work of children.

One of the young contributing artists drew a group of children playing. Here we are struck by the concentrated vigilance which enabled the artist to convey all the manifold variety of movements of boys and girls—running, digging in the snow, sitting on the bench.

SCHOOLBOY ART. This landscape was drawn by a 13-year-old Muscovite.

How pure, rich and joyous the colors were in all these pictures, large and small. Children are always children. They are playing while they are making their pictures, and everything plays in the picture itself. At the same time our exhibition demonstrated that Soviet children live the life of the whole country, rejoicing in her victories and successes, clearly understanding her great ideas and the simple tasks of the work of today.

Each of the republics represented at the exhibition found true poetic reflection. And how different they were from each other in color, style and character! This exhibition is a powerful answer to those of our ill-wishers abroad who still say that the Communist method of rearing children levels the individuality of nations and of persons. The exhibition of children's art is a triumphant affirmation of the contrary. We see reflected in these hundreds of children's drawings the rich variety of interests of the generations that are now being educated in the Soviet family and school.

By no means all of these little artists are likely to become highly-successful professional artists. But the hands that labored so lovingly over all those drawings will undoubtedly do much that is fine and remarkable for their country.

A Muscovite's Diary

ALTHOUGH your correspondent has never held serious illusions as to his ability as a pollster, it must be admitted in all honesty that I did expect the new state laws on individual home ownership to start a boom in the building field. And I was correct.

In Kiev, capital of the Soviet Ukraine, for example, construction of houses for personal family use has developed on a wide scale. Workers in Kiev factories, railwaymen, clerks, engineers and physicians are among those now busily engaged in the delightful pastime of watching one's "dream house" go up.

Kiev workers have built 4,500 houses for themselves in the three postwar years. Another three thousand homes are under construction in Kiev and are scheduled for completion by the end of December.

The new state laws assist home builders in every region, granting loans of as much as 20 thousand rubles. These state loans are repayable in installments over a period of 10 to 15 years.

Not only that, but the home-builders get plots of land, ranging in size from small city lots to 1,200 square meters (12,920 square feet) for which they pay an annual rent of from 4 to 18 kopecks* per square meter.

The precise land rent (from 4 to 18 kopecks), is determined by whether the land is city, suburban, or rural.

New Link Built For Subway

Postwar construction is almost universal in the Soviet Union and in Moscow we are now working on the fourth section of our "Metro" or Moscow subway. This section is popularly known as the "Big Belt," because it will encircle the whole city.

Although the "Metro" is utilitarian in purpose, it is also the most beautiful subway in the whole world—as any traveler will tell you. The plans for the new section call for sculptured ornaments to figure most prominently in the decoration of stations.

Interior decorations of the *Kaluzhskaya* station have as their subject the defense of Moscow. Halls and platforms of this station will be adorned with portraits of Heroes of the Soviet Union. Four imposing bas-reliefs on which victorious standards, episodes of battles and guns are depicted, will overlook the vestibule of the station.

One of the largest stations, at the Gorky Central Park of Culture and Rest, will be ornamented with medallions, reflecting the many activities in the city's central park.

* One ruble—one hundred kopecks.

BONE CARVING. This "Reindeer Sleigh" was done by G. Kilin of Tobolsk.

Real Art Found In Bone Carvings

While I'm on the subject of art, I am reminded that I was shown a collection of exquisite bone carvings at the recent All-Union Exhibition of Art Industries in Moscow. These were by Tobolsk craftsmen—northerners who live on the great Siberian rivers, the Ob, Irtysh and Tobol. As far back as the seventeenth century, Tobolsk was an important Siberian center and the carving art started in the mid-nineteenth century. It is due to the large trade in walrus and mammoth ivory there. The market was lost, due to mass-production of pseudoartistic goods elsewhere, but after the Soviet Revolution, the art revived.

Operating through a co-operative organized by the veteran bone carvers, Denisov and Peskov, many craftsmen have produced some beautiful work. Hunting scenes of the north, and miniature sculptures are particularly attractive. One unusual piece is called *Electrification of the Tundra* by V. Sinitskikh. All the figures are expressive and typical. The tiny electricians are depicted as climbing poles with difficulty because of their furs.

Tchaikovsky's Death Recalled

I am fond of music, and on November 6 I was reminded that that date was the fifty-fifth anniversary of the death of Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky.

The history of Russian music knows many renowned names but none perhaps is so well-loved as that of Tchaikovsky. His music invariably appeals to those who value truth of expression, depth and strength of thought in art.

Protective Forests No Novelty

Great interest has been aroused in the huge new program for the development of protective forest belts and the elimination of drought in European Russia. But this work is by no means new in the Soviet Union. Protective belts were planted on a large scale in the Ukraine during the prewar Five-Year-Plan periods. Prior to the outbreak of the Second World War, Ukrainian collective farms planted a protective forest belt of more than 667 thousand acres around their fields, but a considerable part was destroyed by the German invaders.

Jewish Writer's Work Popular

For some time now, I have been a constant reader of the writings of Samuel Galkin, the Soviet Jewish poet and dramatist. Though written in Yiddish, his work has often appeared in Russian translation in many Soviet periodicals, including *The Banner, October, New World,* as well as in book form.

Galkin's style is aphoristic and he is extremely economical with words. This has made him difficult to translate, but the task has been undertaken by Russian poets, who show great appreciation for both Galkin's lyrics and his dramatic works.

At present this Jewish writer is working on a volume of his selected poems in Russian translations. It is expected to be issued soon by the State Literary Publishing House and I am eagerly awaiting its release.

Galkin's plays, written in verse, comprise one of the sections of the big volume. One is entitled *Bar-Kokhba,* which is about the rise of the Judeans against Roman rule in the second century and which was shown in all Jewish theaters of the Soviet Union. Another, *For Life,* is his new tragedy, concerning the revolt in the Warsaw Ghetto during the German occupation.

Galkin has translated Shakespeare into Yiddish as well as Longfellow's *Hiawatha.* Though he works intensively at his writing, he is also a member of the editorial board of the Jewish newspaper, *Einikait,* and a member of the bureau of the Jewish Literature Section of the Soviet Writers' Union.

During the war Galkin's inspired lines appealed to the Soviet Jewish people to rise in the defense of their socialist homeland.

Galkin is making a great contribution to Soviet letters and I hope to get a first edition of his new work.

Truck Farm Belts Supply Towns

There's a little story about the great influx of fresh vegetables and fruit on the city markets these days. It helps explain the news.

Recently I remarked about the lower prices and increased quantity of vegetables for Soviet consumers, but did not explain that there has been a great development of belts of truck gardens around our big cities. At this time it can be safely said that our Soviet cities meet between 70 and 80 per cent of their vegetable needs from truck-garden belts in the outlying sections.

The "Muscovite" will be glad to have suggestions from readers as to subjects they would be interested in seeing covered in future "Diaries." Suggestions should be sent to "Muscovite," c/o USSR Information Bulletin, 2112 Massachusetts Ave. N.W., Washington 8, D. C.

These belts consist of large and highly-mechanized collective and state farms. The trading organizations have built large storage facilities for the truck crops to help maintain a year-round supply. And then this is further aided by the extensive system of hothouses maintained by collective farms which provide more fresh vegetables, regardless of season.

Kiev may be used as an example of what is going on. At the confluence of the Irpen and Dnieper near the Ukrainian capital there was an area of about 25 thousand acres of impassable swamps. The soil was fertile, but peasants had been unable to work it. Today we have collective farms on the old "swamp" because the Soviet State has provided a drainage system.

In the Moscow area a total of 26 thousand acres of swampland was reclaimed in the Yakhroma Valley and it is now producing great quantities of vegetables, milk and meat.

Millions Read Turgenev's Works

Fame and distribution of his works to an extent he never dreamed has come to the great Russian writer, Ivan Turgenev, whose penetrating analysis of Russian life covered the period from the 1840's to the 1870's.

We mark the anniversary of Turgenev's birth on November 9. He was born in 1818.

Turgenev was a man of broad education, whose first work, *A Huntsman's Diary,* was a powerful blow at the serf system. Written from 1847 to 1851, this volume contained a deeply sympathetic, realistic picture of peasant character linked to a keenly satirical presentation of the Russian landowner.

Turgenev was one of the most popular authors of his day, but after his death and particularly in Soviet times, his popularity has grown by leaps and bounds. More than 12 million copies of his works were published in the Soviet Union from 1918 to 1947. And they are read in 41 languages of the various nationalities of the USSR.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

November 22 - December 12

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States on the following schedule from November 22 to December 12. All time is Eastern Standard.

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary from 7:45 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. on the following frequencies: 6.05, 7.36, 9.54, 9.56, 9.60, 11.72, 11.87, and 11.96 megacycles.

Daily evening programs of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life are broadcast in two periods: from 6:20 P.M. to 7:30 P.M., and from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M.

Radio listeners may hear the 6:20-7:30 P.M. broadcast over these frequencies: 7.29, 7.36, 11.72, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The 9:00 to 10:15 P.M. programs may be heard on 7.29, 7.36, 9.60, 9.72, 11.72, 11.87, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays, November 22 and 29, and December 6—programs for farmers.

Tuesdays, November 23 and 30—Economic affairs.

Wednesdays, November 24; December 1 and 8—Scientific and cultural programs. Sports review.

Thursdays, December 2 and 9—Fifteen-minute programs in Russian for American Slavs.

Thursdays, November 25, December 2 and 9—Youth programs.

Tuesdays and Fridays, November 23, 26, 30, December 3, 7, 10—Survey of life in the Soviet Republics.

On Saturdays there will be a weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners; on Sundays, concerts and talks on literature.

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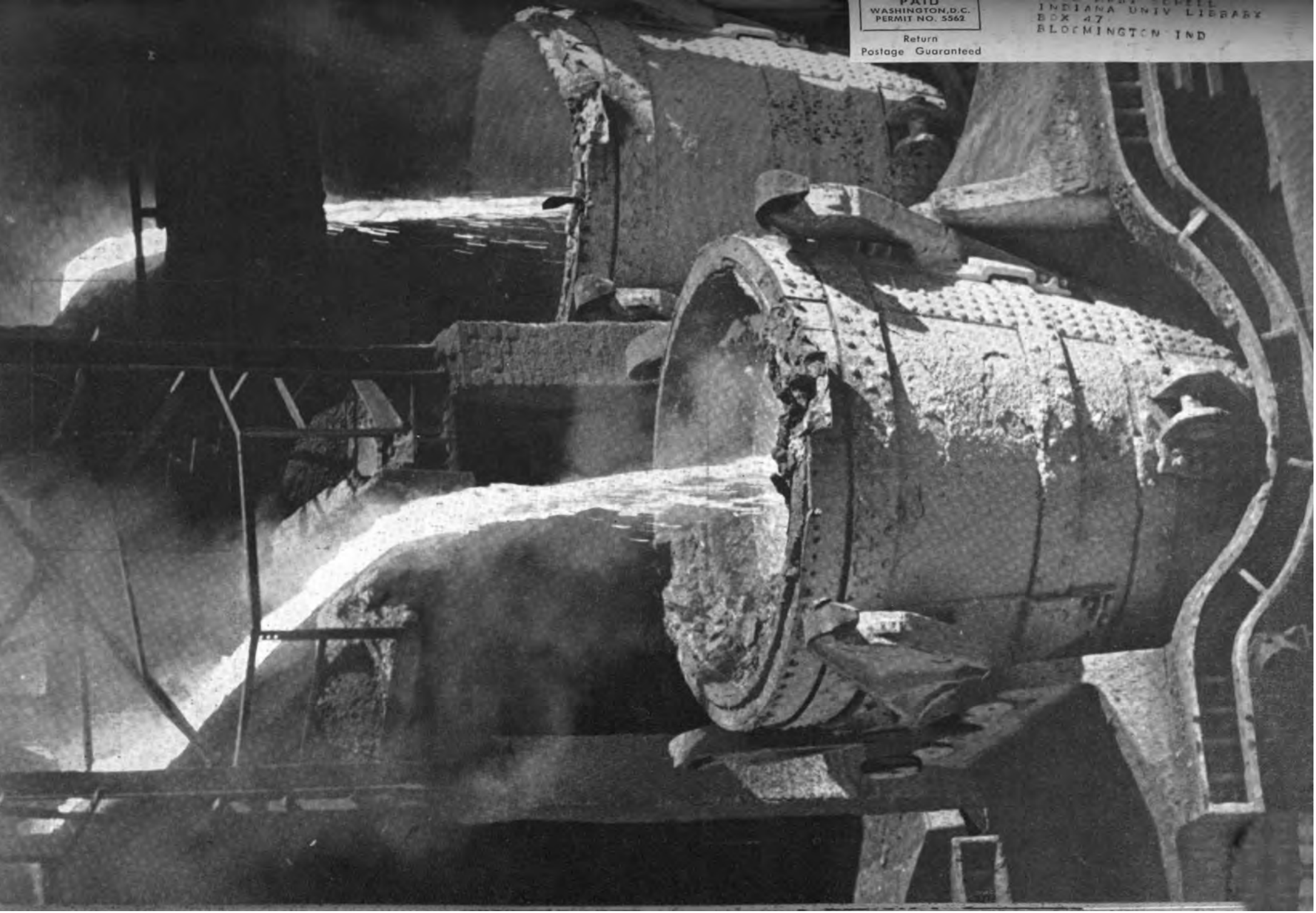

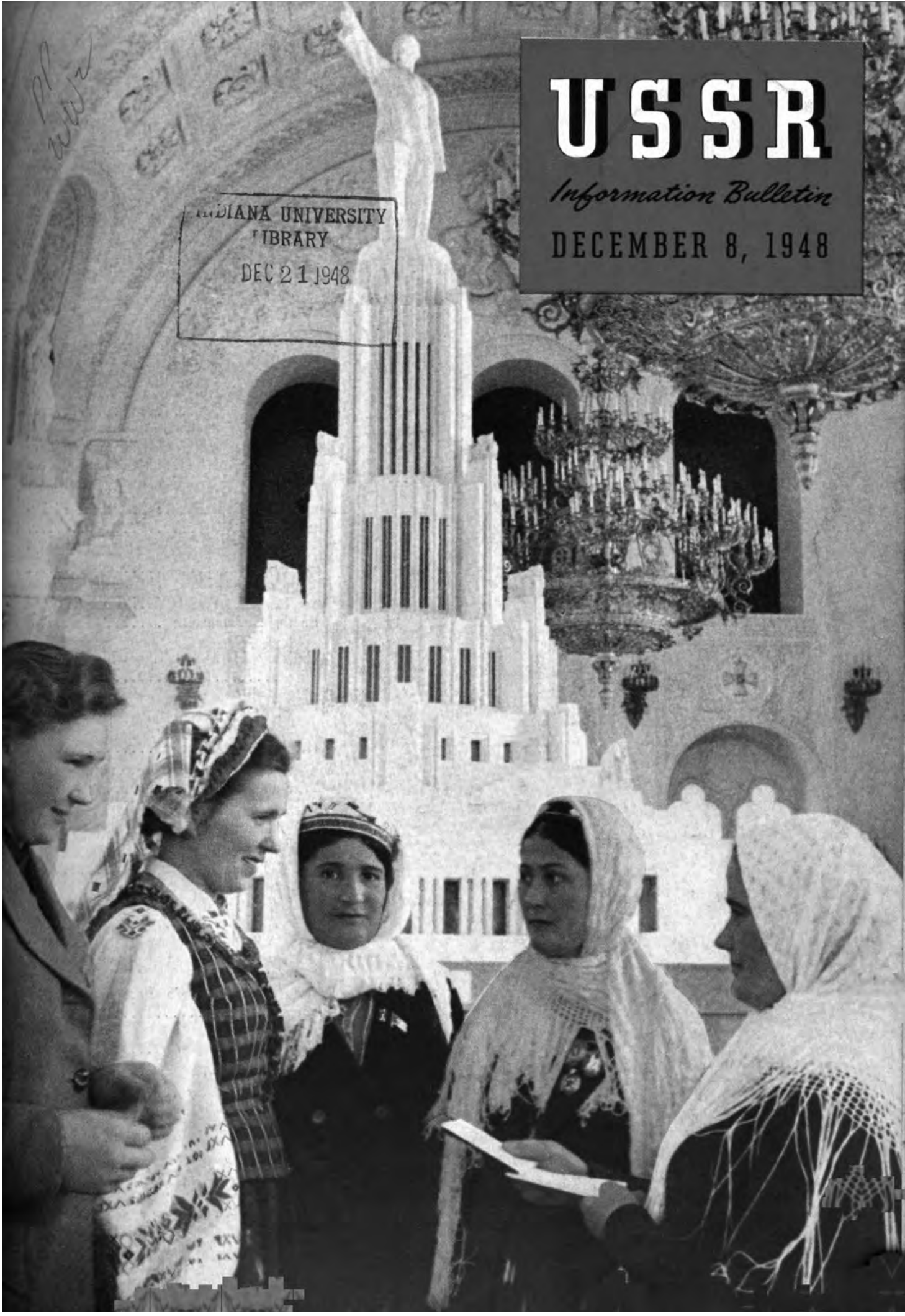

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Information Bulletin

DECEMBER 8, 1948

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—*Painting by D. Nalbandyan*

J. V. STALIN. On December 5, Constitution Day, the Soviet people honor him as the author of their Constitution and their leader in achieving the gains which its provisions codify. FRONT COVER. Deputies, of various Soviet nationalities, to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. BACK COVER. A voter exercises his franchise.

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

Anniversary Marked December 5

The Constitution of the USSR Is 12 Years Old

By Professor K. Mokichev
Assistant Procurator-General of the USSR

TWELVE years ago, on December 5, 1936, the Eighth (Extraordinary) Congress of Soviets, expressing the will of the Soviet people, ratified the new Constitution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—the fundamental law of the socialist State of the workers and peasants.

The new Constitution is justly called by the Soviet people the Stalin Constitution, for J. V. Stalin was the initiator and author of the Constitution of triumphant socialism. Its adoption marked the conclusion of a whole stage in the history of the Soviet State, a State of unprecedentedly complete democracy, the establishment of which in October, 1917 ushered in a new era in history.

This new type of state, in which all power passed into the hands of the working people, was called to life by the will of the workers and peasants of Russia in 1917. Its birth marked the birth of a new democracy, a genuine people's democracy. From the very outset, the Soviet State has not only proclaimed great rights and liberties for the workers and peasants, but has successfully struggled to establish the necessary conditions for the practical exercise of these rights.

The historic significance of the Great October Socialist Revolution is that it wrested state power from the hands of exploiters and placed it in the hands of the working people. For the first time in history, the broadest sections of the people were drawn into the work of state administration.

Resolutely condemning all forms of political, economic, national and spiritual slavery, the Soviet Government considered its mission to be the banishment of all forms of exploitation, violence and virtual slavery from the Soviet land, to erect on the site cleared of all the rubbish of history the edifice of socialism, and to ensure the transition to communism.

Between 1917 and 1937, the peoples of the land of the Soviets accomplished colossal economic and cultural transformations, which changed the backward country inherited from tsarist Russia into an advanced socialist power with a modern industry and socialist agriculture.

The correct application of the Lenin-Stalin policy of industrialization of the country and collectivization of agriculture had brought about a complete victory of the principles of socialism in the land of the Soviets by 1936. Socialist ownership of the means of production and the socialist system of economy became the dominating and unshakeable economic foundation of Soviet society. Socialism was firmly established in every field of the national economy, it had become part and parcel of Soviet life.

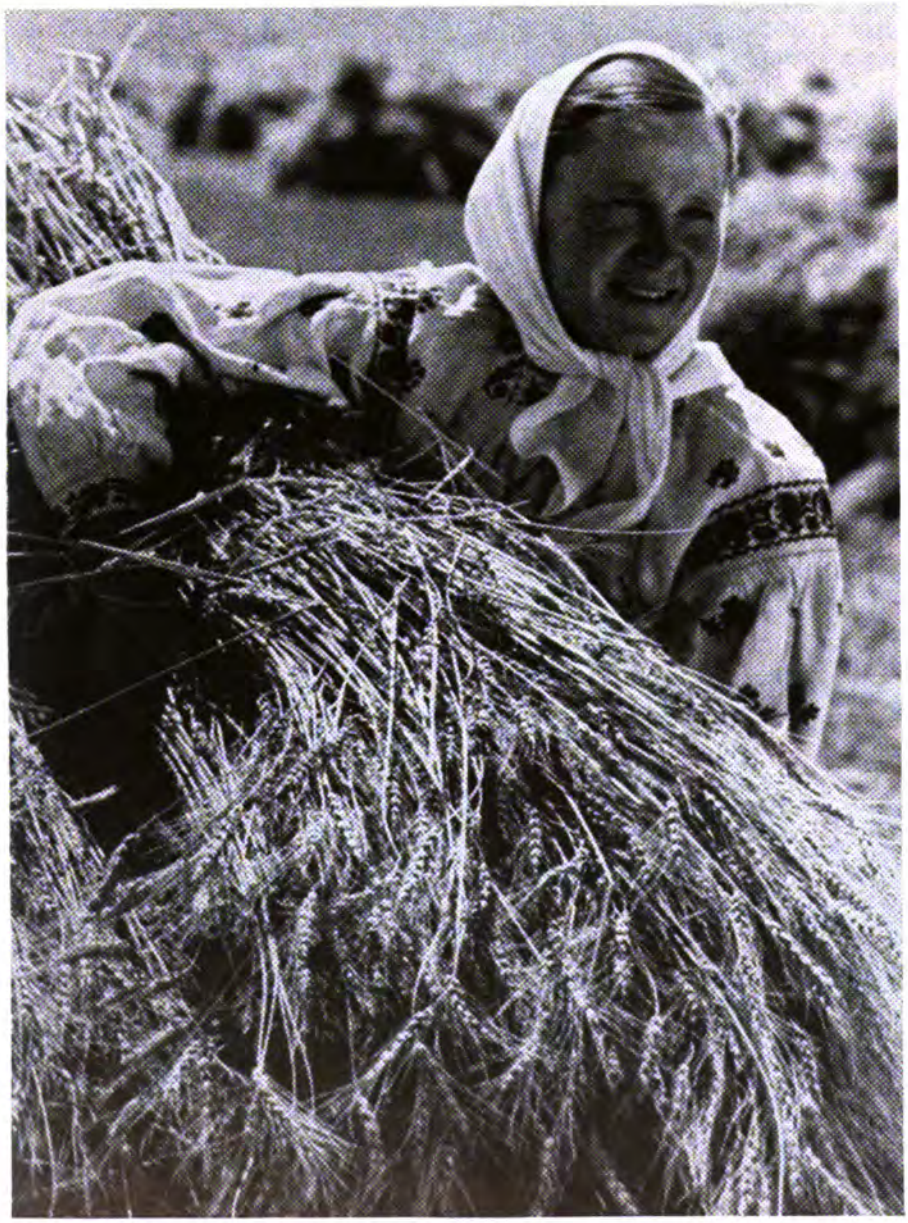
The dreams cherished by the greatest thinkers of mankind had been turned into reality by the will of the

NDUSTRY. State-owned factories predominate in Soviet economy. Industrial workers form one of the two classes of Soviet society.

Russian workers and peasants, under the leadership of the great Lenin and Stalin. Economic changes had caused fundamental changes in the class structure of Soviet society. Parasitical exploiting classes no longer existed. The only classes in the land of victorious socialism were two friendly classes—the workers and the peasants, together with the Soviet intelligentsia which arose from the midst of the working people.

All these profound economic and social changes are mirrored by the Stalin Constitution.

The historic significance of the Constitution of the USSR lies in its character as a document "dealing in simple and concise terms, almost in the style of minutes, with the facts of the victory of socialism in the USSR, with the facts of the emancipation of the working class of the USSR from capitalist slavery, with the facts of the victory in the USSR of full and thoroughly consistent democracy," said Stalin. Free from exploitation, labor has in the process of gigantic socialist construction molded a new man, the Soviet man, and has changed the relations between the people. The working class, the peasantry and Soviet intelligentsia represent one closely-knit laboring family, welded by moral and political unity. The numerous nationalities inhabiting the land of socialism are cemented by the strongest bonds of fraternal friendship. All these achievements of the Soviet people are recorded in the Constitution.



AGRICULTURE. Collective farms, which are co-operatives, are the predominating agricultural form. The peasantry forms the second friendly class.

The powerful socialist industry has grown and gathered strength under the banner of this Constitution, developing at a pace which has no parallel in history. By 1940, the socialist State of the workers and peasants had advanced to first place in Europe in the volume of industrial output, attaining a level that left behind Great Britain, as well as Germany and France.

During the years immediately before the Second World War, Soviet agriculture yielded more than 126,000,000 short tons of grain annually, or more than double the harvests garnered by tsarist Russia in the best years.

The workers, peasants, and working intellectuals are proud of the fact that the national wealth of the country governed by themselves has been augmented in Soviet years. In 1940 the national income of the USSR surpassed 128,300,000,000 rubles, which was six times the income of tsarist Russia in 1913, the last prewar year of tsarism.

The defeat of the fascist hordes by the Soviet Army was made possible by the Lenin-Stalin policy of industrialization and of the collectivization of agriculture upon which is based the great economic might of the Soviet State.

The successful advance of socialist agriculture and industry in the peaceful period and the historic victory won by the Soviet people over fascism in the Great Patriotic War were possible thanks to the unification of the multinational peoples of the land of the Soviets in the great Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

The unifying principle of the Soviet multinational state system is the principle of equality of all citizens of the USSR—proclaimed in the Constitution—irrespective of their nationality and race, in all fields of life—economic, state, cultural, social and political. This principle is an irrevocable law, whose violation—through the advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness, or the expression of hatred and contempt for other peoples—is severely punished by the Soviet State.

The Stalin Constitution is a code of great rights and liberties of the citizens in the land of victorious socialism.

The right to employment, to rest, to an education, to security in old age and in case of sickness or the loss of capacity to work is guaranteed by the Soviet Constitution to all citizens, regardless of sex or nationality.

For the first time in history, woman received equal rights with man. In every field of economic, state, cultural, social and political life, the Soviet woman has become a full-fledged citizen, an active builder of the material and cultural treasures of her country.

The distinguishing feature of the Constitution of the USSR is that it does not confine itself to stating the formal rights of citizens, but guarantees these rights, by providing the material conditions and the means which make it possible for every Soviet citizen to take full advantage of the constitutional rights and liberties.

The great right to work is guaranteed by the socialist ownership of all the means of production. The right to work is ensured by the socialist organization of the national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the complete abolition of unemployment. From the hard and degrading burden that it was under capitalism, labor in the USSR has been transformed into a matter of honor and valor, a matter of glory and heroism.

The right to an education granted to Soviet citizens by Article 121 of the Stalin Constitution is guaranteed and ensured by "universal and compulsory elementary education; by free education up to and including the seventh grade, by a system of state stipends for students of higher educational establishments who excel in their studies; by instruction in schools being conducted in the native language, and by the organization in the factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations and collective farms of free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the working people."

Thanks to the guaranteed right to an education, the Soviet people have achieved such tremendous progress in socialist culture. The Soviet college enrollment has reached 730 thousand in 1948. This does not include the 270 thousand students taking university correspondence courses.

Thirty-four millions are attending elementary schools, high schools and specialized high schools in the USSR.

INTELLECTUALS. Graduate students with Academician Alexander Palladin. Soviet intellectuals come from the ranks of the working people.

The annual awards of Stalin Prizes for outstanding scientific discoveries, inventions, and radical technical improvements in production, indicate that Soviet science, engineering, literature and the arts are steadily advancing with seven-league strides.

All this has become possible thanks to the steadily growing ranks of the national intelligentsia, a true peoples' intelligentsia, in each Soviet Socialist Republic.

In the light of these great cultural achievements of the socialist State of the workers and peasants it is clear how well-justified V. M. Molotov was in saying in his report on the 31st anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution: "Let that capitalist state come forward which would like to vie with the Soviet Union in the field of cultural progress!"

One of the most important democratic principles of the Stalin Constitution is the proclamation of identical rights and duties for all the Soviet citizens. In the socialist state all Soviet citizens have equal rights and duties.

It is the duty of every citizen of the USSR to observe Soviet laws, to maintain labor discipline, to perform public duties honestly, to respect the rules of socialist social intercourse, to safeguard and fortify public, socialist property.

To defend the country is the sacred duty of every citizen of the USSR; military service in the armed forces of the Soviet State is an honorable duty of the citizens of the USSR.

In the grim days of the war against the fascist barbarians, the Soviet people on the labor and fighting fronts discharged their honorable and sacred duty of defending their country with a courage unexampled in history.

Since the end of the Second World War, the Soviet people, under the banner of the Stalin Constitution, have been successfully healing the wounds inflicted by the war and are effecting the gradual transition from socialism to communism.

Postwar economic recovery is proceeding apace in the Soviet State. In 1948 socialist industry has surpassed by 17 per cent the level of the prewar year of 1940.

In the international field the socialist State of the workers and peasants has been indomitably conducting an unflagging struggle for a stable and lasting world peace. Today too, the Stalin Constitution of victorious socialism stands as an indictment against fascism and the fascism-mongering bosses of the monopolies who are heading the reactionary bloc and striving to unleash a third world war.

Soviet Constitution Guards Rights On Path of Progress

THE Soviet Constitution, adopted on December 5, 1936, is notable in that it embodies, as basic law, the rights, guarantees, and social and economic forms already achieved, and states the means existing for their implementation.

The strength of Soviet socialism springs from the solid material and cultural benefits it has brought to the people of the Soviet Union. Its base is the guarantee, expressed in the Soviet Constitution, against the exploitation of man by man.

This, and the consequent constantly-rising national economy of the USSR, result in a steady advance in the well-being of all Soviet citizens—in the factory and field, mine and mill. They make socialism an invincible, vital and living force.

The October Revolution of 1917 placed state power in the hands of the working people of Russia and made them masters of all the wealth, of all the means of production of their country. Since then the Soviet people have been working for themselves, not for capitalists; for the benefit of Soviet society where none may appropriate the results of another's labor.

Planned, socialist economy, resting solidly upon the public ownership of the means and instruments of production, is based on the free labor and initiative of millions of people.

The Soviet society is one of working people, which has no room for exploiters or idlers.

Article 12 of the Constitution of the USSR says work is a duty and a matter of honor for every able-bodied citizen, in accordance with the principle: "He who does not work, neither shall he eat." This constitutional principle gives legislative effect to what is an accomplished fact in the USSR, i.e., the freedom of citizens from all exploitation, and the prohibition of incomes that are not derived from labor.

In the section of the Constitution on the *Fundamental Rights and Duties of Citizens,* the first Article, Article 118 of the document, deals with the basic right to employment. It states:

"Citizens of the USSR 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 organization of the national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment."

This guarantee and its operation in practice form a good example of a Soviet Constitutional right, firmly established in the life of the people and firmly rooted in the structure of socialist society.

It rests upon other basic principles of the Constitution—upon the whole organization of the economy—and in turn is supplemented by and supplements other sections, such as those guaranteeing equality of all peoples, equality of men and women, the universal right to education, and other guarantees providing full opportunity for individual development according to the basic principle of socialism stated in the Constitution:

"From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

Under the Soviet system the position of man in society is determined only by his personal participation in socially useful work.

Genuinely free labor is possible only in a society which is free of exploitation of man by man, free of unem-

FROM EACH ACCORDING TO HIS ABILITY. No talent or ability is stifled in the USSR. Valentina Filippova (center), a worker's daughter, is a medical student.

ployment, free of fear for the future, fear of old age . . . where everybody has the opportunity to develop his abilities and where a man's position in society is determined only by his personal labor.

In an interview with the American publisher, Roy Howard, some time ago, J. V. Stalin said: "It is difficult for me to imagine what 'personal liberty' is enjoyed by an unemployed person, who goes about hungry and cannot find employment. Real liberty can exist only where exploitation has been abolished, where there is no oppression of some by others, where there are no unemployment and poverty, where a man is not haunted by the fear of being tomorrow deprived of work, of home and of bread. Only in such a society is real, and not paper, personal and every other liberty possible."

Soviet labor is being increasingly mechanized and electrified wherever possible. The Soviet State helps workers to increase their skill and productivity, and at the same time to increase their wages.

Training schools are established throughout the country and courses of industrial training are offered free.

Wage scales vary according to skill and there are a number of classifications in each industry, depending upon the skill and the nature of production. In the machinery industry, for example, there are eight wage categories; in metallurgy, 12, and in the building trades, seven. These scales are arranged so that each exceeds the next lowest one by from 15 to 18 per cent.

The piecework system embraces from 70 to 80 per cent of all industrial workers in the Soviet Union. It predominates because it most clearly expresses the direct connection between the productivity of a worker and his earnings. It also stimulates greater productivity; the more a worker produces, the higher his earnings. In this manner the interests of socialist industry, of the State, fully coincide with the personal interests of the worker.

A good example of this system is the coal mining industry, where we may consider the coal cutter, machine-operator, or timberman. For an output up to one hundred per cent of quota, miners are paid at the ordinary or regular piece rates. For any extra production of from one to 10 per cent above quota, they are paid at double the ordinary rate and for anything above 11 per cent in excess of the quota, they are paid treble the rate.

TO EACH ACCORDING TO HIS WORK. Vassili Matrosov and his wife read of the honors accorded him for factory-production innovations.

Although this system results in an increase in wages, it does not increase labor costs. This is because the progressive rate is paid only on that amount produced in excess of the quota and only on the basis of monthly output (which offers a guarantee of even work throughout the month and not only at certain shifts); moreover, progressive piece rates are paid only for high-quality output.

Since the piecework system stimulates an increase in labor productivity and in wages, both managements of enterprises and trade-union organizations try to apply it as widely as possible. Collective agreements between trade unions and managements contain special provisions for introducing the piecework system for all workers whose labor can be measured in terms of definite output.

The bonus or premium system is employed in Soviet enterprises not only in combination with piecework, but also independently. Its first aim is to stimulate good performance by workers whose jobs cannot be rated in definite terms. The premium system is applied, for instance, in cases of maintenance mechanics, electricians and so on. In these cases the less time spent in repair shops by equipment, the higher the premium paid to those responsible for its maintenance, repair and tuning up.

Workers and engineering and technical personnel receive premiums for economy of fuel, power, raw materials and supplies.

Soviet enterprises also have a premium system for executive and engineering personnel. When an enterprise, division or section under their charge fulfills or overfulfills its production quota, they are eligible for a

premium. Its size depends on the excess of production over quota or program. One indispensable condition for such premiums is that production costs do not exceed planned figures.

There is one more form of premium connected with socialist competition, which is widespread in all branches of industry, transport and construction. The various enterprises in a given branch compete among themselves for the best showing in their field. The factory, mine, mill, construction job, or state farm which wins the competition for a given month is presented with the Challenge Red Banner of the Council of Ministers of the USSR or of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the respective ministry involved. The factory or farm receiving the banner also gets a large monetary premium. Part of this money goes for improving the cultural and other services for the workers involved, but from 60 to 70 per cent is distributed as premiums to the best factory and office workers.

In discussing the Soviet wage system, one should also take into account the fact that whereas in most countries, monetary wages are the only earnings the workers receive, in the Soviet Union the real income of the working class and its share in the total social product is not so limited. In addition to wages, the Soviet factory and office worker receives a number of other free services from his state which appreciably increase the real income of his family.

For example, the Soviet State appropriates vast sums for education, free medical services, social insurance, provision of rest homes, vacations, maintenance of children's institutions, payments of grants to mothers with large families and so on. All of these services and benefits comprise an average addition of 38 per cent to the wages of Soviet workers.

Let's look at a few figures. The national income of the USSR was 25,000,000,000 rubles in 1928 and rose to 128,300,000,000 rubles in 1940.

The Soviet Union is completing the third year of its postwar Five-Year Plan, which is directed at achievement of a national income of 177,000,000,000 rubles in 1950. This means the national income will exceed the prewar level by 38 per cent, and will result in a new increase in the living standards of Soviet citizens.

An important factor in this steady increase in living standards is that it results not only from the principles governing its distribution, but from the emphasis on productive distribution of the income of the national economy.

There is no consumption by parasites or loafers in the Soviet Union. There is no class living in comfortable idleness on the labor of other classes.

While one part of the national income goes to wages for Soviet workers and to meet the cultural and other requirements of the people, another part goes for extending production, capital construction, and setting up reserves in the national economy.

The former (wages, social welfare, education, etc.) constitutes the consumption fund. The latter comprises the accumulation fund. Both are directed at meeting the requirements of the people.

Soviet law on raising the living standards assures the steadfast and systematic increase in the real wages of workers in state enterprises and the income of collective farmers.

There is no fluctuation of wages. With the swift expansion of the economy and the steady rise in productivity, wages are constantly advancing. In 1944 the average monthly earnings of workers in industry were 53 per cent higher than in the prewar period, and in the iron and steel industry were even higher.

This increase in money wages is accompanied by a similar increase in real wages. This comes from the policy of systematic reduction of prices for food and manufactured goods. During the war, price control was maintained for rationed goods in state trade at the prewar level. Since the war, and especially since the abolition of rationing, the Soviet Government has continued its policy of increasing the purchasing power of the ruble.

When rationing was abolished, state prices were reduced and the wages of factory and office workers and the incomes of peasants and handicraftsmen were held steady. This meant a great saving for all the people. In the first quarter of 1948 the purchasing power of the ruble increased by 41 per cent and real wages rose by 51 per cent.

The rich harvest this year in the USSR and the rise in the output of consumer goods has created favorable conditions for a further increase in the real wages of Soviet workers and an increase in public consumption.

All of these things in the Soviet socialist society have combined to give the Soviet worker great and very real advantages. Today the Soviet Union possesses the most stable currency in all Europe. The Soviet worker can buy more than the worker of any other European country.

The Constitution of the USSR guarantees to all the right to rest and leisure. This is ensured by the establishment of an eight-hour day for factory and office workers, the reduction of the workday to six or seven hours in arduous trades and to as little as four hours in shops where conditions are particularly arduous. Annual vacations with full pay for factory and office workers are guaranteed.

In accordance with the Constitution, citizens of the USSR have the right to maintenance in old age or in case of sickness or disability. These benefits are paid entirely at the expense of the state social insurance fund. The workers make no contributions whatsoever to this security fund.

Discrimination in payment for labor or working conditions, for reasons of nationality, race, sex or age, is banned by the Soviet Constitution. Any direct or indirect restriction on the rights of, or, conversely, the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges for citizens on account of their race or nationality, is punishable by law.

The Soviet Constitution has special provisions giving women equal rights with men to work, to payment for work, to rest, social insurance and to education. At the same time the Constitution of the USSR guarantees women maternity leave with full pay, state aid to mothers of large families and to unwed mothers, and the provision of a wide network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens, thus guaranteeing to women the real opportunity of exercising their equal rights with men.

A rising standard of living, steadily falling prices, constantly advancing purchasing power combined with the broad social security and health measures in the Soviet Union assure the Soviet citizen a real future and an even better life for his children.

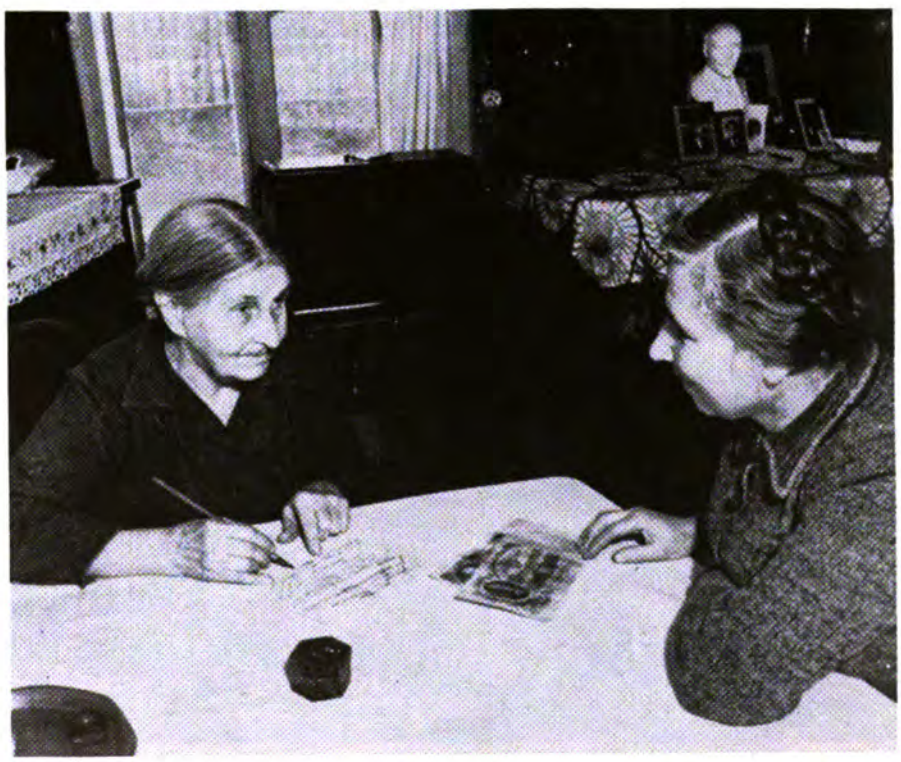
ASSURED REST. "Citizens of the USSR have the right to rest and leisure," the Constitution says.

FREE EDUCATION. All Soviet citizens have the right to education. The Constitution provides universal and compulsory elementary education. State grants support advanced students in higher educational establishments.

Constitutional Freedom in USSR

MEDICAL CARE. The Soviet basic law guarantees free medical service.

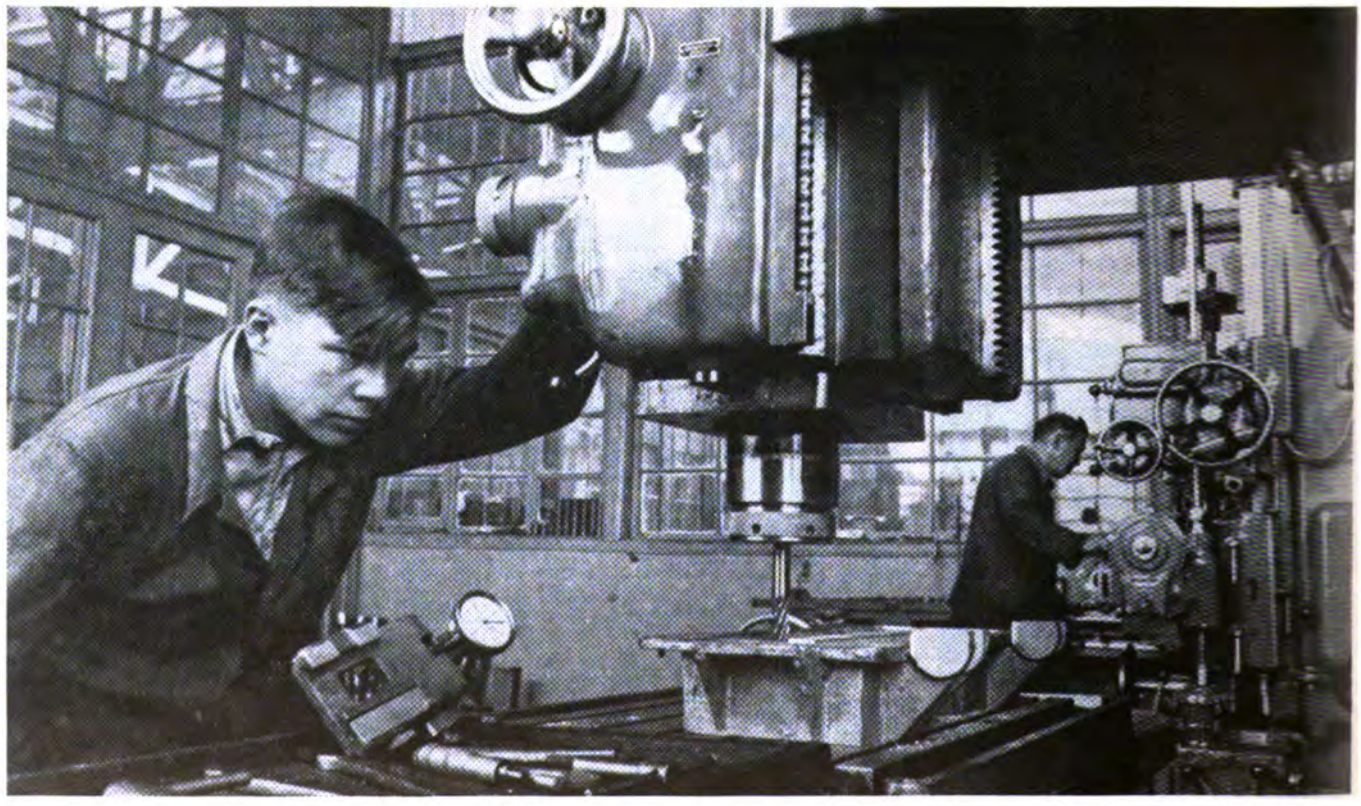
FRANCHISE. Every Soviet citizen has the right to vote.



SECURE OLD AGE. The Soviet Constitution guarantees maintenance to the aged. Here widow Matreona Pryanishnikova gets her pension at home.

CHILD CARE. Constitutional safeguards protect Soviet children. This girl sleeps in a kindergarten nursery.

FREE PRESS. The Soviet Constitution guarantees freedom of the press, free speech, freedom of assembly. This is a newspaper office in Stalinabad, capital of Tajikistan.

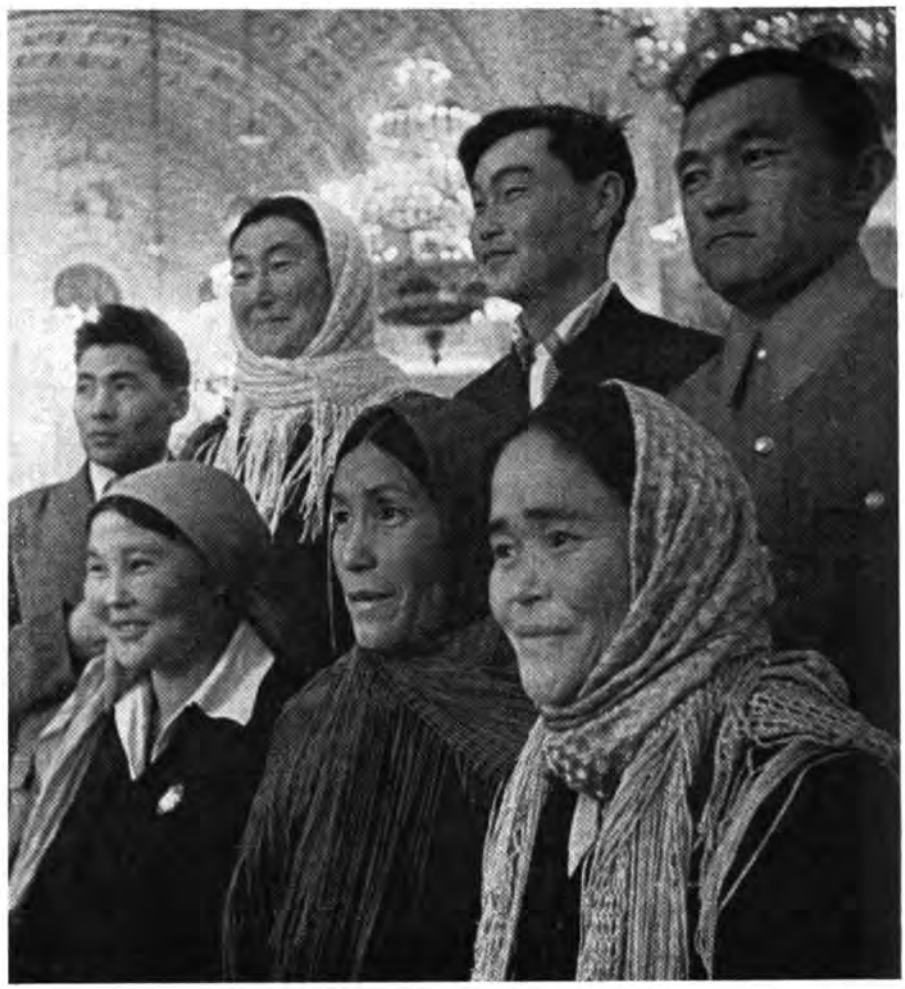


RIGHT TO WORK. First among the rights of Soviet citizens is the right to guaranteed employment and payment according to quality and quantity. Victor Titov is at the drill press.

RELIGION. Freedom of religious worship is Constitutionally guaranteed.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS. Also guaranteed are women's equal rights with men.

PRIVATE PROPERTY. The Soviet citizen has the right to own private property. A customer inspects a car.



NONDISCRIMINATION. Equality of rights of all citizens is guaranteed in the Soviet Constitution regardless of nationality, race, economic, cultural or political status. Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

RIGHT TO JOIN ORGANIZATIONS. This guaranteed right of Soviet citizens is widely exercised in the formation of co-operatives like this collective farm, as well as of trade unions, cultural and political organizations.

Ambassador Panyushkin's Statement Of December 2, 1948

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin, acting in his capacity as Soviet representative to the Far Eastern Commission, on December 2, 1948, delivered the following statement at a meeting of that body.

STATEMENT BY THE SOVIET REPRESENTATIVE IN REGARD TO THE LEVEL OF ECONOMIC LIFE IN JAPAN

In his statement of November 11, General McCoy, the United States representative, stated that the adoption by the Far Eastern Commission of the Soviet proposals of September 23, regarding the level of Japan's industrial development, allegedly would serve no useful purpose and would only reiterate Far Eastern Commission and Allied policy decisions of long standing. He also stated that the aforementioned statement of the Soviet representative allegedly touched upon a question which was in part beyond the competence of this Commission. As a basis for such assertions, the United States representative referred to his statement in the Far Eastern Commission on January 21, 1948.

Such an assertion by the United States representative does not correspond to the actual situation. An acquaintance with the Soviet proposals of September 23 as well as with the United States representative's statement of January 21 shows that there is a substantial difference between them.

In the aforesaid statement of the United States representative, reference is made to the necessity of the revival of Japanese economy on a peaceful and "self-supporting" basis, but nothing is said of the necessity for bringing about an unhampered development of Japan's peaceful industry, nor of the prevention of the development of Japan's war industry, nor is mention made of the establishment of an appropriate control for the purpose of achieving this objective. Meanwhile, it is these questions which are primary, and which constitute the substance of the Soviet proposal.

It is known that the first paragraph of the Soviet proposals cites the necessity of unhampered development of Japan's peaceful industry, which seeks to satisfy the needs of the Japanese population, as well as of the development of export in accordance with the needs of Japan's peaceful economy. The Far Eastern Commission has not yet expressed its definite opinion on this matter. Meanwhile, it is necessary that everyone in Japan know that no limitations will be placed on the development of Japan's peaceful industry.

The second paragraph of the Soviet proposals calls for prohibition of the revival or creation of Japanese war industry, and for the establishment with this purpose, for a period of several years, of a control over the fulfillment of this decision, to be exercised by the Allied Powers most interested in preventing a new Japanese aggression. The Far Eastern Commission has not expressed its opinion on this matter. In the United States representative's statement of January 21 the idea of prohibiting Japanese war industry is also absent, nor does this statement raise the question of an appropriate control. Meanwhile, all peace-loving peoples are interested in preventing Japan's revival as an aggressive power. For this end a prohibition should be imposed upon the revival of war industries in Japan and an appropriate control should be established for this purpose.

Thus, the Soviet proposals not only raise the question of the necessity for securing the development of Japanese peaceful industry and for preventing the development and creation of war industry in Japan, but also provide that no limitations whatsoever should be placed upon the development of Japan's peaceful industry. As is known, nothing of this kind appears in the statements of the United States representative.

One wonders what foundation the United States representative has for the assertion that the Soviet proposals allegedly reiterate already-established policy of the Far Eastern Commission and the policy pursued by the United States Government in respect to Japan? There is no foundation whatsoever for this assertion. The assertion of the United States representative that in his statement of January 21 he had already made proposals on the question of Japan's economic development, similar to the proposals set forth in the Soviet statement of September 23, is absolutely unfounded.

Indeed, should the situation be such as it is asserted to be by the United States representative, and should the United States position coincide with the Soviet proposals, and consequently should the policy pursued by the United States in respect to Japan's economy coincide with the objectives provided for by the Soviet proposals, the United States delegation would have had no basis for opposing the Soviet proposals. Meanwhile, these proposals meet with all kinds of opposition on the part of the United States representative. This fact confirms nothing but the existence of a great difference between the United States representative's statement of January 21 and the proposals submitted by the Soviet delegation; however, the United States representative may try to prove the contrary.

In the United States representative's statement of November 11 there is direct opposition to the Soviet proposal on the necessity for establishing a control over the fulfillment of the decision concerning the prohibition of the revival and creation of Japanese war industry. His opposition to this paragraph of the Soviet proposals he supports by the assertion that the determination of agreements for the period after the conclusion of the peace treaty falls outside the competence of

(Continued on page 748)

USSR Has Kept Pledges

Peacetime Unity Soviet Goal From Teheran to Paris

By I. Ermashev
Soviet Journalist

Of the many anniversaries linked with the events of the victorious war of the United Nations against the fascist aggressors, the historic conference which took place in Teheran from November 28 to December 1, 1943, occupies a special place.

This conference was significant for many reasons. In the first place Teheran was the place where Generalissimo Stalin and the late President Roosevelt met for the first time. This meeting was of extreme importance. It is now public knowledge that during the course of negotiations in Teheran, vital problems of relations among the Allies were discussed, common tasks during the war and during the coming peace were considered, and the Soviet Union and the United States reached complete agreement without any serious difficulty.

We know from Elliot Roosevelt's book, *As He Saw It,* that President Roosevelt was quite satisfied with his meeting with Generalissimo Stalin. He made no secret of this. And the Soviet side was also very much pleased by the friendly contact between the Governments of the USSR and of the USA, a contact which was established at Teheran and which was to last until and after the Yalta conference—until the time when the ruthless hand of death deprived the American people and the United Nations of a leading fighter for peace and security.

It will be remembered that it was at Teheran that the question of opening the Second Front in Europe was finally settled; there General Eisenhower was approved as the Supreme Commander-in-Chief, and the decisive steps were taken to accelerate the rout of the common enemy by the united forces of the Soviet Union, the United States and Great Britain.

President Roosevelt—this man of honor—left no stone unturned to implement the Teheran decisions. American forces played the chief role when Allied troops landed in Normandy early in June, 1944. Then—based on an honest policy of co-operation—Soviet-American relations were most friendly.

We remember the declaration the three Powers adopted at the Teheran conference. The first lines of this declaration are strikingly meaningful:

"We, the President of the United States, the Prime Minister of Great Britain and the Premier of the Soviet Union . . . express our determination that our nations shall work together in war and in the peace that will follow . . . . ."

This determination was expressed with tremendous force. It rang throughout the world and inspired the people, who with arms in hand, were fighting the vile fascist oppressors. It inspired fresh hope in those peoples who were being ground beneath the iron heel of these oppressors. The determination of the three great powers —which was proclaimed to the world —raised hope and faith in the hearts of all who had fought against the fascist evil or who had suffered from it.

The Teheran declaration further stated: "The common understanding which we have reached here guarantees that victory will be ours."

History has shown that this solemn declaration was backed by real forces and by measures which brought about victory.

But the most singular and most important fact was the mutual understanding reached at Teheran—the singleness of purpose and action which were confirmed in the decisions and realized in the subsequent actions of the great Allies.

The Teheran conference, which examined the concrete questions of strategy and policy, resulted in a program of mutual understanding and common action among the three Powers. The leaders who were gathered in Teheran conferred in an atmosphere of prevailing trust and of consciousness of the fact that in the future, too, co-operation among the USSR, the USA and Great Britain would be of great value. It is therefore no accident that the declaration of the three Powers spoke not only of war, but of peace; not only of the aims of the war, but of the requirements of peace.

The will to unity of action in time of peace was expressed in these words: "And as to the peace—we are sure that our concord will win an enduring Peace. We recognize fully the supreme responsibility resting upon us and on all the United Nations to make a peace which will command the good will of the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world and banish the scourge and terror of war for many generations."

This solemn obligation gave special weight to the declaration and made the Teheran conference one of historic significance. Representatives of the three Powers set themselves a great goal when they declared that their alliance had not resulted from the necessities of war, and that the common agreement that existed among them then had to be maintained to ensure lasting peace in the future. How the world is suffering now from the violation of common agreements which were adopted unanimously by the great Powers!

Although the Teheran conference was a conference of three great Powers, it was nevertheless vitally important for the consolidation of Soviet-American relations and Soviet-American co-operation. The personal contact between Generalissimo Stalin and President Roosevelt and their mutual desire to strengthen the friendly ties between the USSR and the USA was of unusual significance.

We know that there has always existed a friendliness between the two great nations. When in 1932 President

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Peace Move Blocked By UN Vote On Atom Bomb, Disarmament

By M. Rubinstein

On the instructions of the Soviet Government, the delegation of the Soviet Union to the third session of the United Nations General Assembly submitted a proposal calling for a reduction of the armed forces and armaments of the five Great Powers by one-third within one year; for the outlawing of the atomic weapon; and for the establishment of an international control body to supervise the fulfillment of these decisions.

These clear and concrete proposals accord with the vital interests of the masses of people throughout the world —who are thirsting for enduring peace and security, for relief from the threat of atomic war, military adventures, and war psychosis.

In his speeches at the third session of the UN General Assembly, A. Y. Vyshinsky, head of the Soviet delegation, has argued at length in favor of the Soviet proposals, showing that if the proposed measures were put into force they would constitute the first step toward ensuring real peace and real security for the nations of the world.

A. Y. Vyshinsky has revealed why the Atomic Commission of the United Nations has produced nothing in the 30 months of its activity. He has shown that the Atomic Commission has failed to carry out the tasks entrusted to it by the previous sessions of the UN General Assembly because the most basic and most decisive of these tasks—namely, the prohibition of the atomic weapon, its elimination from national armaments, and the employment of atomic energy solely for peaceful purposes—have remained undone. He has shown that the refusal to accomplish these tasks is due to the policy of reactionary circles who are interested in keeping this weapon of aggression in their hands.

A. Y. Vyshinsky has given a profound analysis of the problem of international control of the use of atomic energy. He has shown how organically and inseparably the task of prohibiting the use of atomic energy for war purposes is connected with the aims and tasks of international control. Unless the atomic weapon is prohibited, it is absurd to talk of any sort of control over atomic energy, for the very object of control would be missing and there would be no practical sense in the establishment of an international control body. Talk of control under such circumstances, in the words of A. Y. Vyshinsky, would be "only a means of deceiving the peoples, calculated to serve as a smoke screen behind which to conceal from the eyes of the people the atomic armament drive."

The Soviet representatives and those of the new democracies have exposed the meaning and true aim of the formula: first, international control (and that only over the production of atomic raw materials—the initial stage of atomic production) and then endless talk about the prohibition of the atomic weapon, prohibition which is to be postponed indefinitely.

A vivid example of what this tactic means in substance was recently cited by the Soviet delegate, J. A. Malik. He recalled that during the discussion in the UN Atomic Commission of the questions of international control over atomic energy, the representatives of the United States were very insistent in their demand for aerial photography of the territory of states included in the system of control. According to that plan, five per cent of the territory of the countries concerned was to be surveyed from the air every two years. Thus, it would take 40 years to survey the entire territory. Since the United States delegation holds that talks with a view to prohibiting the atomic weapon should not begin until international control is one hundred per cent effective, the very incompletion of control would constitute a pretext for postponing the question of prohibition until the entire territory of the countries adhering to the convention on control had been surveyed. Meanwhile, for decades to come, the production and stock-piling of atomic weapons would proceed unhindered, and the threat of atomic war would dangle over the world.

A. Y. Vyshinsky drew special attention to the following features of this control plan, which reproduces in all its detail the notorious Baruch plan.

Under this plan—which would place atomic plants (and whole industries which in one way or another serve these plants) at the disposal of the international control body—the control body would be converted into an atomic supermonopoly issuing licenses for various production processes, conducting scientific research with a view to utilization of atomic energy for war purposes, and meddling in the economic life of nations. The idea is to make the international control body the owner of all atomic raw materials and the entire atomic energy industry of the world.

Since the atomic supertrust would possess unlimited property rights in atomic plants—and likewise unlimited control over all scientific research work in the field of atomic energy—it would be in a position to impede the utilization of atomic energy for peaceful, constructive purposes and to obstruct the progress of science and the development of the national economies of countries.

The Soviet delegates have exposed the false assertions which are disseminated by the reactionary press in many countries and which are repeated time and time again in the General Assembly—allegations that the Soviet Union is opposed to effective international control over atomic energy.

As far back as in October, 1946,

Joseph Stalin pointed out—in reply to a question from a United Press representative—that for a convention on the prohibition of the atomic weapon to produce the desired results, strict international control must be established.

The Soviet representatives on the Atomic Commission, as well as in the Security Council and other United Nations bodies, have acted in accordance with J. V. Stalin's statement. Soviet representatives have submitted to the Atomic Commission a detailed plan for the organization of international control over the use of atomic energy, control that would ensure the use of atomic energy solely for peaceful purposes. But this plan has been rejected by the Anglo-American majority. It has been rejected because this majority has never sought and does not seek the establishment of real control.

The American plan for control has nothing in common with the General Assembly's decisions of January 24 and December 14, 1946, on the prohibition of atomic weapons and their elimination from national armaments, and on the organization of such control over atomic energy as would ensure its use for peaceful purposes alone.

Unlike the American plan, the Soviet proposals proceed from the premise that it is possible and necessary to reach agreement on the question of prohibiting the atomic weapon and on the question of establishing atomic control on an international scale. The Soviet plan is based on the concept that this control should ensure strict execution of the decisions adopted on this question by the United Nations.

The Soviet delegates at the third session of the General Assembly pointed out in their speeches that the objections to their proposals—as, for example, the talk about "one-sided disarmament"; and the attempts to erect the bogey of the possibility of violation of the conventions by states intending aggression—hold no water because the proposal for the prohibition of the atomic weapon extends to all countries. Furthermore, violations of the conventions are to be regarded as the most heinous international crime.

The Soviet Union has recommended that the Atomic Commission should go on with its work of preparing a convention which would prohibit the atomic weapon and a convention on control of atomic energy. The USSR has also suggested that the Atomic Commission should study and settle the important problem of establishing quotas for atomic production and of distributing atomic raw materials: the problem of regulating the production and distribution of atomic raw materials among the various countries so that each country will be ensured its proper place in a way that will serve both its own interests and the interests of the United Nations as a whole.

The Soviet delegation at the third session of the UN General Assembly has objected to the proposal to terminate the work of the Atomic Commission and has consistently sought to reach agreement and find a basis for the continuance of the work of the Atomic Commission in the direction indicated by the General Assembly's decisions of January 24 and December 14, 1946. With this aim in view, the Soviet delegation has made a new proposal: that the convention prohibiting the atomic weapon and the convention establishing international control should be signed and go into force simultaneously.

As noted by the delegates of a number of countries, as well as by a section of the world press, the Soviet delegation has thereby made a considerable concession, a concession prompted by the desire to reach agreement. This concession removed the obstacle which the majority on the Atomic Commission saw in the demand of the Soviet representatives that the convention prohibiting the atomic weapon be concluded first, and the convention on control go into force later.

But, as against the desire of the Soviet delegation to reach an agreement on this issue, the delegations of the Western Powers have persisted in their previous line of showing no desire to reach agreement. Moreover, the Western Powers are doing everything in their power to prevent agreements being reached and to disrupt the fulfillment of the General Assembly's resolutions on the prohibition of the atomic weapon, discontinuance of the armaments drive and establishment of international control to supervise the implementation of these measures.

The Canadian resolution was adopted against the votes of the Soviet Union and the people's democracies and with the delegations of 11 countries abstaining. Thus, 17 delegations refused to support the scheme which is being imposed on the General Assembly, under which the Atomic Commission is to waste its time in dilly-dallying.

The head of the Ukrainian delegation, D. Z. Manuilsky, drew attention to the real weight of the countries represented by the 17 delegations and pointed out that five or six countries in Eastern Europe—which are said to be the "minority"—have a population of about 250 million, equal to that of the United States plus the countries of Central and South America, which together dispose of 21 votes in the United Nations.

Furthermore, no one has taken a world-referendum on the American plan for international control, which supposedly has the support of 14 States. In spite of the high-pressure propaganda carried on in favor of this plan by certain circles, there is no doubt that the overwhelming majority of the peoples want the immediate prohibition of the atomic weapon and its elimination from national armaments; they want atomic energy to be utilized solely for peaceful purposes; and in order to achieve these goals, they want effective control to be established over atomic energy.

As A. Y. Vyshinsky stressed in his speech at the plenary meeting of the General Assembly on November 4, the minority of the delegations at the General Assembly is actually backed by the overwhelming majority of the population of the world. "As far as the people are concerned," Vyshinsky said, "it is clear that the minority in the present Assembly actually represents the majority of the peoples of the world: who support the idea of peace and denounce the warmongers, who demand efforts to safeguard peaceful existence throughout the world and who raise their voices in anger against all attempts to impede the accomplishment of this cardinal task which is written into the United Nations Charter, but which unfortunately has so far not been carried out as demanded by the Charter and by the consciousness of our duty."

West Knew Outcome

Berlin's Double Money Chaos No Real Surprise

By Boris Izakov

WHEN the Western Powers introduced a special currency in their sectors of Berlin, they were well-aware of the implications of such an action. Imagine for a moment two different currencies in circulation in the city you know best—New York, let us say. You can easily picture the incredible chaos that would be created by the introduction of a separate currency for even one borough of New York—for example, Brooklyn. One can say without fear of exaggeration that such a situation would end in disaster for the economic life of not only Greater New York but the adjoining area as well.

And yet the Western Powers did not hesitate to undertake such an "experiment" in Berlin.

It should be remembered that Berlin is situated in the center of the Soviet occupation zone in Germany. And economic disaster in Berlin would naturally lead to grave economic disturbances in the Soviet Zone as a whole. But this economic dislocation was apparently what the Western Powers planned when they introduced their separate currency in Berlin.

In the light of the "cold war" strategy, the introduction of a separate currency in Berlin had but one meaning: it meant that the dollar, backed by the pound sterling and with the franc in hitch, had launched a broad economic offensive upon the Soviet occupation zone. It was apparent that the Anglo-American bloc had decided to wage economic warfare with the Soviet occupation authorities in Germany.

Did the initiators of this measure believe that it would create such deep economic chaos in the Soviet zone that the position of the Soviet occupation authorities would be completely undermined? It is hard to say. But at any rate, with the aid of the dollar, the Anglo-Americans decided to test the strength of the Soviet position.

Thus, the introduction of a separate currency in Berlin by the Western Powers was another move in the "cold war," a move calculated in the final analysis to oust the Soviet occupation authorities from Germany—where their presence accords with international treaties and agreements. The aggressive character of this move is unquestionable. From the Soviet point of view, it is part and parcel of the aggressive policy of the Anglo-American and French ruling circles, the policy to which J. V. Stalin referred in his recent interview with a *Pravda* correspondent.

I should like to direct the attention of the American public to one point in the Soviet Government note of October 3—namely, the statement to the effect that the situation in Berlin arose only when the Governments of the USA, Great Britain and France undertook the separate currency reform in the Western zones of Germany and their three sectors of Berlin.

This statement accords with the facts.

In his letter of June 20, Marshal Sokolovsky warned General Clay in advance that the Soviet occupation authorities could not permit the existence of two currencies in Berlin. Even the financial experts of the Western Powers declared at the June 22 conference that they fully appreciated the inadvisability of any currency being in circulation in Berlin other than the Soviet currency. Acting in violation of the considered opinion of their own experts, the Western Powers deliberately adopted the course of aggravating the Berlin situation.

So much has been written during the last few weeks about the "blockade of Berlin" and the "poor, democratic Berliners" who are allegedly suffering from the restrictions imposed by the Soviet authorities upon transport communications between Berlin and Western Germany! Mark Twain was obviously right when he said: "One of the striking differences between a cat and a lie is that a cat only has nine lives."

The restrictions on communications between Berlin and Western Germany were imposed by the Soviet authorities with the sole aim of safeguarding the Soviet occupation zone against the economic offensive of the dollar strategists. Immediately after imposing these restrictions, the Soviet authorities offered to assume full responsibility for supplying food and fuel to the population of all the sectors of Berlin. And if after this there is still talk about a "blockade of Berlin," then this blockade is being perpetrated by those who rejected the Soviet authorities' proposal.

The Berlin question could be settled very simply if there were the will to settle it. The Soviet Government is merely demanding that there should be no second currency in Berlin—for a second currency creates an impossible situation in the Soviet occupation zone. Moreover, a method has been proposed by which agreement could be reached without injuring anybody's prestige. This method consists of the simultaneous lifting of the transport restrictions and the withdrawal of the Western mark from circulation in Berlin.

This was the spirit of the agreement of August 30, reached during the Moscow negotiations on the Berlin question. Unfortunately, the Governments of the USA and Great Britain disavowed their representatives in Moscow and declared this agreement null and void. A similar agreement was reached on October 24 in the course of the unofficial negotiations conducted in Paris between the USSR representative, Vyshinsky, and the president of the Security Council, Dr. Bramuglia.

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Result of Socialism

Personal Property Holdings Grow

By S. Konstantinov

THE economic foundation of the USSR is the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production and the socialist system of economy. In other words, all the material resources of the country—the land, the factories, the plants, transport, banks, etc.—are public property, are utilized in the interests of the entire people.

Alongside of public socialist property, the Soviet Union guarantees its citizens the right to own personal property. This right is protected by law.

Soviet citizens employed in government enterprises, on collective farms and in co-operative organizations; men of science and technicians, as well as writers, artists and musicians are paid for their labor in accordance with its quantity and quality. This remuneration is the foundation of their economic security and the means by which individuals acquire personal property.

Competent, conscientious work in plants, factories and mines brings Soviet workers high returns, because the great majority of enterprises conform to a progressive piecework system of pay in which every article made above a certain norm brings a higher rate of pay. The members of collective farms, in addition to their earnings from the co-operative economy of the farms, have an income from their personal property—their own gardens, cattle, apiaries, etc.

Far from limiting the amount of personal property or savings that Soviet citizens may acquire, the Soviet Government does everything in its power to stimulate the growth of the prosperity of the population, helps them to acquire articles of great value. For example, the Government annually spends hundreds of thousands of rubles on long-term preferential credit to workers, peasants and intellectuals who wish to build their own homes, and to people who have returned to the USSR from abroad and need help in establishing new homes.

Workers and collective farmers in the USSR derive a considerable income from inventions, suggestions for improving production, as well as from premiums and other special remunerations given for the introduction of new and highly productive methods of work. Technicians and men of science are highly rewarded for outstanding scientific work. Soviet citizens also have a source of income in the numerous winnings on government loan bonds and from the interest which accumulates on their savings accounts.

There is an ever-increasing number of workers and collective farmers, writers and scientists, doctors and employees in the USSR who own their own comfortable apartments or cottages, automobiles, motorcycles, musical instruments, works of art, etc. All these things, acquired by using their personal incomes, are the personal property of the citizens, property which they alone have the right to dispose of as they see fit.

Any attempt to deprive Soviet citizens of their personal property is severely punished by Soviet law.

The enemies of socialism have greatly slandered and continue to distort this fact, accusing the Soviet Government of wishing to do away with all kinds of property. Such persons try frantically to "prove" that the abolition of capitalist property denotes the abolition of personal freedom. All these vicious libels against socialism are dictated by the desire of its enemies to preserve the capitalist system at all costs—to perpetuate the exploitation of the overwhelming majority of the people by an insignificant minority, to maintain the power of capital over labor.

In reality, socialism does not abolish property in general. It simply does not recognize capitalist property, which, in the hands of a small group of owners, serves as a means of economic, political and spiritual oppression of the people, a means of the continual suppression of the personal freedom of all the working people. Socialism replaces private ownership with socialist, public ownership of factories, natural resources, etc. Far from abolishing the personal property of citizens acquired by means of their work-income, socialism safeguards this property by law.

It is not socialism that deprives the masses of the people of personal property. On the contrary, it is a well-known fact that in the process of competitive struggle in nonsocialist countries, powerful economic forces ruin great numbers of small-property owners—small and middle businessmen, shareholders, small industrialists, craftsmen, farmers, Tens of millions of unemployed in many countries are thus forced to give up the belongings acquired by dint of their labor—their savings, their most essential possessions—in order to keep from starving.

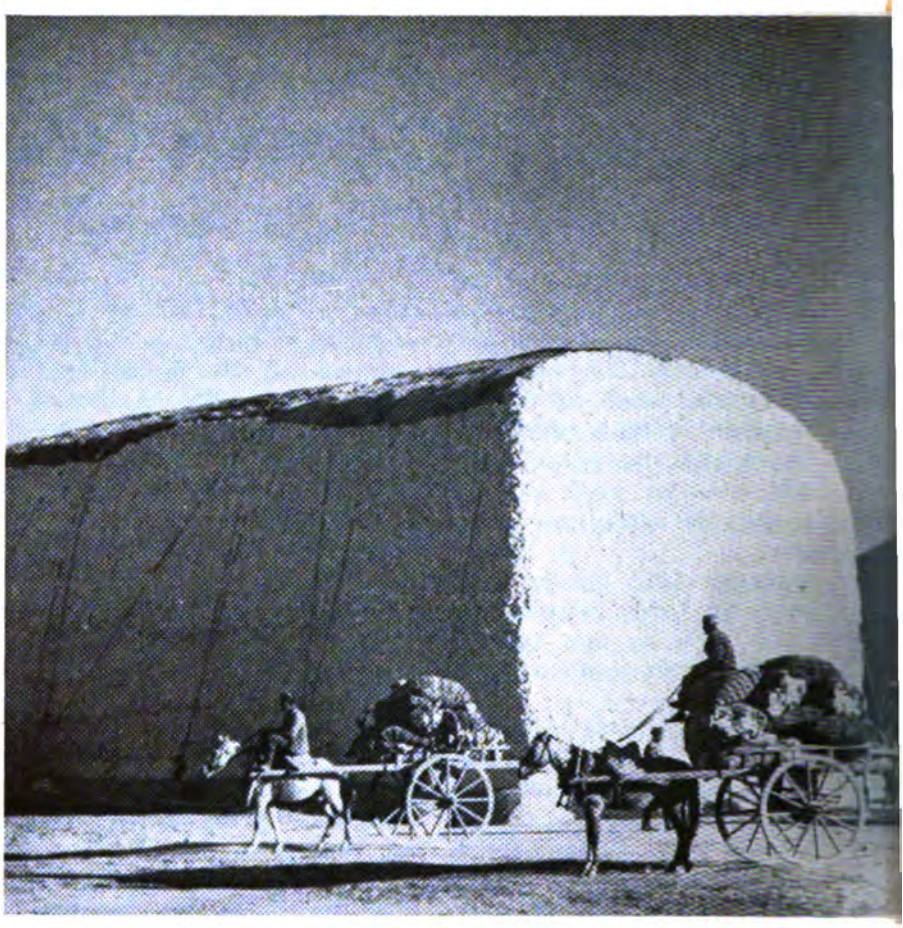
In contradistinction to capitalist countries, there is not a single landless peasant in the USSR. Each collective farm peasant is co-owner of the public lands of his collective farm, which are guaranteed to the latter in perpetuity. In addition, every collective farm peasant owns his own house, and personal plot of land.

In the USSR, where unemployment is unknown, the material well-being of the Soviet people is increasing from year to year. As a result of the achievements of the national economy, the wage fund of the Soviet workers and management doubled in the past year alone. And as a result of the monetary reform carried out in the country last year, and the abolition of the rationing system—followed by the reduction in prices in the government and co-operative stores and on the collective farm markets—the buying power of the Soviet ruble has more than doubled.

All this makes for a still greater increase of the income of the Soviet people, and therefore for an increase of the personal property of the people of the USSR—personal property which is safeguarded by law and guaranteed by the rapidly growing wealth of the country.

Soviet News in Pictures

NEW DISHES. The "Pravda" Porcelain Works in Dulev makes fine china.



UZBEK COTTON. Bales from the harvest are shown at the Samarkand Cotton G
Acreage sown to cotton was substantially in

SINGING SOVIET NATIONAL ANTHEM. Members of the company of the Moscow Art Theater join the All-Un
Jubilee Celebration of the famous theater in singing the Soviet National Anthem at the 50th An

where Uzbek farmers deliver their crop.
year.

ee named to celebrate the Golden
ebration in Moscow.

AMATEUR ARTISTS. Young members of a student dance ensemble of Lvov.

MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE. Employees of the Ministry of Agriculture carry emblems and posters heralding the achievements of Soviet farmers in the 31st anniversary of the Revolution celebration in Moscow.

Busy Farmers Lay Groundwork For Great War on Drought

THE black, naked fields of Soviet state and collective farms bustled with unusual activity this autumn.

Although the crops were in and the grain and produce were delivered to the great granaries, warehouses, silos and markets, hundreds of thousands of farmers were back in the fields. And they were aided by numerous machines, by tractors and horses.

Instead of fall's quiet bareness on Soviet fields—a rural cheerlessness that had been customary for hundreds of generations, farmers were busy in November's chill, planting field-protecting shelter-belts of trees. They were also throwing up banks for man-made ponds and digging irrigation canals.

The Soviet farmer is warring on drought and erosion in a planned, socialist program to end the menace that has brought crop failures once every three years to the Volga valley; once every four to the central black soil zone and about once in every six years to the southeastern part of the Ukraine.

Additionally, this activity in the fields during November was concerned with autumn and fallow plowing on a greater scale than ever before. By November 1 autumn plowing had been completed on approximately 32 million acres more than were plowed in the fall of 1947. This means that collective farmers will be able to sow an additional area of autumn-plowed land in the spring equal to the entire wheat sowing areas of France, Germany and England combined.

But the long range, and major task is the protective forest belt program being carried out on the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks).

Although the recently-announced program will not begin until 1949, the present activity is designed to prepare for it, and to complete preliminary work—to have all in readiness for the beginning of man's all-out war against the destructive forces of nature.

SHELTERING TREES. Evergreens like these, acclimatized in the arid regions, do much to protect the fields.

Even before Soviet times, progressive Russian scientists were aware of the need for radical measures to combat drought and knew that low and unstable yields in the black-earth steppes were due to the soil losing its lumpy structure. They knew this came from rapacious plowing of virgin lands under capitalist economy; from the destruction of forests and lack of concern for extending water resources and for setting up new water reservoirs.

Under capitalist and small-scale farming, the rich black earth of the steppelands, the bread-basket of the Soviet Union were doomed to exhaustion—doomed to become barren wastelands.

Only under the Soviet system, under a planned system of socialist agriculture, could the country undertake not only to eradicate the consequences of drought, but even its very causes. This is possible because the socialist organization of agricultural production is founded on advanced science and a high degree of mechanization.

This inspiring war on drought is no limited, one-sided offensive. Victory will be won only by a comprehensive attack from many angles.

The decision, now called the Stalin program for combating drought, calls for the State to set up within the next 15 years, eight major shelter belts whose total length will exceed 3,300 miles, or more than the great circle air route from New York City to Cobh, Ireland across the north Atlantic.

These trees will protect the soil of the steppe areas from the scorching winds which rob it of its moisture and burn the growing crops. This green belt will also prevent the top soil from being blown away and will improve the water-holding characteristics of the land.

The state forest zones will stretch in several rows along the banks of the Volga, the Ural, Don and northern Donets rivers . . . for a length that

exceeds twice the distance from Moscow to Berlin.

Trees for these zones will be chosen scientifically. For every soil and climatic zone, and for every state protective forest zone, the Stalin program recommends specified types of trees.

The most prominent place is given to the oak, a valuable tree distinguished by its long life and resistance to effects of the climate. Fruit trees and bushes will comprise between a tenth and fifteenth of all the plantings.

Fifteen years is a short time in which to propose completing such a vast program. But the Soviet Government and the Soviet farmers are determined to accomplish it and to see miraculous green belts stretch along the Urals, the Volga, and Don, all the way up to the Dniester.

Territories, regions and republics exceeding the area of many European states are to crisscrossed by wooded windbreaks. The belts will include the Siberian apple . . . a small tree with an unusually luxuriant crown and bearing thousands of blossoms.

Because of the exact planning in this great plan, the dreams of Ivan Michurin, great Russian remaker of nature, are coming true. Michurin gave thought to shelter-belts, how and where to plant them, what trees and shrubs to use and how many seedlings were needed to transform this country into a flourishing garden.

And now the Stalin program calls for the golden currant developed by Michurin. It will employ the field cherry that he brought out, his field prune and his field sweet bird-cherry. These were destined not for orchards, but for fields. They grow straight from seed and fear neither winter's blizzards nor early spring frosts. Entire forests of these "field" trees will yield sweet fruit every year. They are not miracles wrought in fairy tales. They are things we have already accomplished.

Similarly, the scientific foundation for this plan did not develop overnight. It was built up gradually, modestly, in the quiet of hundreds of experimental stations and dozens of scientific research institutes by the finest scientists, who have been studying the soils, forests and rivers of vast areas for years.

FARM INNOVATOR. Ivan Ukrainsky, farmer of the Altai, has planted shelter belts and fruit orchards where none grew before.

Hundreds of thousands of collective farmers and state farm workers in the Salsk steppes put up green protective belts of trees to safeguard their fields from the hot, scorching winds of Asia and remade the geography of this age-old semidesert land.

Hundreds of thousands of workers of the Soviet land built factories and power stations, dug canals and water reservoirs, planted greenery in town and country—these and thousands of other similar endeavors, built the solid foundation for the Soviet country's advance at seven-league strides.

Although the Soviet Union already has a large chain of state forest nurseries, they will be inadequate for handling the tremendous scope of work under the new program. The Government decision therefore calls for establishing 120 new state nurseries on the most fertile lands.

These protective forest plantations will require a tremendous amount of labor . . . and 570 protective forestry stations are to be set up to speed the extensive mechanization of this work. Each such station will have 18 to 28 tractors of various makes, scores of bulldozers, scrapers, excavators, graders and watering installations. Soviet industrial enterprises will increase their output of machines needed for afforestation of the land.

Large numbers of skilled specialists will be required in forestry, melioration and mechanization. More than 20 higher schools are now training these specialists.

Drought and desert have met a worthy foe in the Soviet people. Erosion faces its doom in the USSR. The Soviet farmer and his Government know that men should hate deserts, the barren earth. And now the Soviet citizen has decided to stop the hot dry winds and the flying sands that carry death to harvests.

These new forests soon to develop in the Soviet countryside are not mere decorations. They are the farmer's faithful assistants in the never-ending struggle for richer harvests. They preserve moisture, maintain the high-water mark in our great rivers, temper the climate, halt hot winds and sands. They act as condensers of all forms of moisture—dew, fogs, frost. In forests and in the lands around them, subterranean waters lie much closer to the surface than in woodless regions. Forests stop the growth of gullies and ravines. Forests are a source of both health and inspiration. They are green laboratories producing oxygen and absorbing poisonous gases and dust.

In order to comprehend what powerful shelter against dust can be provided by forests, one should know that the surface area of the needles on one old pine tree is equal to about 124 miles.

Forest planning is not really new

(Continued on page 749)

Soviet People Will Soon Choose Their Judges and Assessors

In the land of socialism the people will soon go to the polls to elect the tens of thousands of men and women who for the next three years will administer a people's justice.

Starting in mid-December, and during the next two months, elections of officials of people's courts—of people's judges and people's assessors—will be held throughout the Soviet Union. These officials will hold office for three years.

WHAT are people's courts? They are the primary local courts, which hear and decide the overwhelming majority of criminal and civil cases; the basic units of the Soviet judicial system.

A distinctive feature of the Soviet people's court, in which it differs from courts of similar jurisdiction in most countries, is the election, by universal, equal, and secret vote, not only of its judges, but of its "jurors"—the people's assessors.

The fact that, as in all Soviet elections, a large majority of the electorate regularly votes in elections of court officials and participates in their nomination, assures the democratic composition of these courts.

On the bench of each people's court sit a judge and two people's assessors.

Though lawyers are often elected to the bench, a formal legal education is not a mandatory qualification for election to the post of people's judge.

The judge "sits" continually; his sole work is to dispense Soviet justice. The people's assessors, on the other hand are full-time cooks and mechanics, drop-forge men and tractor drivers, welders and clerks, doctors and combine operators, milling-machine operators and railway switchmen. In each city or rural election district a panel of 50 to 75 assessors is elected to the people's court, and each serves a term of no more than ten days a year, receiving during that period his average on-the-job earnings. In this way the hum of the factory and the smell of the fresh earth of the collective farm are brought to the bench: to the judge's chambers are brought the richness and variety of the everyday experiences of ordinary working people—for which there is no substitute.

The people's assessors sit on the bench as full participants. At the conclusion of each case the court's decision is reached by simple majority vote. If the judge's opinion is the minority view, the opinion of the people's assessors is the official ruling.

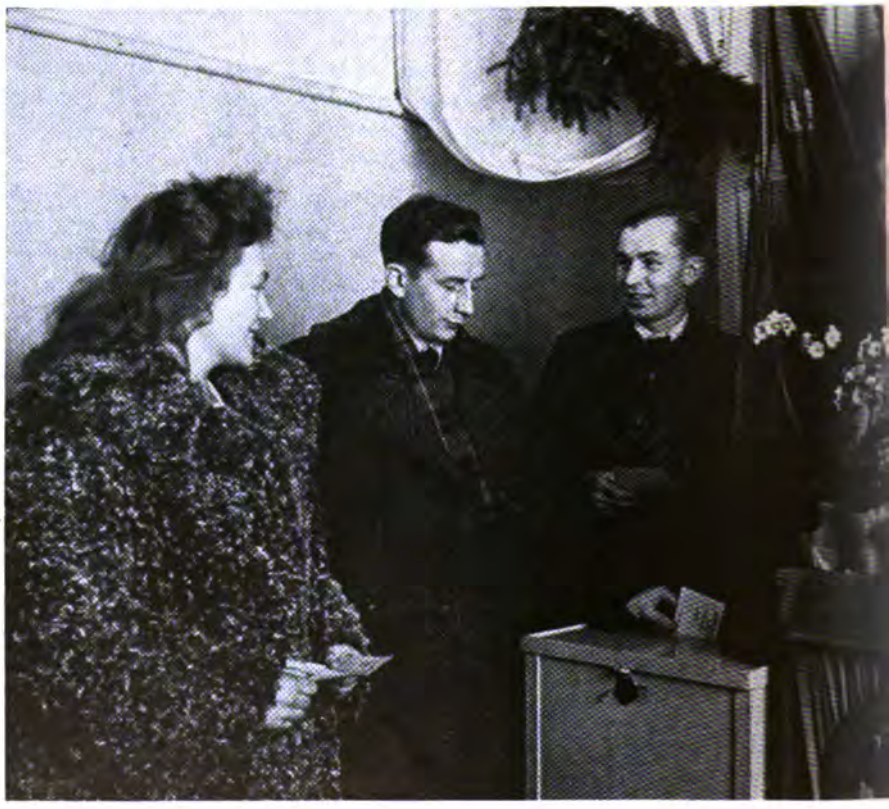
No case is heard in a people's court without the assistance of assessors. No defendant may waive the participation of these representatives of the people.

"Judicial proceedings," directs the Constitution of the USSR, "are conducted in the language of the Union Republic, Autonomous Republic or Autonomous Region, persons not knowing this language being guaranteed the opportunity of fully acquainting themselves with the material of the case through an interpreter and likewise the right to use their own language in court."

All trials in people's courts are completely open to the public.

The process of law in the Soviet Union is imbued with the spirit of democracy. Any citizen may apply to the court for protection, or in civil complaints may bring suit against anybody. Each accused person, conversely, has the right to a legal defense free of charge, and the right to call witnesses and technical experts without expense to himself.

The accused may appeal any decision



EVERYBODY VOTES. These students of Moscow higher educational institutions vote along with workers, farmers, scientists and persons of all races.

of the people's court to a higher court; in this case, the sentence or the decision of the people's court cannot be executed until the highest court appealed to has ruled on the appeal.

Soviet judges and people's assessors are responsible to the entire people: they serve no special interests. They are subject only to the law: they may be removed from office only when they are recalled by their electorate or by sentence of another court. If a judge or an assessor is removed by his electorate, an election is promptly held to fill the vacancy.

Soviet justice is based upon the concept of equal responsibility and equal guilt. This is no idle and unfulfilled ideal. All Soviet citizens are equal before the law: the director of a giant enterprise or a minister of industry is as quickly and severely punished for a crime as a common laborer.

THE manner of nomination and election of judges and assessors also reveals the vibrant reality of Soviet democracy.

Candidates for the people's courts may be nominated by any public organization: by trade-union organizations; Communist Party organizations; artisans', producers' and consumers' co-operatives; cultural organizations; youth organizations. Candidates may also be nominated by Soviet armed forces units, university student bodies, and by general meetings of the workers and peasants of any factory or collective farm.

Who may be nominated? Any citizen who has reached the age of 23—irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin, property status, or past activities—with the one qualification that the prospective nominee has never been convicted of a crime.

National and racial exclusiveness is as foreign to the process of selecting court officials as it is to all other fields of Soviet life. A nominee who has the respect of the community is often of a different nationality than that of a majority of his constituents. Thus, Soviet people do not think it remarkable when a Turkmenian, a Tajik or an Uzbek is elected as a judge or people's assessor in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, nor when a Russian or Ukrainian is elected to a people's court in Lithuania or Kazakhstan.

The spirit as well as the letter of Soviet law is vigorously wrought into action in regard to women, too. It is not unusual to see three women sitting in session at a people's court: thousands of Soviet women are judges and assessors.

The Soviet people not only have the right to participate, but are strongly urged by public and governmental bodies to take part in the nominations, in the campaigning for candidates, and in the elections. Everywhere—in factories, on the collective and state farms, in the streets and in the parks and palaces of culture—huge posters proclaim the coming event. The radio announces the elections and urges the people to take part in the preliminary work and to vote. Newspapers—plant and farm "wall" newspapers as well as the big dailies—publish the election regulations and other news on the elections. Talks are given in palaces of culture and in factories and on farms on the election laws and how the people's courts function.

Each Republic publishes a set of *Regulations* which will govern the forthcoming elections: the organization of election precincts, establishment of polling places, voting procedure, counting of ballots, etc. The *Regulations* differ from republic to republic in superficial detail, but fundamentally are alike.

The local Soviets of Working People's Deputies (legislatures) see that the *Regulations* are carried out; they also set the date for the elections—which always fall on a nonworking day—usually Sunday—except in areas of the Soviet Union which have a large Moslem population; here election day is usually set for a Friday.

The local Soviets compile the lists of voters—all persons of 18 years of age or more who live in the election district (including those who are residing there temporarily—such persons, however, as all other Soviet citizens, are limited to only one vote)—with the exception of insane persons and those who have been deprived of the right to vote by a court decision.

Twenty days before the elections, these lists are posted for public inspection to enable the people to ascertain whether they have been registered properly, and to demand that errors and omissions be corrected. Election precincts are established where the voters will cast their ballots.

The local Soviets register the nominees, appoint representatives to the election precincts and provide the ballots.

And now, while the election preparations are proceeding intensively, the incumbent judges and assessors must report on their work to meetings of workers and peasants—to the people who elected them. The man on the bench is held strictly accountable to his electorate.

On election day the polls will be open from 6 A. M. to midnight. Every polling place has a voting booth, in which the voter has an absolute right to secrecy. After the voter marks his ballot, he drops it into a sealed ballot box. At midnight the boxes are opened and the vote is counted by a special committee appointed by the local Soviet. Representatives of all public organizations and of the press have a right to be present during the counting.

To be elected, a candidate for people's judge or assessor has to poll an absolute majority of the votes that are cast—in other words, more than half the ballots cast in the district. If none of the candidates receives an absolute majority, a runoff election is held within two weeks between the two candidates who received the highest number of votes.

The right to elect people's courts—as well as all other democratic rights—is backed to the hilt by Soviet law. The *Regulations* of the Russian SFSR, for example, provide for two years' imprisonment for any person who by fraud, violence, intimidation or bribery attempts to hinder a citizen of the USSR in the exercise of his right to elect—or his right to be elected—to the office of people's judge or assessor. Even greater punishment is provided for officials who falsify election documents or falsely count the votes.

Soviet laws and courts have but one purpose: to protect the rights of the common man. And the working people, through their broad participation in the formation and functioning of the courts, ensure that they shall worthily serve this purpose.

Kuznetsov Issues Statement

British Labor Congress Hit For Blow at WFTU

On October 27, 1948, the General Council of the British Trades Union Congress adopted a proposal that the World Federation of Trade Unions temporarily suspend its activities and declared that should it refuse to do so, the British TUC would disaffiliate.

In a statement to "Trud" on the British TUC decision, V. V. Kuznetsov, Chairman of the Soviet All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions said:

THE proposal of the General Council of the British TUC for a temporary cessation of the activities of the World Federation of Trade Unions is profoundly erroneous and harmful for the international trade-union movement and for the working class of Great Britain in particular.

The adoption of the proposal for a temporary cessation of the activities of the WFTU would cause grave damage to the cause of the international trade-union movement and to the vital interests of the working people, and would be of advantage only to those who want to split the ranks of the working class and to weaken it.

The motive cited by the General Council in justification of its decision —i.e., the existence of differences in the WFTU—is not convincing. It stands to reason that in the Federation, as in other mass organizations of this kind, there are bound to be different views on certain questions. This is quite natural, for the Federation unites in its ranks trade unions of the entire world irrespective of race, nationality, religion or political belief.

But the existence of different views on certain questions does not at all signify that there must inevitably be insurmountable differences in the Federation; the existence of different views can in no way serve as a reason for the cessation of WFTU activities, or for the disaffiliation of one or another national trade-union center from the Federation.

V. V. Kuznetsov

The experience of the WFTU during the past three years has shown that the existence of different viewpoints on separate questions is no obstacle to international co-operation of the trade unions, if the trade unions are guided by the common interests of the working class and the working people in all countries of the world, and by the principles upon which the WFTU was founded. The fact that all the decisions of the leading bodies of the WFTU have been adopted unanimously—including the decisions of the Executive Bureau meeting, held in Paris in September, 1948—attests to the interest of the trade-union organizations affiliated to the WFTU in concerted decisions and actions.

The decision of the General Council of the British TUC of October 27, 1948 was prompted not by the activities of the WFTU or of any of its national trade-union centers, but apparently by some other considerations of which the leaders of the British trade unions make no mention.

The World Federation of Trade Unions is the most important organization of the working class in its struggle to better the living conditions of the workers and all the working people, for their economic and social rights and liberties, in the struggle of the working class against reaction, against the propaganda and preparation of a new war, and in its struggle for a stable and lasting peace among the nations. Under present conditions, when the working people have to wage a severe struggle against the offensive of the capitalist monopolies on the living standard of the popular masses, the need for strengthening international trade-union unity and for furthering WFTU activities is greater than ever.

The World Federation of Trade Unions must and shall exist on the basis of the principles formulated in its Charter—for this is essential for the interests of the working class of the whole world. It is also essential for the interests of the workers of Great Britain, who cannot fail to see that a cessation of the activities of the WFTU would weaken the international solidarity of the working class and would merely play into the hands of the Churchills and their friends in the camp of reaction and imperialist aggression.

It is the task of all the national trade-union centers affiliated to the Federation to do everything to strengthen the unity of the international trade-union movement, to strengthen the Federation and to make certain that its activities are not terminated.

As for the Soviet trade unions, they are prepared to continue their co-operation with all the trade-union centers, including the British TUC, and to take all the necessary steps to ensure the success of the WFTU undertakings in defense of the vital interests of the working class and its democratic rights, to ensure the success of the struggle for a stable and lasting world peace. These very aims prompt the Soviet trade unions to oppose even a temporary cessation of the activities of the World Federation of Trade Unions, and to work for the still greater consolidation of trade-union unity.

Prefabricated Housing Booms in USSR As New Buildings Rise

By I. Vizen

More than 60 plants turning out prefabricated houses are operating in the Soviet Union today. This branch of industry, comparatively new in the country, is developing fast. This year's production program calls for as many houses as were built during the two previous years.

The development of prefabricated housebuilding reflects the general Soviet tendency to "industrialize" building.

Gregory Kolomnin, chief engineer of the housebuilding office of the Ministry of the Building-Materials Industry, told me:

"Pretty soon we will spread out from prefabricated housebuilding to prefabricated factory-building."

The development of this industry is directly linked with the immense work of restoration going on throughout the country. It must be remembered that the enemy destroyed about one-third of the dwelling area of Soviet cities. Prefabricated housebuilding, therefore, is playing an important role for it permits the rapid erection of houses for those persons who lost their homes during the war.

But the horizon is not limited to providing houses for those victims of war. New Soviet towns and cities are growing around new industrial centers where the location of natural resources brings about a quick concentration of population. Houses that can be built in a matter of days or even hours, best solve the housing problem of such rapidly-developing towns. It is especially important to apply prefabrication methods in new mining centers, where, as in the Donbas, no timber is available nearby.

Several federal and republican ministries are operating their own prefabricated-housing plants. These plants are well-financed and stocked with raw materials.

For instance, the plants of the Ministry of the Building-Materials Industry this year produced almost three times as many prefabricated houses as were produced before the war. Such a tempo is not a passing phenomenon. On the contrary, this industry is developing on a permanent basis.

The immense, almost boundless forests in the northern belt of the USSR provide inexhaustible raw material for the housebuilding plants. The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic, the Urals and Siberia have several factories which each produce as many as seven thousand houses per year. These plants manufacture all the structural details for the houses, including thermo-insulation and facing materials.

Two tendencies characterize Soviet prefabricated housebuilding. The first one is to standardize as many structural details as possible and to reduce their number of parts. This makes for economy, durability and quick assembly.

The other tendency is based on the desire to provide the people with as great a variety of houses as possible from which to choose.

"We most definitely reject cliches in the architecture of prefabricated houses. We are endeavoring to offer variety both in outward appearance and interior arrangement," said Fyodor Lazovsky, chief architect of the Building-Materials Industry. He added that the industry has already created more than one hundred types of houses. Neither, he declared, do any two plants turn out the same type of houses.

"We are making every effort to satisfy as many individual tastes as possible," Lazovsky said.

Variety in house construction is achieved not only by exterior architectural structure—general outline, porches, terraces, color and facing materials. "Our architects," Lazovsky explained, "are now creating whole ensembles of prefabricated houses in which every house is planned according to the place it will occupy in the block. For instance, corner houses and houses which will have a central location vary from each other considerably, in design."

And here is an interesting detail: not a single new type of prefabricated house can be accepted for production by a plant unless it has been approved by the Committee on Architecture of the Council of Ministers of the USSR. The board of experts passing on new projects consists of members of the Academy of Architecture of the USSR, and other prominent architects.

A prefabricated cottage usually consists of two or three rooms plus kitchen, bath, closets and other conveniences. There are also prefabricated houses of the two-, four-, six-, and eight-family types. Such houses were designed after the war when it became imperative to give people housing as quickly as possible. But even these houses provide for a maximum of privacy—the architects solved the problem of isolating each apartment and of providing each apartment with an individual private yard or garden. Some of the apartments are of the duplex type.

The Soviet people as a whole like prefabricated houses. The development of this industry is being helped along by a system of state credits for home-builders. Loans are repayable in 10 years and this makes them easy to meet. The monthly installment is usually no more than the regular rent would be for a similar dwelling in an apartment house, which is between five and six per cent of the tenant's income.

As to the plot for the house, service buildings, garden or yard, etc., this is furnished to the builder by the local Soviet. Land, being national property, of course, cannot be sold. It can only be allocated for use.

'City Fathers' Contact Electors

Busy Life of Soviet Deputy Bans Bureaucracy

By V. Barykin

First of a series on the functioning of local Soviets (legislative bodies). These articles are sequels to a recent series on elections to local Soviets.

HAVING seen in the preceding articles how deputies to the Moscow and Leningrad Soviets are nominated and elected, we may now examine the operations of these bodies.

After having been certified to office by their electoral districts, the new deputies attend the first session of the newly elected City Soviet.

In Moscow, the first meeting is held about a month after the elections. Last year it was opened by the oldest deputy, Alexei Shchusev, the eminent architect, a non-Party member. Shchusev has designed more than one hundred of the country's noted structures, including the Tomb of Lenin.

Shchusev's short opening speech was concluded with these words:

"Comrade deputies, let us always bear in mind the wise teaching of the great Stalin that the deputy is the servant of the people, that the deputy has and can have no greater concern than the welfare of the broad masses. Let us maintain close contact with our constituents and pay careful heed to their needs and requirements. Let our efforts strengthen the power of the Soviet Union—the bulwark of democracy, peace and security of the nations. Let us everywhere and in all cases follow the example of selfless struggle and the work of the great leaders, Lenin and Stalin."

At this first session of the Moscow Soviet, an executive committee of 23 members was elected, along with a chairman, deputy chairman and secretary.

The first session also approved the appointment of the heads of departments and sections of the executive committee, comprising a total of 34 persons. All were men and women well-fitted to conduct the affairs of a big municipality's economy.

Another task of the first session of the Moscow Soviet was the discussion of the formation of its standing commissions. It decided to organize twelve permanent commissions to deal with: budget; housing; fuel and power; gas supply; transport and communications; city planning; industry; trade; public dining halls; health protection; schools; and culture.

To fill these commissions the City Soviet elected 136 of its members. They included factory workers, architects, doctors, engineers, teachers, actors, builders, heads of various institutions and organizations.

For instance, the housing commission included Samodurov, head of the Metro (subway) Construction Department; and a bricklayer, Shavlugin; those chosen for the commission on industry included Minister Chesnakov and a noted Stakhanovite factory worker, Matrosov.

In Leningrad's City Soviet, 201 deputies, 139 men ond 62 women, were elected to its twelve standing

DEPUTY. Maria Kamkova, a member of the Moscow Soviet of Working People's Deputies, receives a constituen in her office.

commissions. They included 120 members of the Communist Party and 73 non-Party people.

As in Moscow, these deputies attached to the commissions are called upon to improve the work of every sphere of the municipal economy and they apply all their experience and knowledge to the work with due consideration for the wishes of their electors—the people.

What is the composition of these commissions? In Leningrad they included 53 factory and transport workers, 19 of their members were scientific workers, 49 were employees of various city organizations and institutions. They included 6 medical workers, 21 employees of educational institutions and 12 writers and actors.

Over a six-month period these standing commissions of the Leningrad Soviet studied and prepared reports for the consideration of the Soviet's executive committee on 20 varied questions dealing with the life of the city, with the improvement of the work of the city's offices and economic organizations.

Hundreds of deputies unassigned to the commissions joined with 250 electors recruited for municipal work in preparing the questions for discussion. These men and women volunteered to serve in addition to the regularly elected members of the commissions.

With this sort of help, the fuel and power commission headed by Chairman E. Komarov (engineer of the Electrosila plant) weighed the question of the city's gas supply and the construction of new gas mains. In order to accomplish this job, the commission brought in gas specialists, engineers and skilled workers. The final proposals received the approval of the executive committee of the Leningrad Soviet, which adopted a special decision on the basis of the commission's work and report, on the improvement of the gas supply and its delivery to city apartments.

The commission on public health, which was headed by Dr. I. Vinogradov, a physician, enlisted the aid of not only its deputy-members, but of many of the citizens of Leningrad —doctors and other medical workers. With their help, the commission reviewed the medical services of Leningrad and came to the conclusion that the existing system had to be modified. The report of this commission proposed that the Leningrad Soviet should unite the dispensaries with the polyclinics.

In the field of commerce, the Leningrad commission on trade, which was headed by Deputy N. Butin, director of the Leningrad Law Institute, examined the work of seven collective farm markets in the city and heard a report from the director of the city market department. This commission exposed the shortcomings of this work and proposed methods that will considerably improve its operation. The proposal, as is always the case, was submitted to the executive committee of the Leningrad City Soviet, which finally voted its full approval.

City Soviet commissions are kept especially busy prior to meetings of the Soviet. Thus, before the session of the Moscow Soviet which discussed the report of the city department on public health, Dr. Z. Lebedeva, chairman of the commission, organized 23 groups of deputies to inspect the city's medical institutions and the organization of its public health work. In a speech at this session, Deputy Lebedeva criticized the work of the public-health organizations and their leaders. On behalf of the commission, she made a number of proposals for improvement, which the session adopted.

So you see, the deputy in the USSR is the servant of the people. And regardless of whether the deputy works on a commission, takes part in a conference session or inspects another organization, he always maintains his close contact with his electors. He works under their control and observation and fulfills their commands. There are special offices set aside for these conferences with constituents in the Central Electoral area.

During these meetings with electors, deputies report on their work and report on decisions taken by the session or the executive committee of the Soviet. They seek advice from the people, note criticisms and proposals made by the people.

When the Leningrad City Soviet discussed the city budget, Deputy Sokolova called in her electors, told them the major figures in the budget and noted their reactions and comments. Other deputies did the same.

In preparing for this session the budget commission in Leningrad looked into the disagreeing claims of 40 organizations directly interested in the preparation of the city's budget. The commission, after a thorough study, proposed some changes in the budget as submitted by the city's finance department and these amendments were approved in the budget as finally drafted.

One of the Leningrad deputies is Sineoki, a turner in the Leningrad transport-machine-building plant. He meets with his electors each two weeks, giving them a complete account of his activities, the work of the Soviet and its decisions. At one such meeting the electors criticized the work of the factory's housing department and demanded that the Deputy intervene. Sineoki took notes of the protests and proposals and then discussed the question with both the factory administration and executive committee of the Soviet. The factory administration complied with the proposals made by Deputy Sineoki. The premises were repaired, furniture was provided and the complaints met. At the Deputy's request, the executive committee took up the question of housing construction at the plant and approved a number of measures to speed the work.

It is quite the same for other deputies of the Moscow and Leningrad Soviets. Their work is well-known and valued by the people. If any of the electors has a proposal, he submits it to his deputy. If an elector is dissatisfied with the work of one or another institution or employee, he goes to his deputy, who takes steps to rectify the shortcoming if the complaint is found to be well-grounded.

The deputy studies the proposals and makes a report to the executive committee or the proper standing commission. If the question is a private one, the committee takes immediate steps. If it is a matter of general principle, the question is put aside for consideration of the meeting of the City Soviet. During sessions of the Soviet, deputies make constructive proposals, criticize the work of an organization or of its administration and demand better work. They demand swift action and realization of the requests of their electors when such requests are found worthy.

Soviet-Bulgarian Trade Pact Rests on Friendship

By M. Paromov

The following article is the first of a series on the assistance the USSR is rendering Eastern European countries.

THE ties of friendship are strong between the People's Republic of Bulgaria and the Soviet Union. And this friendship is strong because it is based on the deepest interests of the peoples of both countries.

The liberation of Bulgaria by the Soviet Army inspired the Bulgarian working people to unprecedented political activity. On September 9, 1944, they overthrew the old order and set up democratic institutions. And on December 4, 1947, the Republic of Bulgaria adopted a Constitution which guarantees broad political rights and freedom to all Bulgarian citizens irrespective of race, nationality or religion. The citizens of Bulgaria are ensured freedom of speech and of the press. Newspapers and magazines have tremendous circulation and there is no censorship.

But the democratic reforms in the Bulgarian economy are no less sweeping. The industrial enterprises and the banks have been nationalized; as a result of the agrarian reform, the formerly landless peasants and small landowners have received land. The Government is sparing no effort to encourage the organization of producers' and consumers' co-operatives in town and village.

The democratic reforms in political and economic spheres have aroused a new creative initiative in the Bulgarian people, who are working intensively to develop the national economy and the culture of their country.

And in complete accordance with the principles of the United Nations the new Government of Bulgaria is pursuing a policy of peace and co-operation with all nations.

Soon after its liberation, Bulgaria established economic and cultural relations with the Soviet Union. In the years since the Second World War the USSR has supplied Bulgaria with considerable quantities of essential commodities, including cotton, oil products, passenger cars, trucks, ferrous and non-ferrous metals, metal wares, electrical equipment, tractors and other agricultural machinery, artificial fertilizers, chemicals, medicines, tools, and dozens of other types of goods necessary for Bulgaria's industrialization and the development of her economy.

Apart from the shipments of industrial raw materials and equipment—which have played a decisive role in the rehabilitation and reconstruction of the Bulgarian national economy—the USSR has sent important foodstuffs, including the bread-grain and fodder that were so desperately needed in the drought years of 1945, 1946 and 1947. The grain the Soviet Union shipped to Bulgaria in that period met the needs of the entire population of Bulgaria for six months. "This fraternal aid of the Soviet Union saved our people from starvation," wrote the Bulgarian newspaper *The Patriotic Front*.

As a result of its desire to help the people of Bulgaria in the difficult task of rehabilitating and developing their economy, the Soviet Government made some significant concessions to Bulgaria in 1948, concessions which will speed the development of her economy. The USSR cut in half (from nine million to four and one-half million dollars) the sum Bulgaria must pay the Soviet Union for former German assets on Bulgarian territory which by the terms of the peace treaty belong to the USSR, as reparations.

Bulgaria was able to overcome the consequences of the drought and to make considerable headway in the industrialization of the country largely because of the aid granted by the Soviet Union. By the beginning of 1948 Bulgaria had already built and put into operation a number of new enterprises, power stations and roads; this year Bulgaria has invested 59,000,000,000 levs* in new construction. Industrial production in 1947 was 130.5 per cent of the 1939 level; and in the first half of 1948 it rose by 32 per cent as compared with the same period of 1947.

The living standard is improving as the Bulgarian economy is strengthened. Worker's wages this year have increased by four per cent as compared with last year. Simultaneously, the Government has reduced the prices of food and consumer goods.

The upsurge of production is as true in agriculture as it is in industry. Bulgaria now uses mineral fertilizers on a wide scale; and the land is tilled by tractors and other agricultural machinery, which only a few years ago were completely beyond the reach of the Bulgarian peasants. Moreover, the Bulgarian Government has organized machine-and-tractor stations,** so that every peasant may utilize tractors to cultivate his fields. Much of the machinery now being used on Bulgarian farms was supplied on credit by the Soviet Union.

The USSR has helped the Bulgarian people to mechanize agriculture, to restore transport and industry and to ensure the sweeping reconstruction of the country's entire economy: to convert Bulgaria from a backward agrarian country into an advanced industrial and agrarian country.

The following figures indicate the necessity for the reconstruction of the Bulgarian economy: in 1938, industrial production yielded only 8.4 per cent of the national income. It is not surprising, therefore, that the liberated people of Bulgaria are eager not only to restore their war-ravaged economy, but to destroy the backwardness of their economy and to lay a sound foundation for economic independence.

Trade with the USSR and with other countries is developing. Bulgaria

* 288.40 levs=one dollar.

** Machine-and-tractor stations, situated at central locations, loan tractors, combines and other agricultural machinery to farms.

is now exporting some commodities, chiefly agricultural produce.

In 1947 (for the first time since the end of the Second World War) Bulgaria's exports exceeded her imports by more than 3,000,000,000 levs Moreover, the volume of exports not only increased, but exports also sold for higher prices—while prices of imported goods remained on the 1946 level. This is due largely to the readiness of the Soviet Union to supply Bulgaria with the goods she needs most for the reconstruction and development of her economy, and at stable and unfluctuating prices.

In order further to strengthen and expand trade and co-operation, the USSR and Bulgaria on April 1, 1948, signed an agreement on trade and navigation. This agreement is based on the most-favored-nation principle for both parties. The agreement on exchange of commodities and payments, concluded between the USSR and the People's Republic of Bulgaria on July 5, 1947, for the period ending January 1, 1949, is founded on the same principle.

The volume and types of commodities delivered by either side are agreed upon by the governmental authorities of the two countries in accordance with current economic interests, and are specified in special protocols. The latter serve as a basis for trade contracts between the Soviet foreign trade organizations and Bulgarian institutions and persons. In addition, the agreement provides for similar contracts to be concluded outside the protocols, provided that the existing regulations on import and export of goods are not infringed.

"Prices on commodities of the aforesaid transactions," states Article Two of the agreement, "shall be determined in dollars on the basis of world market prices on the day of the transaction."

Referring to the economic co-operation of the USSR and Bulgaria, the Bulgarian newspaper *The Patriotic Front* asserted that because of Soviet deliveries, 72 plants have been rehabilitated, and that of the 53 new plants planned for construction in accordance with the two-year economic program, 26 are nearing completion while preparatory work has begun on the building of the others.

The Bulgarian press, and particularly the magazine *Planned Economy*, the chief organ on Bulgarian economy, has stressed the significance of the USSR's all-round aid in the industrialization of the country and in the development of its economy. In his speech at the Second Congress of the Patriotic Front, Prime Minister Dimitrov said: "The Soviet Union has given us invaluable economic aid in the rehabilitation of our national economy. It has supplied us with machinery, raw materials, food, cattle fodder, credits to the amount of five million dollars, and has consented to build a number of our industrial enterprises."

The postwar economic and political co-operation between the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of Bulgaria was strengthened and further developed in the Treaty of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance signed in Moscow on March 18, 1948. This Treaty expresses the desire of the peoples of the USSR and Bulgaria to co-operate, and to consolidate and extend their economic and cultural relations.

Schooling for Everybody

By Eugene Mar

NIKOLAI KULIKOV is a typical Moscow worker. He is a skilled turner in a Moscow factory in which he has worked for nearly 25 years. There is nothing exceptional about Kulikov or his family.

Kulikov and his wife, Anastasia, have three children: a daughter, Lydia, and two sons, Eugene and Victor.

Every member of this Moscow family is studying. Because of the help the Soviet State provides, it was easy for Kulikov to give his children a higher education. The State itself assumes the major cost.

In accordance with the law on universal compulsory education, all children in the USSR receive free schooling for seven years. Payment of school fees for secondary education (i.e., the eighth, ninth and tenth years) amounts to two hundred rubles annually.

Had the three Kulikov children attended school simultaneously, the cost would have amounted to little over 50 rubles a month. And in view of the fact that Kulikov earns an average of 1,400 rubles a month, the tuition fees would have been less than four per cent of his earnings. Actually, however, the expense was much less than this.

Lydia was graduated from the Moscow State University in 1947 and is now a postgraduate student in philology. She has received a scholarship for her university studies, out of which she has paid the fees of four hundred rubles per year. In her new postgraduate career, she receives a stipend of seven hundred rubles monthly.

Eugene Kulikov, after being demobilized from the army, decided to become a barrister and entered the Moscow Law Institute. He is now a junior and receives a state stipend.

The second son, Victor, was graduated this year from a secondary school, with a gold medal. Consequently, Victor was admitted without preliminary examination, to the Bauman Technical Institute in Moscow. He also receives a state stipend out of which he pays his school fees.

Actually, the Kulikovs have spent nothing on Victor's schooling. Textbooks cost very little, since libraries of schools, institutes and universities provide practically all the necessary books.

Last summer Lydia and Eugene spent their vacations in students' rest homes. The students pay only 30 per cent of the cost, the rest being defrayed by the trade-union organization to which students of higher educational establishments belong.

From this example of the Kulikov family in Moscow, it can be seen that secondary and higher education is quite accessible to the children of average Soviet families.

These are the facts from the life of a Soviet working-class family; these facts show that it is a normal thing for workers' children to acquire a secondary or higher education.

And not only the young folks are studying in this family. Nikolai Kulikov himself, despite his rather advanced age, recently entered the factory training-course for foreman.

Audiences Get Wide Choice

Moscow Opens Theater Season

THEATERGOERS in Moscow, with the major houses currently opening the brilliant winter season, have a choice of a rich and varied fare designed to appeal to every taste.

Contemporary Soviet opera, ballet, and drama, as well as many Russian and Western European classics and an American play, make up the bills at the Bolshoi, Maly, Ermolova and Mossoviet Theaters.

Smetana's *The Bartered Bride*, a splendid comic opera, had a brilliant opening at the Bolshoi Theater of Opera and Ballet. It is to be followed soon by a new production of *Sadko*, an opera by Rimski-Korsakov.

The Bartered Bride won applause that not only approved a successful production, but signified profound appreciation of the rich culture of the Czech people.

A new Russian text was written by the Soviet poet, Sergei Mikhalkov, who rejected the old translations of the libretto, and used original Czech sources as the basis of his version.

Vladimir Dmitriev, who designed both scenery and costumes, sought to reproduce exact natural coloring and to express the stylistic peculiarities and content of Smetana's work.

The opera was produced by V. Pokrovsky, who achieved remarkable results. The mass scenes gladdened the eye of the spectator.

In the cast, the young Soviet singer, Leocadia Maslennikova, played the role of Mozhenka with poetic feeling and feminine grace. Enek, played by G. Nelepp, a noted Soviet singer, is both a devoted, tender lover and a bold, fearless and persistent champion in struggle. The part of the foolish Vacek, brother and unintentional rival of Enek, is played by A. Orfenov with skillful humor.

Also scheduled for the Bolshoi's boards, according to Alexander Solodovnikov, the theater's director, is Yuri Shaporin's opera, *The Decembrists*, on the events of 1825 when the progressive sections of Russian society protested against tsarist tyranny.

Marian Koval is writing an opera entitled *Sevastopol's Defenders* for the Bolshoi. It is based on the heroic defense of that city against the fascists in the recent war.

One of the oldest Soviet composers, Sergei Vasilenko, pupil of Rimski-Korsakov, has presented the Bolshoi with his new ballet, *Mirandolina*, based on the plot of the classic comedy *La Locandiera* by Goldoni.

With the turn of the year, the Bolshoi will mark the 150th anniversary of the birth of the great Russian poet, Alexander Pushkin, with new productions of two musical works based upon his poems. One of them is Modest Moussorgski's opera *Boris Godunov*, always a favorite with Soviet opera-lovers; the other is Reinhold Gliere's *The Bronze Horseman*, a ballet based upon Pushkin's poem of the same title.

In the spring of 1949, the Bolshoi will stage a new production of Gounod's *Faust*.

For Moscow's children, the ballet *The Dragonfly*, based on Krylov's fable—so well-known and loved by Soviet children—is to be presented. The music is by the young Leningrad composer, Yuri Efimov.

Constantine Zubov, art director of the Maly Theater and a People's Artist of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, reports that the winter season will lay emphasis on the contemporary Soviet repertoire.

Opening the Maly's season on November 7 was *A Moscow Character*, a new play by A. Sofronov. The branch of the Maly has prepared *The Pilot's Family*, a play by a young Soviet playwright, V. Suponev, for production. It is based on the life of Soviet airmen. The prototype for the leading character was the great pilot, Valeri Chkalov.

The Maly has accepted *A Son of the Century* by Romanov, centering around a typical young Soviet citizen, and a play by Sofronov, portraying innovators in production and showing the process of growth of the communist attitude toward labor among the Soviet people.

Additionally, Zubov writes, the Maly will show several Russian and world classics. Work has been started on *The Masked Ball* by Lermonotov and *The Inspector General* by Gogol. The latter is being restaged after an

MOSCOW AUDIENCE. Openings are popular.

interval of a few years. Its leads will be played by Ilyinski as Khlestakov and Zharov as Gorodnichi. Pashenaya will play Anna Andreevna.

This winter, Maly audiences will see Schiller's tragedy, *Kabale und Liebe,* and the romantic drama *Ruy-Blas* by Hugo, first shown on the Maly stage 50 years ago. Shakespeare's *Richard III* and *Macbeth* will also be produced. Shakespeare has always occupied an important spot in the Maly's repertoire.

The Maly company is notable this season for its many young artists. Among the talented young actors are M. Komissarov, N. Grigoriev and I. Lubesnov.

Anna Solodova, an actress of the Chekhov Theater in Taganrog, who won first prize in the country-wide competitions for young actors, has also been invited to act at the Maly Theater.

Art Director Andrei Lobanov of the Ermolova Theater, also a People's Artist of the RSFSR, writes that the Ermolova is to open with *Happiness,* adapted from the novel by the Soviet writer, Peter Pavlenko. The leading character is Colonel Voropaev, a war veteran. On his return from the front he finds happiness in the energetic struggle for the recovery of the Crimea, which was so terribly devastated during the fascist invasion.

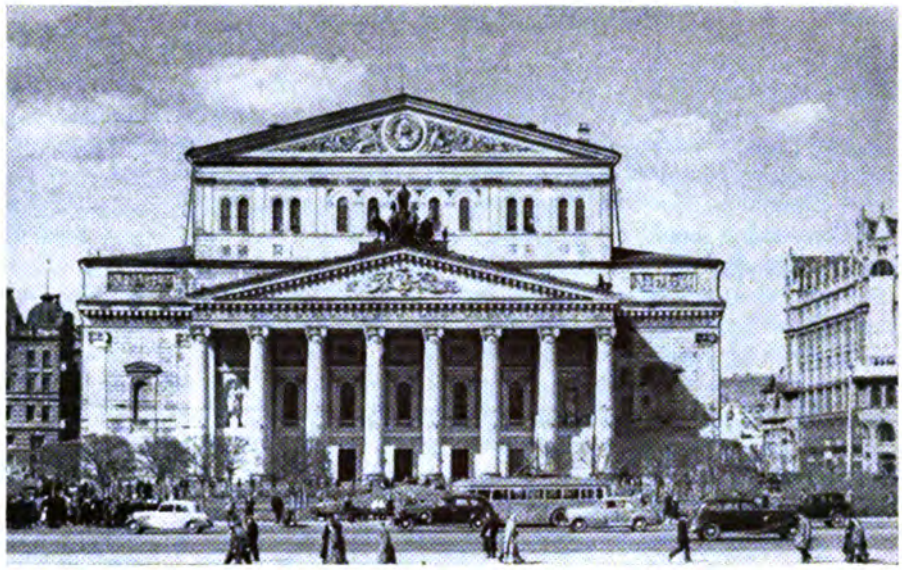
In using this material, the Ermolova was guided by the fact that Pavlenko's novel is extremely popular and that in staging it, the theater is meeting a popular demand.

Also planned for the Ermolova is *Indian Summer* by Nikolai Pogodin, well-known playwright. This play describes the participation of Soviet intellectuals in the postwar rehabilitation of their native land.

In midseason, a play by two new playwrights, Zalesky and Efetov, will be shown. Its characters are builders of a bridge across the Dnieper River, replacing one destroyed by the German invaders.

The Ermolova's repertoire includes Gorky's play *Summer Visitors,* and *Pushkin,* a play by the Ukrainian, Globa. The latter play will be timed for the anniversary of Pushkin's birth early in 1949.

At the Mossoviet Theater, Art Director Yuri Zavadski, himself a Stalin Prize Winner and People's Artist of the USSR, has announced the opening of *A Point of Honor* by the Soviet playwright, Stein. Soviet intellectuals are the principal characters here, doing their utmost for the development of Soviet science. The Mossoviet plans to show *Director Riggs' Crime* by the progressive American, Edward Chodorov. For midseason, the theater will offer *Mitenka* by Kolkov. It is a tribute to and depicts the growth of the high moral qualities and the sense of duty to their country and their people characteristic of Soviet youth.



BOLSHOI. Facade of the Bolshoi Theater of Opera and Ballet, whose magnificent productions are famous.

OPERA. The Bolshoi production of "Prince Igor," a work in the regular repertoire of the theater.

The theater is also rehearsing *The Cavalier of the Gold Star,* adapted by O. Babaevsky, a Soviet writer, from his novel. The leading part is that of a Hero of the Soviet Union, who returns home after the war, not to rest on his military laurels, but to participate actively in peaceful work. The people elect him as chairman of the local Soviet of Working People's Deputies. The moral growth of the Soviet man, the new traits in his character, form the subject of Babaevsky's play.

Ambassador Panyushkin's Statement

(Continued from page 728)

the Far Eastern Commission. The Soviet delegation considers such an opposition groundless, since the Far Eastern Commission should not bypass this matter. The Far Eastern Commission can come to an understanding in regard to the prohibition of the revival and creation of Japanese war industry and in regard to the establishment of an appropriate control, having in mind, naturally, that the details of exercising such a control will be decided by the peace treaty with Japan and will constitute an integral part of it.

In trying to justify his position in regard to the Soviet proposals, the United States representative said that the demilitarization of Japan had been carried out, of which fact all members of the Far Eastern Commission are, allegedly, fully aware. It is necessary to note that this reasoning also is groundless, since the Far Eastern Commission does not have at its disposal facts to support the correctness of such an assertion. Furthermore, there are serious reasons to doubt that the decisions adopted by the Commission in regard to demilitarization and disarmament, for example, such decisions as *Reduction of Japanese Industrial War Potential, Prohibition of Military Activities in Japan and Disposition of Japanese Military Equipment, Removal of Facilities from Japan for Reparations Priority According to Ownership or Control* are actually fulfilled. The Soviet representatives on the Far Eastern Commission and in the Allied Council for Japan have repeatedly drawn the attention of the United States representatives to a number of facts, concerned with the activities of the United States authorities in Japan which testify that General MacArthur does not take adequate measures toward the fulfillment of these decisions. The reports of these facts were not denied. But the adoption of decisions on demilitarization, however good they may be, does not in itself signify that this objective has been solved in practice and furthermore cannot be considered a sufficient basis for an assertion that this important objective has been carried out.

The Soviet delegation cannot also bypass the United States representative's statement to the effect that the United States is carrying out measures in regard to Japan which are designed "to alleviate suffering and to bring about economic revival" of that country. If the United States Government were displaying real care in respect to "alleviating suffering" of the Japanese people, it would not have opposed the Soviet proposals in respect to an unlimited development of Japan's peaceful industry which is directed toward broad satisfaction of the peaceful needs of the Japanese people; and at the same time it would have supported the Soviet Union's proposals concerning the prohibition of Japan's war industries, since this is to the interests of all peace-loving peoples.

It is worth noting that nowhere has the United States Govermnent advocated an unlimited development of Japan's peaceful industry. It is clear to us that certain United States circles do not wish this, and that Japanese goods create rivalry for American goods. But it is impossible for the sake of the selfish interests of these United States circles to suppress the development of Japan's peaceful industry, without which the Japanese people cannot exist.

It follows from all the aforesaid matters that the United States representative's assertion that the Soviet proposals of September 23 allegedly were the reiteration of the United States statement of January 21 does not correspond to actuality. Apparently this assertion has become necessary in order to justify in the eyes of public opinion, including those of the Japanese people, the policy which is being presently pursued by the United States in Japan—a policy which does not correspond to the Cairo and the Potsdam Declarations nor to the decisions of the Far Eastern Commission.

The Soviet delegation expresses hope that its proposals will be adopted, being confident that their approval by the Commission would correspond both to the interests of the Japanese people, which is interested in Japan's peaceful future development, and to the interests of all peace-loving peoples.

How Berlin's People Are Supplied

THE population of the Soviet sector of Berlin and the population of the Western sectors getting its supplies in the Soviet sector have been furnished 125,000 tons of coal briquettes up to November 25 of this year.

This figure is from the Information Bureau of the Soviet Military Administration, which also said the Soviet Kommandatura has given instructions for the third issue of coal to the population of the Soviet sector of Berlin and the inhabitants of the Western sectors to begin December 1.

Earlier figures showed that between August 1 and September 30, 100 thousand tons of grain and vegetable oil were delivered to Berlin from the Soviet Union; seven million eggs, seven hundred tons of canned fish, and 735 tons of fresh meat have come from Poland. Berlin has also received 20 thousand tons of fresh potatoes from Czechoslovakia, 820 tons of herring from Holland and 18 thousand tons of butter from Denmark.

It will be recalled that last September the food ration in the Soviet zone of Germany was increased by order of Marshal Sokolvsky, benefiting 16 million persons. Extra wheat was brought in during July.

The Berlin Situation

(Continued from page 732)

who represented the other interested powers. But this agreement was likewise disavowed by the representatives of the USA and Great Britain.

In the opinion of Soviet observers, the stand adopted by the USA and Great Britain on the Berlin question reveals the reluctance of the Western Powers to reach an agreement acceptable to all the interested parties. Their stand demonstrates that the ruling circles of these countries are persisting in the aggressive policy of the "cold war."

We are, nevertheless, convinced that the Berlin question will sooner or later be settled on the basis of an agreement acceptable to all the interested parties. And, this settlement will be reached on the only possible basis—the basis outlined in the agreements of August 30 and October 24.

Unity Soviet Goal

(Continued from page 729)

Roosevelt won his first presidential election and decided to establish friendly relations between the United States and the Soviet Union, he received the full support of the American people. From then on—until and during the war—relations between the USSR and the USA became increasingly close. Both great Powers were allies in the struggle for the emancipation of mankind from the vile tyranny of fascism.

It is an historical fact that in no sphere do the interests of our countries or of our peoples conflict. Experience shows that despite different political systems, the two great countries can together ensure stable and lasting world-wide peace and security.

This was vividly expressed in the negotiations and decisions reached at Teheran. President Roosevelt and Generalissimo Stalin displayed all their ability to strengthen the alliance among the three great Powers.

The events of both the war and postwar periods clearly show that the USSR always has been and still remains true to the spirit and letter of all the decisions reached by the leaders of the great allied Powers—including the decisions of the historic Teheran conference. As is known, the Teheran conference adopted the plan for a joint blow by the major Allied forces against the German aggressor. Fulfilling its pledge, the USSR dealt the German fascist armies smashing blows, and the steadily increasing force of this attack routed the major forces of the Hitlerite army.

The Soviet Union also remained true to the principles of postwar cooperation decided upon in Teheran. The USSR is actively struggling for peace and for the security of nations and is thus abiding by the Teheran declaration—which calls for the consolidation of the peace.

The Soviet Union's sincere desire for peace was again confirmed at the third session of the General Assembly of the United Nations at Paris, when the Soviet delegation, on behalf of its Government, submitted a proposal dictated by the interests of the security of nations. Adoption of the Soviet resolutions proposing the reduction of armaments and armed forces by one-third by the five great Powers, on the prohibition of the atomic weapon, which is a weapon not of defense but of aggression, and on the establishment of an international body for the observation and control of the effectuation of these measures (on the reduction of armaments and the prohibition of the atomic weapon) would have ensured the strengthening of friendly relations between the two great Powers in the interests of peace.

The facts show that today, too, the Soviet Union is faithful to the spirit and letter of all decisions and agreements adopted by the Allies. In his report on November 6 of this year, Soviet Foreign Minister Molotov said:

"The Soviet Union to this day holds by these agreements which were designed to protect the interests of democracy and to prevent new aggression. The Soviet Union legitimately demands that these agreements be carried out in practice and that new questions which may arise in connection with this be also settled by mutual agreement between the interested powers."

War on Drought

(Continued from page 737)

in the Soviet Union. Between 1924 and 1948, about 2,500,000 acres of forest tracts (slightly less than the total wooded area of Great Britain) were planted in the steppes and arid districts of the USSR.

But all that was done previously, including the establishment of forest belts on collective and state farms, is dwarfed by the scope of the new plan. It calls for the afforestation of about 15 million acres (equal to about 47 per cent of the territory of England proper—excluding Wales, Scotland, etc.) by 1965 on a vast territory of 296,520,000 acres.

Labor of the collective farmers and forestry workers is highly appreciated by the Soviet Government. The title of Hero of Socialist Labor will be conferred upon the most distinguished forestry workers for outstanding achievements in afforestation; the best forest planners will be awarded decorations.

The government decision to launch an offensive against drought received enthusiastic support from the farmers.

Forests alone are insufficient to meet the requirements of the plan as set out by the government decision. It also calls for completing the introduction of crop rotation systems with grasses in all collective farms and state farms of the steppe and forest-steppe areas of the European part of the USSR by 1950, and to have these systems in full operation not later than 1955.

Here is a majestic program for a general offensive on drought worked out in full detail in the decision of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the CPSU(B). This plan will ensure complete victory over drought and scorching winds—the age-old enemies of agriculture.

Altogether, the great plan makes up a reliable weapon for resisting drought; it will raise the fertility of soils, help to achieve high and stable crop yields, prevent erosion of soil caused by floods and winds, arrest shifting sands and promote a more rational utilization of the land. At the same time the system furnishes a basis for the harmonious development of field husbandry, livestock breeding and other branches of farming, and ensures considerable progress in marketable farm production.

Additionally, the plan lays stress on the correct use of organic and mineral fertilizers and provides for improved seed selection and seed growing. It also emphasizes the building of ponds and reservoirs to improve the irrigation of Soviet farm lands on a massive scale.

The program for the radical remaking of nature in the arid steppelands is based on the ever-growing might of the Soviet Union, the strength and vital forces of the collective farm system, the patriotism of the collective farm peasantry. It provides the requisites for producing an abundance of agricultural produce, for accelerating the Soviet country's transition from socialism to communism.

In a short article the grandeur and importance of the work creating the forests cannot be related, but every Soviet citizen is stirred and overjoyed by the historical decision.

A Muscovite's Diary

PERHAPS the very first letter from a reader accepting my invitation to suggest topics for this column has arrived from a Canadian who is interested in hunting and trapping.

The query is most timely because the hunting season began about October 1, and is now in full swing. In Moscow Region we have about 20 thousand sportsmen in various game-hunting societies.

My North American correspondent asked if we had elk, deer, geese and ducks in the Soviet Union. We certainly do, and in some abundance.

In the vicinity of our own Moscow, there are hunting lodges which may be reached by a four-hour ride. Others are even nearer, one being in Lukino, about 25 miles from Moscow on the edge of a large pond.

At this lodge hunters find wolves, plenty of marten, foxes, squirrels and badgers. Woodgrouse are seen on occasion, and there are a good number of black and hazel grouse.

Hunting with Russian hounds is very popular and these dogs are unsurpassed in their persistence in the hunt.

These Russian dogs, though well-trained, hunt the lowly rabbit with less zeal and zing than they do the wily fox. How they enjoy a real hunt!

On a recent hunting party one of the hunters I met was Nikolai Romanov, who works in a railway men's trade-union camp in the Zaili Ala-Tau Mountains bordering on China. He told some good stories about hunting mountain panthers and giant goats there.

Half of Country Is Forest Zone

Approximately half the area of the USSR is made up of its forest zone. It runs roughly, from the north through Leningrad, and is limited on the south by Kiev. Here one finds reindeer, deer, lynxes, elk, the brown bear, badgers, weasels, sables and skunks. Wolves and foxes are also common.

South of this region is the steppe area, with its rich black earth. It is almost treeless and comprises 12 per cent of Soviet territory. There is not much big game aside from some antelope in the Asiatic sections, but small field animals and birds abound.

Still further south, in the semidesert and desert areas which make up 18 per cent of the USSR, we find a varied animal life. Completion of the Government's plan to end droughts and push back the desert should vastly improve hunting here while also making these lands more useful agriculturally.

Waterfowl Nest In Tundra

Way up north, extending along the Arctic coast and in a broad belt inland, is the tundra. Here are 887 thousand square miles of land, or about 10 per cent of the total area of the country. Its relatively few animals include lemmings, ermine, the polar fox, polar bears and reindeer. There are also duck and geese, swans and other birds in the summer months. Along the coast are gulls, loons and other sea birds. They all nest in the summer, but September's chill sends them off to warmer climes. All the rivers abound with fish of many types.

I trust this helps answer my friend from Canada and that he will write again any time he has any questions I can answer here.

Amateur Actors Total 400 Thousand

So far as I've been able to gather, we have the largest number of amateur actors and actresses in the world—approximately four hundred thousand participating in 30 thousand dramatic groups or circles.

These figures were announced at the close of a ten-day review of trade-union amateur theatrical performances recently. In the current year the unions have added four thousand circles and one hundred thousand students of the Thespian art.

In the course of the ten-day review, 260 thousand amateurs took part. They included metallurgists, railway workers, oil, auto, and tractor workers and people from the various trades and professions.

Many of the members of these circles have been active in amateur dramatics for more than a dozen years. V. Sinyavina, amateur stage manager of the Palace of Culture at the Kharkov Transport-Machinery Works, has been in the circle since it was organized in 1919.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

December 13 - December 26

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States on the following schedule from December 13 to December 26. All time is Eastern Standard.

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary from 7:45 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. on the following frequencies: 6.05, 7.36, 9.54, 9.56, 9.60, 11.72, 11.87, and 11.96 megacycles.

Daily evening programs of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life are broadcast in two periods: from 6:20 P.M. to 7:30 P.M. and from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M.

Radio listeners may hear the 6:20-7:30 P.M. broadcast over these frequencies: 7.29, 7.36, 11.72, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The 9:00 to 10:15 P.M. programs may be heard on 7.29, 7.36, 9.60, 9.72, 11.72, 11.87, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Mondays, December 13 and 20—programs for farmers.

Wednesdays, December 15 and 22—Scientific and cultural programs; sports reviews.

Thursdays, December 16 and 23—programs in Russian for American Slavs, and programs for youth.

Tuesdays and Fridays, December 14 and 21; December 17 and 24—talks on life in the Soviet Republics.

On Saturdays there will be a weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners; on Sundays, concerts and talks on literature.

The "Muscovite" will be glad to have readers' suggestions as to subjects they would like to see covered in future "Diaries." Suggestions should be sent to "Muscovite," c/o USSR Information Bulletin, 2112 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 8, D.C.

Theater Stars Awarded Orders

Our recent celebration of the Golden Jubilee of the famed Moscow Art Theater really turned out to be a nationwide festival.

Artists of Norway, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, the USA and Germany sent congratulations.

On the occasion of the commemoration ceremonies October 27, the venerable actress, Olga Knipper-Chekhova, presided at the theater before an audience that included representatives of the public, ministers, delegations from various republics, officers and generals of the army, newspapermen, and heads of foreign embassies and missions in Moscow.

After many speeches of praise for the Moscow Art Theater and its company, the ceremonies concluded with the award of orders to a total of 290 of the Moscow Art Theater's company. These included not only the actors and actresses, but the directors, scenic artists and other personnel of the MAT.

Olga Knipper-Chekhova, Alla Tarasova, Mikhail Kedrov and 13 others received the Order of Lenin. The other awards included the Order of the Red Banner of Labor to 61 and honorary titles of Peoples' Actors of the USSR to eight of the Art Theater's veterans.

New Rubber Plant Grows In Latvia

Kok-sagyz, the comparatively new, artificial rubber plant, is now being cultivated in a number of districts of Soviet Latvia. This is a contrast indeed from our conception of rubber plantations in the humid tropics!

Autumn planting of kok-sagyz is being conducted in the collective farms of the Indra and Skai rural administrative districts of the Kraslav District.

Special teams have been organized for the planting of the new crop on the Thirty-Years-of-October, and New-Life Collective Farms.

HONOR WINNER. Mikhail Kedrov, People's Artist of the USSR, who was awarded the Order of Lenin, is shown (left) with members of the Moscow Art Theater's company.

Lanny Budd Makes Bow

That jet-propelled young man who gets around and sees and hears most everything, Lanny Budd, has arrived in the Soviet Union.

But wait, I don't mean a new chore for Lanny in our country, but a translation of Upton Sinclair's *World's End* which has made its appearance in our bookstalls.

Soviet readers are well-acquainted with the work of Sinclair through his novels *Jimmy Higgins, King Coal,* and *One Hundred Per Cent* along with others.

But the advent of *World's End* brings us the first of the series in which the American author describes the history of the first half of this century with its struggle between the forces of progress and of reaction.

As my American friends know, *World's End* describes the period of the First World War. There are five other volumes in the series and I predict that they will be very popular here.

FROM THE U.S.S.R.:

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Information Bulletin

DECEMBER 22, 1948

SHOPPING TRIP. Real wages have doubled in the USSR during the past year, it was recently announced. A young woman samples fine perfume at a Moscow shop. FRONT COVER. At the New Year, Grandfather Frost brings gifts to Soviet children. BACK COVER. The winter sports season is at its height.

USSR

Information Bulletin

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Published twice monthly by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics at 2112 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. Subscription rates: $2.40 for one year; $1.20 six months. Single copies, 10 cents. Checks should be made payable to the Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the USSR.

Material in this bulletin may be quoted or reproduced.

STEEL. The splendid production of basic industry, such as steel, was decisive in the year's triumphant economic success. A smelter at the Hammer and Sickle works, Moscow.

Set To Exceed Plan in 1949

Great Triumphs of 1948 to Speed Soviet People's Progress

By Ivan Yevenko
Soviet Economist

To the people of the USSR, 1948 has been a year of triumphant progress. The country—vast industrial and agricultural areas of which were war-torn rubble three years ago—has surpassed its prewar level of production. The prewar figures for grain harvest have been equaled and the yield per hectare exceeded. Real wages have more than doubled during 1948, and the purchasing power of the ruble has doubled.

Thus industry, agriculture, the living standard—all have scored tremendous advances during the year, which was regarded by the Soviet people as the decisive one in effectuating the gains envisaged by the postwar Five-Year Plan. That Plan, scheduled for fulfillment in 1950, outlines measures designed to complete the restoration of the war-torn economy and to raise its level above that of the prewar years.

The Soviet people now greet 1949 as the year which shall see that Plan's great gains entirely won, a full 12 months ahead of schedule.

The distinctive feature of the past year was the systematic overfulfillment of the state plan by all industries.

The accelerated pace of general economic progress in the USSR is the result of the priority given to restoration and development of heavy industry, the leading branch of the Soviet national economy.

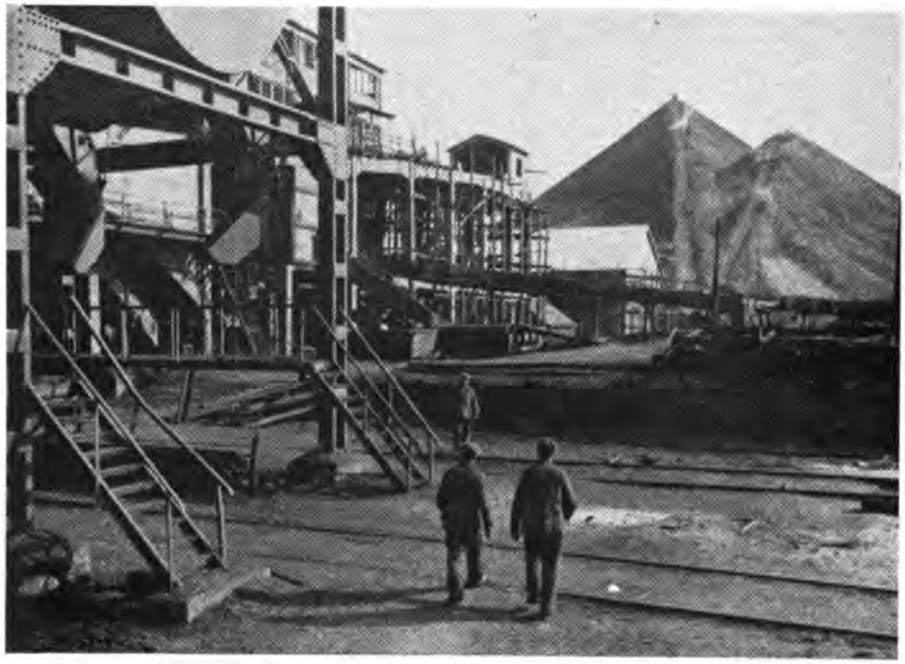
The rapid progress made in production of raw materials for heavy industry, in the development of metallurgy, coal mining and oil production, furnished the solid base for the growth of all other branches of production and of machine-building in particular. Rapid progress has also been made at the same time by the food industry and light industry, particularly in the production of consumer goods.

The successful restoration of steel mills in the south and central regions, and the continued progress of metallurgical production in the eastern districts of the USSR, have led to an uninterrupted rise in the production of metals. The Zaporozhye and Azov Steel mills—the largest in the south—as well as the Dniepropetrovsk and Krivoi Rog plants, have been restored to prewar capacity. New plants are under construction in the Urals and Siberia.

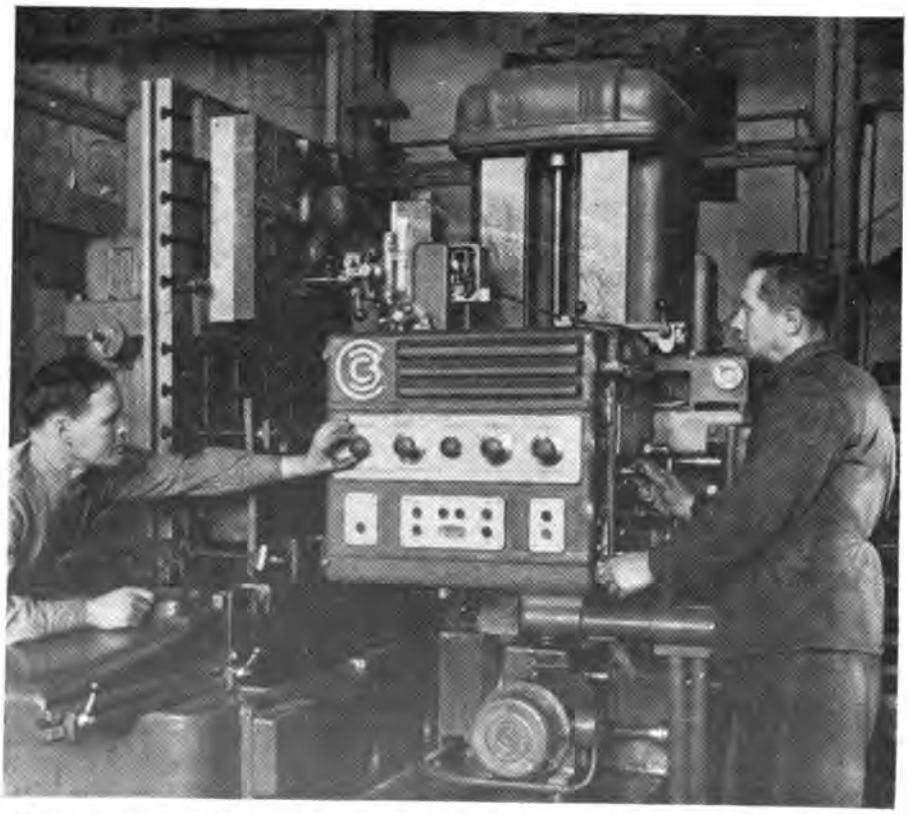
Noteworthy progress has been made in fuel and power production. The Ukrainian Donbas has regained its

standing as the most important coal mining center, bringing up the output of coal to 80 per cent of the prewar standard. In the middle of 1947, the coal mining industry surpassed the prewar level of output and the year of 1948 left this level far behind.

The production of oil, peat and shale has been mounting steadily. Considerable headway has been made in the production of gas—a new branch of the Soviet national economy. Extensive gas pipelines have been laid from Saratov to Moscow—523 miles—and from Dashava to Kiev, and a new line is under construction between Leningrad and Kokhtla Yarvi in Estonia.



COAL. Restoration of mines wrecked by the Germans, like this one in the Donbas (Ukrainian SSR), was important to the great economic gains made this year.



NEW MACHINES. Technical progress also was an important factor. Experimental model of a semi-automatic copy milling-machine designed at Leningrad.

Scores of large power stations have been restored in the districts ravaged by the Nazi occupation.

Noteworthy among the new power stations now under construction are the huge Farkhad hydroelectric station in Central Asia, the Mingechauri hydroelectric station in Azerbaijan, and a number of power stations in Armenia. A large number of small power stations are under construction, particularly in rural districts. In accordance with the current plan, steps have been taken to ensure sufficient production of electric power in all parts of the country, with a view to accelerating the general pace of the national economic development.

Exceptional success has been attained by the Soviet machine-building industry. The prewar level of output has been considerably surpassed in production of tractors, agricultural machinery, automobiles, electrical equipment and other branches of industry. In 1948 Soviet agriculture was provided with three times more tractors than in the prewar year of 1940. The automobile plants recently built in Minsk and Dniepropetrovsk have launched the production of new types of automobiles. A tractor plant has been built in Minsk.

Soviet machine-builders have been very successful in 1948 in the design of improved machines and other equipment. A particularly large number of new machines has been designed for agriculture. Mass production has begun of many new types of machines and equipment for the mechanization of arduous processes, and in particular for use in construction, in the peat, coal-mining, metallurgical and timber industries. The multiple-stage turbodrill designed for the oil industry accelerates the speed of drilling by 50 per cent; Soviet industry has mastered the production of high-pressure turbines with 50 thousand and 100 thousand kilowatt capacity, hydroturbines with 75 thousand kilowatt capacity, as well as of special and combined metal-cutting lathes, powerful trunk-line locomotives of the "L" type, high-precision instruments, and other valuable ma-

chines. Soviet machine-building has been gathering both speed and scope, and simultaneously has enriched its assortment in order to satisfy the growing demand of the national economy for machinery, equipment and spare parts.

The advance of production and construction in the USSR is stimulated by the steadily rising level of technical equipment of the national economy. Scientific research, conducted in enterprises with a view to determining the technical possibilities of raising production, has served to rationalize the use of equipment, materials, fuel and electric power.

Equally noteworthy are the successes scored in socialist agriculture. Despite the tremendous damage caused by the war, the severe drought in 1946, and unfavorable weather conditions in most of the Volga districts this year, the gross crop of cereals in 1948 attained the prewar level and crop-yields surpassed this level. More than 32 million acres have been added to the cultivated area in 1948, and the area under winter crops sown last autumn surpassed by several million acres that of 1947. Cattle herds have increased by nearly 25 per cent in 1948, and there is every indication that this upward tendency will continue without interruption.

Work has begun on the realization of the colossal state plan for planting protective forest zones, furthering the use of grass-and-crop rotation, the creation of ponds and reservoirs with a view to securing a high and stable crop-yield in steppe and mixed forest-and-steppe districts of the European part of the USSR, regardless of the whims of the weather.

The growing use of advanced machinery and the progress of electrification have lightened considerably the arduous processes in agriculture.

There has been a marked improvement in the work of Soviet railway, marine, river, automobile and air transport. Railway freight loadings are approximating the prewar level. There has been a substantial increase in the number of locomotives and cars. New railways under construction in the Urals, in Siberia, and in Central Asia, will make it possible to use the rich resources of these regions for furthering the growth of productive forces.

New construction is constantly increasing in industry, agriculture, transport and other fields.

AGRICULTURE. Livestock herds, as well as crops, increased sharply during 1948.

The capital construction program envisioned in the Five-Year Plan provides for the building of about six thousand enterprises in industry alone. This program is being realized with growing speed. During the first three quarters of 1948, the volume of capital construction rose by 26 per cent over the figure for the corresponding period of 1947.

Tremendous funds are being invested by the State in housing construction. The pace of housing construction has surpassed the general pace of capital construction in the national economy, and its volume during the first nine months of the year has surpassed that of the corresponding period of 1947 by 44 per cent.

In all districts of the USSR where the people were rendered homeless by the German invaders, factory and office workers and collective farmers are now living in new houses with all improvements.

The progress of industry and agriculture has sent the living standard of the Soviet people steadily upward. A strong impetus to this upward tendency was provided by the abolition of rationing, the currency reform and the reduction of prices on food and consumer goods. Increased production of consumer goods has enabled the Soviet Union to satisfy the growing demand of its population. During the third quarter of 1948, the sales of sugar have increased by nearly 100 per cent, and those of textiles and bread more than 50 per cent, over the volume sold during the third quarter of 1947.

The results produced by the abolition of rationing and the rise in purchasing power of the ruble are felt at every step. The number of gainfully occupied workers has been steadily mounting. Between the third quarter of 1947 and the third quarter of 1948, the number of factory workers and other employees in the national economy of the USSR rose by 2,400,000.

Improvement in the skill of workers and in the technical level of industry, combined with the country-wide socialist competition movement, have led to a continuous rise in labor productivity, which during the second half of 1948, rose by 15 per cent in machine-building and by 18 per cent in metal production as against the 1947 figure.

The new year will bring further progress to the national economy of the Soviet Union.

Many industries have surpassed state production plans to such an extent as to be able to complete their programs under the postwar Five-Year Plan in 1949—a year ahead of schedule.

Great Crop of 1948 Spurs Soviet Agriculture

By B. Savelyev

Chief Crop-Yields Inspector of the State Planning Committee of the USSR

THE year 1948—the third year of the postwar Five-Year Plan—is as notable for new achievements in agriculture as it is for striking achievements throughout the whole of the national economy of the Soviet Union.

This year's total grain harvest considerably exceeded that of 1947 and has attained the level of the prewar year of 1940. Crop yields of grain have exceeded the prewar level. It should be added that the increase in the total grain harvest consists of greater quantities of wheat and rye—the major food crops—gathered in the current year. Soviet farmers have also obtained good crops of potatoes and other vegetables, cotton, flax, and sunflowers.

These successes are all the more significant because the sowing areas in the USSR have not yet attained the prewar level, and because current production has not yet completely compensated for the colossal wartime losses in tractors and agricultural machines.

Despite the drought in most districts of the Volga area, the plan for grain sales to the State is being fulfilled in the USSR as a whole much more successfully than in previous years. This fact emerges from the numerous letters collective farmers have addressed to J. V. Stalin. In these letters, the farmers have informed the leader of the Soviet State of the above-quota deliveries of grain they have made to the State.

A number of regions and territories have delivered more grain to the State than in 1947, and more than in prewar years. In the Ukraine, for example, grain deliveries exceeded those of last year by 131 million poods.* The North Caucasus surpassed last year's grain deliveries by 77 million poods; Siberia exceeded last year's deliveries by 40 million poods.

High harvests have been gathered this year not only on the fields of the leading collective farms, but on entire crop areas of whole territories, regions and districts. This is one of the major successes of the current year. The grain crop-yield in the Ukraine exceeded the highest yields of prewar years. The crop-yields in the Odessa, Zaporozhye, Kirovograd, Poltava and other Regions, and of many districts in the Ukrainian Republic averaged between 1.7 and two metric tons of grain per hectare.**

Great successes were also achieved by the collective farms in the Kuban. It was one of the ranking regions in the country in the attainment of high crop-yields. In the leading districts of Krasnodar Territory, the grain crop-yield averaged between 2.1 and 2.2 metric tons per hectare. Stakhanovite groups in collective and state farms harvested as much as four tons of wheat per hectare and even more. Catherine Levchenko, a group leader in the Stalin Collective Farm, Staro-Krymsk District, obtained a crop yield of 4.15 metric tons of wheat per hectare. Mark Ozerny, who bears the proud title of Hero of Socialist Labor, set a new record by harvesting more than 20 metric tons of maize per hectare. There are many such examples in other parts of the Soviet Union.

Excellent harvests were also gathered on Siberian collective farms. In Krasnoyarsk Territory, the amount of harvested grain was 35 per cent more than was harvested in 1947—when the harvest was particularly good. Highly successful harvests were obtained by the collective farms of Kemero Region and of the Tuva Autonomous Region.

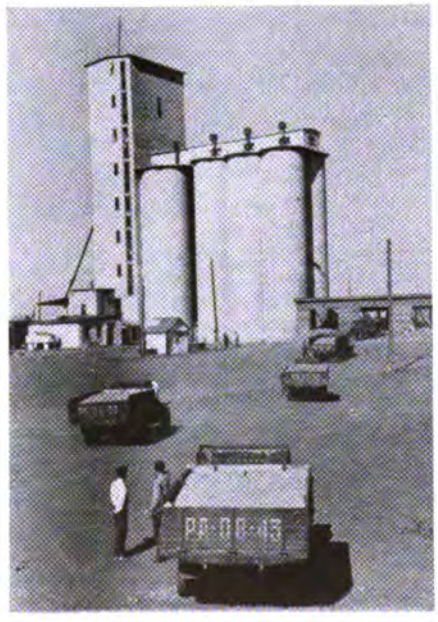
The achievements of collective and state farms in their efforts to obtain high harvests have made it possible not only to provide fully for the current needs of the people, but also to create the necessary state reserve of grain for the future.

This year's unusually rapid pace of development in agricultural produc-

*One pood = 36.113 pounds.

**One hectare = 2.471 acres.

RICH HARVEST. Two farm girls display the golden grain.



WHEAT ROLLS IN. Trucks of the Giant state grain farm, largest in the USSR.

tion in the USSR was a result of the unprecedented participation of the peasantry in socialist competition. All the collective farmers and workers in machine-and-tractor stations and state farms joined in this competition. A great mobilizing role was played by last year's edicts of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, which instituted rewards for outstanding successes in agriculture. Now on Soviet collective and state farms there are thousands of Heroes of Socialist Labor, and scores of thousands of collective farmers—men and women—who have been awarded Orders and Medals of the USSR for record crop-yields and high productivity of collective-farm animal husbandry.

The Communist Party set before the Soviet peasantry a clear aim: to secure the prewar level of production in the course of the three years of 1947, 1948 and 1949, and to surpass that level by 1950—the last year of the Five-Year-Plan period.

The Party outlined a comprehensive and precise program, worked out by the February, 1947 Plenum of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), which in detail pointed out how the tasks for the restoration and development of agriculture could be accomplished.

Soviet industry was called upon to provide socialist agriculture with tens of thousands of new tractors, harvester combines and other agricultural machines.

The working class of the Soviet Union is fulfilling this task with honor. As compared with 1940, agriculture this year received three times more tractors, and twice the number of motor vehicles and agricultural machines and implements.

State machine-and-tractor stations are increasing the volume of their work year by year. In the current season, these stations tilled 40 million more hectares of collective-farm land than they tilled in 1947. Each of their 15-horsepower tractors tilled 65 hectares more than it tilled in an equivalent period before the war. Thus was ensured the sowing of 13,300,000 hectares more than were sown in 1947.

Soviet agriculture has made giant strides in 1948. It has entered a period of a new mighty upgrade.

In Note By Ambassador

Crowd at Peace Rally Told USSR Seeks Friendship

Ambassador Alexander S. Panyushkin sent the following message to the "Rally for Peace" held at Madison Square Garden in New York City the night of December 13, under the sponsorship of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship. The Ambassador's message was addressed to the Rev. William Howard Melish, chairman of the National Council, and read to the crowd of 20 thousand persons at the Garden.

Dear Mr. Melish,

I regret very much that I shall not be able to attend the rally of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship today, December 13, in order personally to greet you and all of those attending. However, I still should like to greet the participants of the rally and shall be grateful to you for the reading at the rally of the following message:

Mr. Chairman, permit me to greet you and all the participants of this rally, organized by the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship in connection with the anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution and the 15th anniversary of the establishment of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and the United States of America.

The convocation of this rally, undoubtedly reflects the interest in Soviet-American relations shown by broad circles of the American people. No less deep are the aspirations of the Soviet people for the development of friendly relations and co-operation with the United States of America.

During the years of the Second World War the peoples of our countries came closer to each other and achieved no small success in this respect. For the Soviet Union it was not a question of the changing situation, not a question of transient circumstances. There can be no doubt that the same feeling and the same aspirations toward further strengthening of political and economic relations between our countries prevail also among the American people.

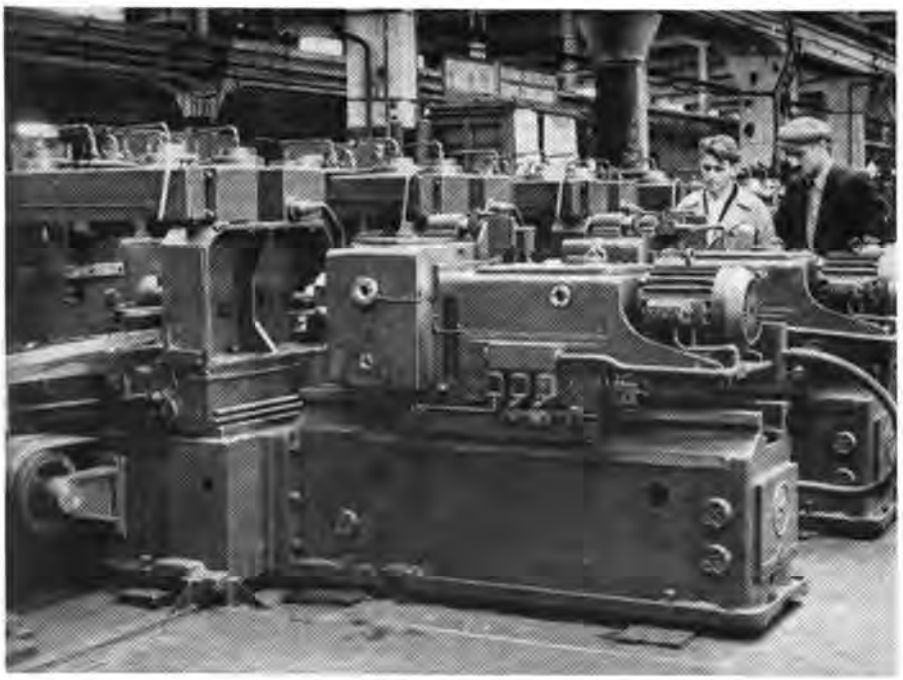
This matter, naturally, does not rest upon the declarative statements on the subject. This is well understood in the Soviet Union, where the power rests with the toiling people who are successfully coping with the grave after-effects of the enemy invasion, who are daily bettering the condition of their lives and who are consistently striving toward the development of friendly relations with other nations and toward the strengthening of world peace and international security.

These aspirations of our people are becoming understood by broader and broader circles among the American people. It is for this reason that one may be confident that in the long run the victory will be, not with the supporters of war, however they may engage in propaganda to this end, but with the supporters of peace, who constitute an overwhelming majority both in the United States of America and in other countries.

This means that the efforts of the people standing guard over the interests of Soviet-American friendship will not be lost and that these efforts will produce good results.

Permit me to wish the National Council of American-Soviet friendship and all supporters of co-operation between our countries all success in their activity.

Sincerely yours,
A. PANYUSHKIN
Ambassador of the USSR



MACHINE-BUILDING. Moscow is a center of this vital industry. Automatic machines for manufacturing cylinder blocks, made at the Ordjonikidze works.

Stalin Gets Moscow's Vow

Workers Race to Meet Goal Of 1950 by This June

By P. Yegorov

MEN and women workers, foremen, engineers, technicians, and other employees of Moscow and Moscow Region have addressed a letter to J. V. Stalin, in which they inform him of an outstanding economic victory. The 1948 state plan for the industry of Moscow was fulfilled on November 19, and for the industry of Moscow Region, on November 26. The year's planned production has been completed in the major items of industrial production. In many branches of production the annual plan has been overfulfilled. Moscow industry, as a whole, has produced 26.3 per cent more than in the same period of 1947.

At the beginning of this year Muscovites addressed an appeal to the working people of the entire Soviet Union, calling upon them to fulfill the plan for 1948, the third, decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, ahead of time. Muscovites were the first to carry out this undertaking, and their annual plan was fulfilled by more than a month before the end of the year.

Brilliant results, both in the pace of the growth of production and in the quality of their labor, were achieved by the working people of Moscow in the course of fulfillment of the annual plan. In October, Moscow industry exceeded the average monthly output of the prewar year of 1940 by 29 per cent, and during the first ten months of 1948 the output was 12 per cent more than in the corresponding period of 1940.

As compared with 1940 production, the industry of Moscow and Moscow Region is now producing more than three times more coal; 11 per cent more peat; 21 per cent more electric power (in the system of the Moscow Power Trust); 78 per cent more trunk-line locomotives; double the number of passenger railway cars; 3.6 times more cars for the Moscow subway; almost 1.5 times more metal-cutting lathes; almost treble the number of excavators; more than double the number of weaving looms; four times more reeling machines; 80 per cent more hay mowers; almost 50 times more reaping machines; nearly double the number of power transformers; more than eight times more tires; more than nine times more tire tubes; more than double the quantity of benzine.

Together with the growth of heavy industry, Muscovites have also achieved considerable successes in increasing the production of consumer goods. Moscow enterprises, during the first ten months of 1948 as compared with the same period of 1947, increased the output of cotton fabrics by 24.2 per cent; of woolen cloth by 28.2 per cent; of silk fabrics by 31.5 per cent; of leather footwear by 23.3 per cent; of hosiery by 30.4 per cent.

The high pace of development of Moscow industry, as of the entire national economy of the USSR, is accompanied by a rapid mastery of the manufacture of new, finer items of production. During 1948, Moscow plants organized the manufacture of dozens of various new kinds of products, including new brands of steels and alloys, new trucks, motor ambulances, river ships, automatic and semiautomatic machine tools, streetcar motors of a new type, self-propelled wide-swath hay mowers, winches of great lifting capacity, three-phase transformers with automatic regulation of pressure, various highly-productive cutting tools, exact measuring apparatus and instruments, roller spindles of high quality, machines for light industry, television apparatus, cameras and many other types of equipment.

The remarkable achievements of Moscow industry are primarily due to the great advantages of the Soviet socialist economy, which is based not on private, but on public ownership and on planned economy. The Muscovites in their letter pay tribute to the guidance given them in their splendid work by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and by the leader of the Soviet peoples, Joseph

Vissarionovich Stalin. The letter says in part:

"The basis of our successes, as of the successes of the entire Soviet people, is the fact that we are led onward by the great Stalin, that we are working under the guidance of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party, which is directing all our labor efforts toward one goal: toward the further consolidation of the might of our Soviet country, toward the complete attainment of communism."

The glorious victory of Moscow is the fruit of the selfless labor of millions of working people, a result of the socialist attitude of the Soviet people to their labor and of the powerful development of socialist competition. In their letter the Muscovites write:

"As a result of the development of the tremendous socialist competition movement—the tried Communist method of socialist construction—and thanks to the steady popularization of advanced production experience, the average output per worker during the first ten months of the year increased by 13.2 per cent in Moscow industry. Thousands of workers have already completed their five-year quotas. Not only individual brigades and shops, but many factories and mills, by raising labor productivity, have been able to raise output to the level planned for 1950, the last year of the Five-Year Plan. The number of such leading enterprises is growing day by day. There are now more than five hundred industrial enterprises in Moscow and Moscow Region which have fulfilled their five-year plan for the level of production in less than three years."

The socialist system is characterized by its economical and rational utilization of all material resources and manpower. This is strikingly demonstrated by the experience of socialist management in enterprises of Moscow and Moscow Region. It was here, in Moscow, that the patriotic movement arose for the mobilization of the internal reserves in industry, for enhancing the profitability of enterprises, for accumulations above plan. It was on the initiative of Muscovites that this movement became nationwide. The Muscovites, on their part, undertook the obligation of giving the socialist State 2,000,000,000 rubles of accumulations (profits) above plan in 1948. The Muscovites have now proudly informed J. V. Stalin that this sum of 2,000,000,000 rubles has already been transferred to the state budget.

On the basis of the great achievements of industry and agriculture in Moscow and Moscow Region, the living standard and the cultural and social conditions of the working people of the capital and of Moscow Region have risen considerably. New important works called for in the general plan for the reconstruction of the Soviet capital have been carried out in 1948.

Nearly 1,500,000,000 rubles is being invested this year in the development of the municipal economy of Moscow. Thousands of new, well-appointed dwelling houses are being built in Moscow and its suburbs, and five hundred new apartment houses will be opened for habitation in the current year; 75 thousand trees and nearly 1,600,000 shrubs have been planted during the year. Building of the fourth section of the Moscow subway is in full swing. The work of gasification is continuing at an ever-growing pace. Gas has already been installed in nearly 50 per cent of the Moscow apartments. The rolling stock of city transport has been replenished this year by a large number of new, improved subway cars, streetcars, trolleybusses, autobusses and taxis. The trading network has been considerably extended during the year in the capital and in Moscow Region, and the sale of food and industrial products has sharply increased.

New housing, extension of the gas supply, improved transportation and the marked expansion of retail trade have all contributed heavily to the well-being of Moscow citizens this year.

Shops are filled with wide assortments of goods and foods and the new lower prices have a real bearing too, when taken in connection with the recent developments that have meant the doubling of the real wages of the average Soviet worker.

In their letter to Stalin, the Muscovites declared that they are filled with the determination to achieve still greater successes in their efforts to accomplish the historic tasks of the postwar Stalin Five-Year Plan. They write:

"Now that the tasks of three years of the Five-Year Plan have been overfulfilled by us, now that the prewar level of production has been considerably surpassed, the forthcoming year of 1949 must become a year of a further mighty upswing in Moscow industry. We give you, dear Comrade Stalin, our word—the word of Soviet patriots—that we shall fulfill the Five-Year Plan for the level of industrial production in three and one-half years."

TEXTILE. Moscow has several important textile mills. N. Kuzmlnova is a leading worker at the Izmailovo mill.

Real Wages Double in Year

Soviet Living Standard Rises As Retail Prices Drop

By S. Kharkov

THE promise of a constantly rising standard of living, of steady improvement in the well-being of the Soviet citizen under his socialist system of society is being carried out at the present time.

As the year's end nears, it has been announced that a series of developments within the past year has made real wages in the Soviet Union more than twice as large as they were a year ago.

This remarkable increase comes to a people with no fears of unemployment, no nightmares of an impoverished old age and who know their future and the future of their children is secure.

Let's trace the developments that have brought about the doubling of real wages of the Soviet worker within the past year.

It was on December 16, 1947 that the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) issued the decree abolishing ration cards for food and for consumer goods.

There has been another record harvest and the Soviet Union is moving rapidly toward an abundance of foodstuffs with more land cultivated than ever before. All this has expanded the food industry and there has been a parallel growth in state, co-operative and collective-farm trade.

Accompanying these developments there has been a steady decrease in prices. In co-operative trading, for example, prices were cut another 13 per cent during the third quarter of 1948. On collective farm markets the price reduction was 24 per cent during the same period.

Couple all these benefits with the currency reform—abolition of rationing, establishment of uniform and reduced state prices on foodstuffs and consumer goods, and it can be clearly seen why the purchasing power of the Soviet ruble has doubled. Additionally, there has been an increase in earnings that, taken with all these other factors, has made real wages in the Soviet Union more than twice as large as they were last year.

During the past year trade has developed tremendously and the quantity of food and manufactured goods throughout the Soviet Union has increased many times.

Let us take one Soviet city—Moscow—as an example, and see how the variety and quantity of goods from which the Soviet consumer may choose, has multiplied.

During the first 10 months of 1948 about one thousand new trade enterprises were opened in Moscow alone. These included food and consumer-goods stores, bakeries, restaurants, cafes and so on. There are new shops specializing in meat, fish and dairy products; fruit and cooked foods; wine and haberdashery establishments, shoe and hat stores, furniture, crockery and hardware establishments.

Several of the ministries maintain their own network of stores in the country as outlets for their goods. They include the Ministry of the Grocery Supplies Industry, the Ministry of the Food Industry and the Ministry of the Automobile and Tractor Industries. The latter recently opened showrooms for the private sale of passenger cars and motorcycles, where individuals may purchase the Moskvich and the Pobeda (Victory) cars.

The Gastronom and Bakaleyea, which maintain food stores throughout the country, have also expanded their network. Their stores have a great assortment of foods. Consumer co-operatives also have opened many stores in Moscow.

The assortment of goods has become incomparably greater since the

PLENTY OF BUYERS. And plenty to buy. With the rise in wages has gone an increase in stocks and varieties of all sorts of consumer goods.

SILK. The demand for fine fabrics has grown greatly. Shipping room at a Riga mill.

end of rationing.

The assortment of bread and meat manufactures has nearly doubled. The Mikoyan meatpacking plant in Moscow alone supplies more than 150 varieties of sausage. There is also an abundance of semiprepared foods: beefsteaks, cutlets, meat dumplings, etc.

The stores are required to keep in stock the so-called "minimum assortment." This minimum includes hundreds of different types of goods. Store Number One of the Gastronom, for example, maintains a minimum of four hundred types of goods—but actually never has less than six hundred varieties. These include live fish; eight types of herring, and sixteen types of meat.

The trade in food and manufactured goods has grown very considerably during the year since rationing ended. Thus, in the third quarter of this year, the sale of bread increased by 38 per cent as compared with the same period of last year; sales of cereals and macaroni items increased by 23 per cent; of sugar by more than two hundred per cent; of cotton fabrics by almost one hundred per cent; of woolen stuffs by 42 per cent; of silks by 27 per cent, and of rubber footwear by more than two hundred per cent.

Food and manufactured-goods stocks in stores are increasing month by month. This year's stocks of potatoes and vegetables are much greater than those of last year. This makes possible a reduction of prices on vegetables by fifty per cent.

The abundance of food and manufactured goods in state stores—where prices have gone down several times during the course of the last year—has caused a sharp drop in prices in the collective farm markets. Market prices on meat and dairy produce and poultry had already dropped sharply during the spring. In comparison with last year, prices for meat, potatoes and milk have dropped very sharply. Prices of butter and cottage cheese went down by 75 per cent.

The results of the past year—including trade since the abolition of rationing—are further evidence of the speedy postwar economic development of the Soviet Union.

Private Buyers of Soviet Cars Like Moskvich Best

THE Moskvich, the Moscow low-powered-automobile plant's comfortable four-seater sedan, seems to be the favorite car of the Soviet public at the moment.

This judgment comes from the sales records of the Automobile and Tractor Ministry's Moscow salesrooms, and from reports on private car sales in other parts of the country.

Automobile showrooms for the private sale of both the Moskvich and the sleeker, higher-priced Pobeda (Victory) cars, are in operation in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi and Baku.

The Ministry expects to open similar auto showrooms in Riga, Minsk, Tashkent, Sverdlovsk and other cities soon.

Five of seven buyers who purchased cars within a matter of minutes at a Moscow showroom chose the new Moskvich.

One of the Moskvich buyers was Nikolai Vorobyev, who said he is 35, has a wife and two children, and works as a mechanic in the Moscow streetcar barn. He had learned to drive at an auto club—every district of Moscow has several of them—and had finally made up his mind to buy a car of his own.

Vorobyev said that three months' wages were enough to pay for the Moskvich in full.

With the increase in output—Soviet auto plants turned out nearly twice as many cars during the third quarter of this year as during the similar period of 1947—and the steady increase in real wages, the number of Soviet car owners is growing.

According to records of the Ministry, most of the cars are being bought by industrial workers and collective farmers of Siberia and Central Asia. Five Moskviches sold at the Moscow salesroom went to a foreman of a tool works, a doctor employed in a suburban clinic, a locomotive engineer, a research worker at a scientific institute and to a circus lion-tamer.

The more expensive Pobedas—produced by the Gorky Auto plant—were bought by a visiting engineer from Dniepropetrovsk and by a Stakhanovite coal miner from the Moscow field.

The miner—his name is Sviridov—said he would drive the car back home to the mining settlement near Shchokino. The price made a real dent in his savings, he said, but he would soon make it up for, "as you know, experienced miners are paid pretty well."

The salesroom's records (they are kept very carefully indeed, for all cars are sold with a guarantee covering free correction of mechanical defects over a specified period) for a ten day period showed that 18 per cent of the buyers were workers in factories of Moscow and other cities; another 18 per cent were physicians and teachers; 34 per cent were engineers and research workers; 19 per cent actors and artists, and the rest people in miscellaneous professions.

Soviet Arms Curtailment Proves Peace Aim In Deeds

By Colonel M. Tolchenov

THE proposals of the Soviet delegation, submitted at the third session of the General Assembly of the United Nations in Paris, to prohibit the atomic weapon and reduce by one-third in the course of one year the armaments and armed forces of the Five Great Powers, evoked lively comment in the world press and has drawn the attention of the public in all countries. And this is not surprising, for the peoples regard the reduction of armed forces as the first step to lessen the mistrust, uneasiness and alarm caused by the armaments race now under way in some countries.

The adoption of the Soviet proposals would have been of vital importance for consolidating peace and general security. Wars are waged by armed forces equipped with various armaments and hence the reduction by one-third of the numerical strength of the land, air and naval forces of the Five Great Powers, as well as the reduction of armaments and the prohibition of such means of mass extermination as the atom bomb, would put an end to the armaments race, contribute to a consolidation of international confidence and confirm the sincere striving of the Great Powers for peaceful co-operation with all countries, big and small.

But under pressure by representatives of the Western countries, the majority of the General Assembly rejected the Soviet proposals. The stand taken by the countries which rejected the Soviet proposals on reducing armaments and banning the atomic weapon clearly showed to all countries who opposes all measures directed at eliminating the danger of war and who in reality strives to lessen this danger.

PEACEFUL LABOR. Alexander Anosov, a former soldier, works as a mechanic and instrument operator at a machine-building plant.

All progressive mankind has learned that the USSR is persistently working for the consolidation of peace. From the very first days of its existence the Soviet Union has been consistently waging a struggle for peace. In the Soviet Union, a socialist country, as distinct from capitalist countries, there are no, nor could there be any circles or individuals interested in military conflicts which have aggressive designs on other peoples. The Soviet Union has always taken the initiative in the struggle for stable, democratic peace, for friendly co-operation among all countries, large and small. In the interests of peace and the security of nations the Soviet Union has on many occasions advanced proposals for the reduction of armaments.

The problem of reducing armaments and armed forces is especially timely now, because an untrammeled armaments race is proceeding in a number of countries, which creates an atmosphere of mistrust and anxiety.

As distinct from the other Great Powers, the Soviet Union has been steadily reducing its armaments and armed forces.

It is perfectly natural that in the years of the life-and-death struggle against fascist aggression all the forces and resources of the Soviet Union, all the efforts of the Soviet people were concentrated on defeating the enemy. In those years the armed forces and armaments grew and the expenditures of the USSR on the armed forces comprised: 59.5 per cent of all budget ex-

penditures in 1943; 52.2 per cent in 1944; and 42.9 per cent in 1945.

The armed forces of the Soviet Union then counted many million men, while hundreds of thousands of Soviet people—men and women—fought in guerilla detachments against the enemy. The entire country was converted into an armed camp and the entire Soviet people rose to the defense of their homeland, to the defense of civilization and culture from fascist aggression.

No sooner, however, had the war ended than the Soviet Union began at once to reconvert to peace. The energy and efforts of the Soviet people were concentrated on healing the wounds inflicted by German aggression. Just as in the years of war all the forces and resources of the USSR were directed toward defeating the enemy, with the termination of the war they began at once to be utilized for recovery, for peaceful construction.

This found its reflection in the state budget. Only one year after the defeat of fascist Germany and imperialist Japan, in 1946, the military expenditures of the Soviet Union had dropped to 23.09 per cent of all budget expenditures.

In 1947 they amounted to 18.4 per cent; in 1948 to 17 per cent.

Is not this fact alone eloquent testimony to the peaceful policy of the Soviet Union?

Accompanying the drop in military expenditures was a reduction in the armed forces of the Soviet Union.

The din of the battles of the Second World War had hardly died when the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued the law on demobilizing the senior age classes. This measure at once substantially reduced the numerical strength of the Soviet armed forces.

On February 4, 1947, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued an edict on demobilizing several more age classes in the land, naval and air forces. In March 1948, by decision of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, all the remaining age classes called up during the war were demobilized.

Thus, at the present time the armed forces of the Soviet Union have been brought down fully to the peacetime level. This fact should be known the world over.

BEGINNING WORK. Victor Sveshnikov (left), a demobilized man, gets instructions on how to run a milling machine.

In connection with the cut in military expenditures and the reduction of the numerical strength of the land, naval and air forces of the Soviet Union, armaments have also been reduced. It is clear that it is impossible to acquire on the 17 per cent of budget expenditures now allotted for military needs as much armaments as were acquired during the years of war, when nearly 50 per cent of the country's expenditures were used for that purpose. Moreover, there is no need for them, inasmuch as the numerical strength of the armed forces has been sharply reduced.

The great curtailment in military expenditures and reduction of the armed forces and armaments is the most convincing proof that the Soviet Union, not in words but in deeds, is a consistent and indefatigable champion of peace. The USSR stands firmly for implementing the decisions adopted by the General Assembly two years ago on prohibiting the atomic weapon and reducing armaments. This once more confirms the loyalty of the USSR to international agreements to which it is a party. The Soviet Union is pursuing a peaceful policy, a policy of friendship and co-operation with all countries striving for peace.

The peace policy of the Soviet Union is well known to all of progressive mankind. It is known to common people of all countries—American workers and Chinese coolies, British dockers and French scientists, Polish miners and Indonesian peasants, Norwegian sailors and Spanish grape-growers. The sincere striving of the Soviet Union for the consolidation of peace is confirmed by the struggle of Soviet diplomacy to implement such a vital measure for mankind as the reduction of armaments and prohibition of the atomic weapon. That is the reason that all the attempts of the reactionary press to distort the meaning of the Soviet proposals are doomed to failure.

The freedom-loving peoples of all countries understand and appreciate the efforts exerted by the Soviet Union to ensure general security.

Real Accomplishments Lacking As UN Assembly Closes

By Boris Izakov

THE first stage of the third session of the United Nations General Assembly has closed in Paris. Although the session is scheduled to continue on April 5 in Lake Success to discuss a number of questions still pending on the agenda, it is already possible to sum up some of the results of its work.

Unfortunately, the session has not yielded any fruitful results.

We remember the great hopes reposed in the United Nations three and one-half years ago at the time of the San Francisco conference. The Charter adopted at that time proclaimed that it is the lofty aim of the United Nations to maintain international peace and security, to develop friendly relations among nations and to achieve international co-operation.

What remains of the results of this third session if they are appraised from the viewpoint of the aims formulated in the Charter? Even the most incorrigible optimists will hardly dare to insist that the meetings in the Palace of Chaillot have in any way contributed to the promotion of international co-operation, to the development of friendly relations among nations and thereby to the maintenance of international peace. Moreover, if the results of the third session are compared with the results of the first and second sessions of the General Assembly, this comparison will be unfavorable for the third session.

In the work of the first session (1946) it was still possible to observe traces of the co-operation established among the States of the anti-Hitlerite coalition during the Second World War. The first session adopted a resolution on general arms reduction and the prohibition of the atomic weapon, which was proposed by the delegation of the USSR. It likewise adopted some other resolutions in the interest of peace and security: for instance, the resolution to ban the fascist Government of Franco from participation in international bodies connected with the UN and to recall ambassadors and envoys from Madrid; the resolution condemning racial discrimination in the Union of South Africa.

The second session of the Assembly (1947) took place in a substantially changed atmosphere. A bitter struggle developed at this session around the Soviet proposal directed against war propaganda and instigators of a new war. It is proper to recall that the Anglo-American majority, which had already been formed in the United Nations did much to blunt this resolution. But the resolution condemning all forms of war propaganda was nevertheless adopted. At the same

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USSR, Italy Sign Trade Pact

From "Pravda"

ON December 11, 1948, negotiations between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Italy, which began on August 12, were completed. At first the negotiations were concerned with the settlement of the question of reparations, an agreement on the exchange of commodities and a treaty on trade and navigation, and then also with the question of naval vessels subject to transfer to the USSR in accordance with the peace treaty.

By preliminary agreement signed in Moscow on November 6 of this year, Italy pledged herself to turn over the 33 naval vessels mentioned in V. M. Molotov's statement of October 4 of this year, and the USSR accepted as a basis for settlement of the question of reparations the principles outlined in the Italian proposal submitted to the Soviet delegation on September 11 of this year.

The transfer of the ships is to be carried out in five separate groups beginning on January 15, 1949. In accordance with the principles of the Italian draft on reparations, confirmed in the final agreement, the USSR accepts as reparation payments all Italian property in Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary. The difference between the 100 million dollars that is subject to payment as reparations, and the value of the said property, shall be covered by commodities from current Italian industrial production.

That same day, a trade agreement and an agreement on payments were signed for a period of three years.

The trade agreement provides for a program of normal exchange of commodities to the amount of approximately 30,000,000,000 Italian lira yearly on each side.

The Soviet Union will deliver major agricultural produce and raw materials, mainly grain, metal ores, timber, and natural fertilizers; Italian exports will be represented by industrial produce (machinery, ships, textiles and chemical products) sulphur, mercury and agricultural products (citrus products, cork, both fabricated and raw hemp, and so on).

Apart from this, the agreement provides for a special program of Italian deliveries to the Soviet Union during the course of three years, to a total sum of about 60,000,000,000 Italian lira, to be covered by the Soviet side with deliveries of grain and also of raw materials.

The agreement on payments provides for a system of clearing accounts between the two countries in Italian lira.

The agreement on trade and navigation also establishes the principle of mutual most-favored-nation treatment in the sphere of trade. On questions of customs, tariff, transport, home duties and navigation regulations, it establishes the most-favored-nation principle, excluding cases of special privileges and exceptions.

Brisk Soviet Trade, Credit Help, Spur Czech Economy

By M. Paromov
Master of Science

On December 16 Radio Moscow announced talks between the USSR and Czechoslovakia had resulted in full agreement on all economic and political questions.

The following article is the second of a series on the assistance the USSR is rendering Eastern European countries.

Now, as in the black days of Munich, the Soviet people are the staunch friends of the Czech and Slovak peoples. And this friendship—based as it is on the most basic interests of the Czech and Slovak peoples on the one hand and of the Soviet people on the other—is vividly expressed in trade relations between the two countries.

The Soviet people assisted the fraternal Czech and Slovak peoples in their struggle for freedom from fascism. Regaining their freedom and independence, the people of Czechoslovakia undertook with great enthusiasm the construction of a new life. In three and one-half years since the end of the war, Czechoslovakia has made considerable headway in strengthening her people's democracy. Thoroughgoing, special political and economic reforms effected in that country have laid a solid foundation for Czechoslovakia's independence.

The Czechoslovak people have nationalized industry and the banks. More than 85 per cent of the country's industrial output is now being supplied by the nationalized enterprises, which employ about 70 per cent of all the country's workers. Banking is concentrated entirely in the hands of the State. And as a result of the agrarian reform, the land was taken from the landlords and distributed among the poor and landless Czech and Slovak peasants.

The democratic reforms have enabled Czechoslovakia to attain major successes in the restoration and reconstruction of her national economy.

And in the magnificent progress Czechoslovakia has made, a tremendous role has been played by the friendship and the co-operation between the USSR and democratic Czechoslovakia. Formed during the war, this friendship has been further strengthened since the war.

Trade between the USSR and Czechoslovakia has developed—and continues to develop—on the basis of equality. Soviet orders for equipment are helping to speed the restoration of Czechoslovak industry. Moreover, the USSR is supplying Czechoslovakia with cotton, wool, leather, metals and other vital raw materials for industry. Thus, the nature of trade between the USSR and Czechoslovakia is determined entirely by the needs of postwar economic restoration in both countries.

Economic co-operation with the USSR has stabilized Czechoslovakia's national economy and is stimulating its uninterrupted progress. In the autumn of 1947, Czechoslovakia's industry regained the level of the prewar year of 1937 and surpassed this level by 11 per cent in July, 1948.

This marked the achievement of the aim envisioned by the two-year plan in the field of industrial production.

The people of Czechoslovakia have been convinced by their own experience that in the USSR they have a reliable friend. Czechoslovakia experienced considerable hardships as a result of the drought of 1947 when her own harvest supplied only 63 per cent of the planned quantity of cereals. The USSR came to the assistance of Czechoslovakia, by sending 600 thousand metric tons of grain; moreover, the cost of transportation was reduced by 50 per cent. According to the statement made in Parliament by the Czechoslovak Minister of Foreign Trade, this reduction saved Czechoslovakia 1,350,000,000 Czechoslovak crowns*—or 27 million dollars.

Speaking of the Soviet grain deliveries, Klement Gottwald, President of the Czechoslovak Republic, emphasized the exceptional significance of this aid for the people of Czechoslovakia. The Soviet Union, declared the President, "advanced us this aid without any political conditions, and only on the basis of mutual economic co-operation and sincere friendship."

Peaceful co-operation and mutual assistance is the basis not only of the grain deliveries, but of all the transactions under the agreement between the USSR and Czechoslovakia. This agreement is facilitating successful trade between the two countries. The 1947 agreement between the two countries envisioned that mutual deliveries would attain the annual value of about 5,000,000,000 crowns (for each party to the agreement); this sum has increased four times over in 1948, and a trade turnover of 20,000,000,000 Czech crowns is envisioned for 1949.

Soviet exports to Czechoslovakia include raw materials of vital importance for her metallurgical industry—such as iron and manganese ore, pig iron and ferroalloys; chromium ore and other important materials for her chemical production; cotton for her textile and lingerie production; fertilizers and fodder seed for agriculture; cereals and oil, important for her national economy in general; and other industrial raw materials.

This year's Czechoslovak exports to the Soviet Union include transport, power and industrial equipment; window glass; chemicals; porcelain and wood products; textiles; knitgoods; shoes, etc. Forty-one per cent of Czechoslovakia's 1948 exports to the Soviet Union consists of heavy industry products; 47 per cent of light industry products and 12 per cent of agricultural produce. This composition of exports, noted the Czechoslovak Trade Minister, Yankovtseva, "is very favorable for Czechoslovakia's economy."

The economic foundation of the growing trade volume between the USSR and Czechoslovakia is determined not only by the potential of the

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*50 crowns=one dollar.

Soviet Scientists Issue Reply To Hoosier Biologist

The following statement, signed by the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, appeared recently in "Pravda."

PROFESSOR HERMAN J. MULLER of Indiana University has addressed a letter to the President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, which has also been published in the American press, in which he expresses his disagreement with recent decisions taken by the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR on questions of the science of biology, and announces his resignation from membership in the Academy.

The content of this letter indicates that Professor Muller, in determining his position on scientific questions, is not guided by the interests of science, the interests of truth.

He attempts to make an accusation of the fact that the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, in the dispute between adherents of the views of Weismann and Morgan, and those of true Darwin teachings—which have been raised to a new, higher level in the works of the famous Russian scientist, Michurin—decisively took the position of Michurin biology. In doing this, Muller is far from considering the conclusions and arguments of opponents of the Weismann trend, as should be done by an objective research worker. He ignored Pavlov's well-known precept that "facts are the air breathed by the scientist," and chose to refrain from an analysis of numerous new experimental data obtained by Soviet research workers. Such behavior can hardly be regarded as an example of scientific fearlessness and objectivity.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR, in determining its position, proceeded from experimental works which clearly proved the erroneous views of Weismann and Morgan and the triumph of the ideas of Michurin. Michurin and his follower, Academician T. D. Lysenko, have refuted the theory of a special "hereditary substance" independent of the remaining organism and of its living conditions. In revealing the relationship between heredity and the living conditions of organisms, Michurin biology has provided concrete methods for conscious, directed control over the organic world, has pointed out a way of transforming the nature of organisms in the direction desired by man. Michurin biology eliminates the power of accident, of blind haphazardness, in one of the most important branches of human activity—in the practice of propagating new varieties of plants and breeds of animals.

Michurin's teachings are a further stage in the development of Darwinism. Having assimilated the whole of the huge wealth of Darwin's ideas—as well as of the advanced, progressive ideas of other biologists, including Lamarck—and having rejected their errors which were shown by the further progress of science, the teachings of Michurin and his followers have raised biology to a new, higher stage.

Profound indignation is aroused by Muller's assertion to the effect that Michurin biology leads to racist conclusions, by the allegation that it follows from this biology that the living conditions of nations that are culturally backward must determine their hereditary ability to acquire a higher culture. This nonsense has nothing in common with Michurin science.

Soviet scientists categorically reject attempts to transfer to social life biological laws, including the conclusions of Michurin biology. The development of society is subject not to biological, but to higher social laws. All attempts to apply to human society the laws governing the animal world indicate a wish to lower man to the level of beasts.

It is not the biology of Michurin, but the genetics of Morgan which is being used in every way by reactionaries to support racist theories. This was done in fascist Germany. This is now being done in America. And Professor Muller, president of the Genetics Society of America, who once expressed himself as an opponent of eugenics and who now propagates man-breeding, has joined forces with open racists and reactionaries in science.

Professor Muller expresses his disdainful attitude to "so-called dialectical materialism," which is inseparably connected with Michurin's teachings. It should be recalled here that in 1934 Mr. Muller expressed different views and called upon geneticists "to free themselves from antimaterialist and antidialectical deviations." We do not believe in the sincerity of these words.

Soviet science, however, has mastered the method of dialectical materialism not in words, but in deeds, for this method is the most faithful weapon of scientific research. Regarding everything as in movement, in development, in interrelationship, dialectical materialism denies the existence of any unchangeable substances such as the "hereditary substance," confirms the closest possible connection between the organism and its environment. Perhaps this is precisely what displeases Muller. Muller declares that in its decision on questions of biology, the Academy of Sciences pursued political aims—that science in the Soviet Union is subordinated to politics.

We Soviet scientists are convinced that science which is isolated from politics does not exist and cannot exist anywhere in the world. The whole experience of history teaches this. The basic question is with what policy science is connected, whose interests it serves: the interests of the people or the interests of their exploiters.

Soviet science serves the interests of ordinary people; it is proud of its connection with the policy of the Soviet State, which has no other aims than the improvement of the welfare of the working people, consolidation of peace and flourishing democracy. The close creative co-operation of Soviet science, of biology, with the policy of the State is shown most clearly in the practical work of increasing the yield of agricultural crops, in the output of animal husbandry, in the work of fulfilling plans, unprecedented in scale and wonderful in conception, for the struggle against drought by means of planting thousands of kilometers of forests.

Soviet scientists warmly sympathize with those foreign workers of science who are honestly and sincerely seeking to serve the interests of peace, progress and democracy. However, one cannot close one's eyes to the fact that in capitalist countries the bourgeoisie subordinates scientific research to its own interests in pursuing its aims of profiteering, of oppressing the working masses, of suppressing democracy.

At the present time the whole world knows that science in the USA is being militarized and is being subordinated to the aggressive plans of American imperialism.

One is surprised that Professor Muller does not express himself against the utilization of scientific achievements by American imperialism for purposes of mass destruction of human beings and cultural treasures, but against the Michurin science of biology, which pursues the aim of ensuring the most rapid possible growth in the national welfare.

The successes of the Soviet people in building a communist society, the flourishing of culture, science and art in the USSR, the growing authority of the Soviet Union and the profound respect for it on the part of all progressive people throughout the world show, on the other hand, that these successes arouse fury and hatred on the part of the enemies of true science and progress—the imperialists and their henchmen.

Professor Muller was once known as a progressive scientist. That is not a convenient position in present-day America. In coming out against the Soviet Union and its science, Muller has earned the enthusiasm and gratitude of all the reactionary forces of the United States.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR parts without any feeling of regret from its former member, who has betrayed the interests of true science and has openly joined the camp of the enemies of progress and science, peace and democracy.

(signed) THE PRESIDIUM OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE USSR.

Uzeir Gajibekov—In Memoriam

By Reinhold Gliere

Soviet composer, People's Artist of the USSR and Stalin Prizewinner

UZEIR Gajibekov, the founder of modern Azerbaijanian music, and one of the most eminent of Soviet musicians, died on November 23, 1948.

His native home, Karabakh, in the mountains, has always been famed for its bards. Here converges the influence of two oriental cultures—the Armenian and the Azerbaijanian. To this day the traditional contests between the bards of these nationalities arouse the interest and love of the people. Gajibekov, who grew up in circumstances favorable for a musician, and whose taste was cultivated on the best examples of the people's art, assimilated its unique qualities, its tunefulness, the picturesque beauty of the musical language, its characteristic rhythms; and he raised a popular art to the level of contemporary musical culture.

When I met Gajibekov in 1924, he was already well known as the composer of the first Azerbaijanian opera, *Leila and Mejnun*. His early work contained elements of immaturity and revealed his creative searchings, but one felt in it the talent that was to unfold in later compositions; the musical comedy *Arshin mal alan*, the opera *Ker ogli*, the state hymn of the Azerbaijanian Soviet Socialist Republic.

Ker ogli, for which the composer was awarded the Stalin Prize, is a work which might grace the repertoire of any opera theater. *Arshin mal alan*, a gay and colorful comedy, made its composer deservedly and widely popular. It was performed in some of the largest cities of the USSR and abroad—in Teheran and Cairo, in Paris and London, in Berlin and New York, and in other capitals. It has been successfully adapted for the screen and radio.

I watched Gajibekov's creative growth, and often discussed with him a theme that greatly interested us both—the folk music of the East. I look back with gratitude on the friendly advice he gave me at the time I was writing my opera, *Shah Senem*, and when I was editing an opera by the late Azerbaijanian composer, Mahomayev. No one understood better than Gajibekov the subtle peculiarities of the Azerbaijanian folk song, which is unusually difficult of notation; and he was always ready to share his deep knowledge of the subject. He was more than a composer: he evolved the theory of national music in his *Principles of Azerbaijanian Music*, a brilliant and fundamental textbook.

His work in this field was acknowledged when he was elected a Member of the Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaijanian SSR. He directed the work of the Institute of Azerbaijanian Art, to which his name has been given.

His activities and interests were varied; he introduced a system of notation into the national orchestras of folk instruments—previously the musicians had played by ear alone. He organized the first Azerbaijanian state orchestra which played from notes; he organized the first state choir.

He was a conductor and a teacher. He taught the class in national composition at the Conservatory of Azerbaijan, which he directed.

A number of musicians: Niazi, Ashraf Hassanov, Seid Rustamov, Afrasiab Badalbaili—Honored Art Workers—were his pupils.

The titles of People's Artist of the Azerbaijanian SSR, People's Artist of the USSR, and Stalin Laureate were conferred on Uzeir Gajibekov for his splendid services in the development of Azerbaijanian music.

Fear Of Unemployment Banished For Latvian Workers

By Janis Zujmach

Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic

In skimming through the time-yellowed newspapers of pre-Soviet Latvia I come across front pages with screaming headlines, samples of which are: "New Shipment of English Goods," "Choicest French Wines of Bordeaux preferred by celebrated danseuse."

On the back pages are the want ads: "Young man with good references, honest and of respectable family, seeks work, will accept any terms." And another: "20-year-old youth who has elderly, invalid parents and is of good health, will accept any kind of manual labor." "Girl, finished high school, knows French, German and English, will accept position as nurse or maid, can embroider well." "Unemployed young schoolteacher seeks post with family, can do household chores, is expert cook."

Ads of this kind fill the back pages of all the newspapers of bourgeois Latvia. In one week alone in 1936, from December 1 to December 8, the newspaper *Jaunukas Zinjas* published 257 want ads—pleas for the right to keep body and soul together.

On turning the newspaper pages I find amidst rapturous accounts of a dog show at Mme. Gertrude Lenesman's salon, of President Ulmanis' address to a landowners' conference. and the like, items reporting the suicide of a young man and of girls who had lost all hope of finding jobs.

"Richard Lakstigal," we read, "28-year-old student of the Department of Economics of the Latvian University, attempted suicide yesterday in one of the corridors of the University's main building. The student, it appeared, lived with his parents, who are working people, and lately, having no earnings, experienced dire want."

"At a meeting of unemployed engineers and technicians, held on the premises of the *Resours*, Engineer Ledzin reported that 30 per cent of Latvia's 10 thousand engineers and technicians are jobless."

WORK FOR ALL. Latvian youth now knows no unemployment, no fear for the future. Young workers in a Riga radio plant.

When I read these terse, dry items I can't help asking myself with surprise: "Have we really lived like that?" Then I smile at myself for asking the question. "Oh Janis, Janis, have you forgotten how, with your brothers, Karl and Robert, you three able-bodied fellows, three gold glaziers, roamed the streets of Riga looking in vain for a job? Have you forgotten, Janis, how for hours you would stand on the bridge with thoughts of suicide, your gaze fixed on the smooth-flowing current of the Daugava? Have you forgotten the days of hunger and the fear that gripped you at the thought of winter?"

No, I have not forgotten. I was then a young man, and my future looked unpromising. How different has it been in fact!

Knowledge and learning were then inaccessible to the broad masses of working people. The right to receive an education, the right to culture and science in bourgeois Latvia, was the right of the propertied classes alone. Sons of workers and peasants could not study because of high tuition fees and because of their families having no means of subsistence. Nor could all even attend elementary school. According to the official statistics of the 1935 census, 11.2 per cent of the population of Latvia, above the age of ten, was illiterate.

Unemployment, no prospects for the future, hunger, the fear of insecurity drove some youths and girls, unable to put up a fight against life and the bourgeois ruling class, to vagrancy, theft and prostitution.

However, these very inhuman conditions of existence gave rise to active protest among the progressive working youth of Latvia. Wrath and hatred flamed in the hearts of the youth.

In Latvia the names of the Young Communist League members of Valmera—Smiltenis, Martha Mende,

Gajlis, Purinsha Unmanis—ardent Communist fighters who fell in battles with the White Guard counter-revolutionaries, are well known. Jan Raynis, the great Latvian writer, may well have had them in mind when he said: "A hero may be smitten down and his life taken, but his deed shines forever."

July 21, 1940 is indeed a great red-letter day in the history of the Latvian people. On that day, by the people's will, Soviet power was proclaimed by the National Diet in Latvia. The Ulmanis regime, loathed by the working people, collapsed. Soviet power reclaimed for the Latvian people its independence and national freedom, the future of its youth.

Latvia's working people began to breathe freely. Opportunity opened before the young people. There were now jobs for all, the doors of schools were opened and fear for the morrow ceased to exist. With the severe trials of the recent war behind them, the citizens of Soviet Latvia work today with the greatest zeal to rebuild and advance their economy, to carry out in four years the Stalin Five-Year Plan.

Here are some figures that show their enthusiasm. Saluting the recent jubilee of the Young Communist League, ten thousand young Stakhanovites in Riga's factories regularly doubled and tripled their set quotas. Twenty-three thousand young workers filled the annual quotas for 1948 by the end of November.

When I look at the young workers of present-day Latvia I recall my own youth and that of my brothers, Karl and Robert. I remember the way we worked at a glass-works, dreading to exceed the quota set by the boss, for that at once meant a cut in our wage rates. Our hearts were not in the job, for we knew that we worked not for ourselves but for another's profit.

Imant Kauso, a Young Communist Leaguer who is a turner at the Stars works, has already fulfilled the whole of his production quota under the Five-Year Plan. Nor is it personal glory that Imant Kauso seeks. What he is chiefly concerned with is the honor of his team, his shop, his plant.

Tamara Auks, a young working girl, is a Stakhanovite worker at the Automobile Electrical-fittings plant. She gets good wages and is respected at the plant. However, Tamara is continually eager for further accomplishment. All summer Tamara would regularly fill her quota. But she regarded that as insufficient. To mark the jubilee of the Young Communist League Tamara decided that she must do a better job. She lingered after her shift was over to get tips from the engineers and foremen, to learn how to speed the packing of the fittings from the assembly lines. Tamara succeeded: she now packs 1,200 articles in the time which it formerly took her to pack eight hundred.

With great persistence the working folk of Soviet Latvia are mastering the experience accumulated by the Stakhanovites of the Soviet Union.

I participated in the work of the recent third session of the Supreme Soviet of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic. As I listened to the debate, I again thought what great concern the Communist Party and our Government show for the people and its future. Figures and facts are convincing arguments. During the past three years, some 182 public clubs and 187 public libraries, for example, were opened in Latvia.

Let us recall here the contaminating intellectual food fed to us by bourgeois Latvia. The spiritual value of the plays that were shown may best be judged by their titles: *Animal-tamer, Milady's Delusive Dreams, Lovers Murdered* and the like.

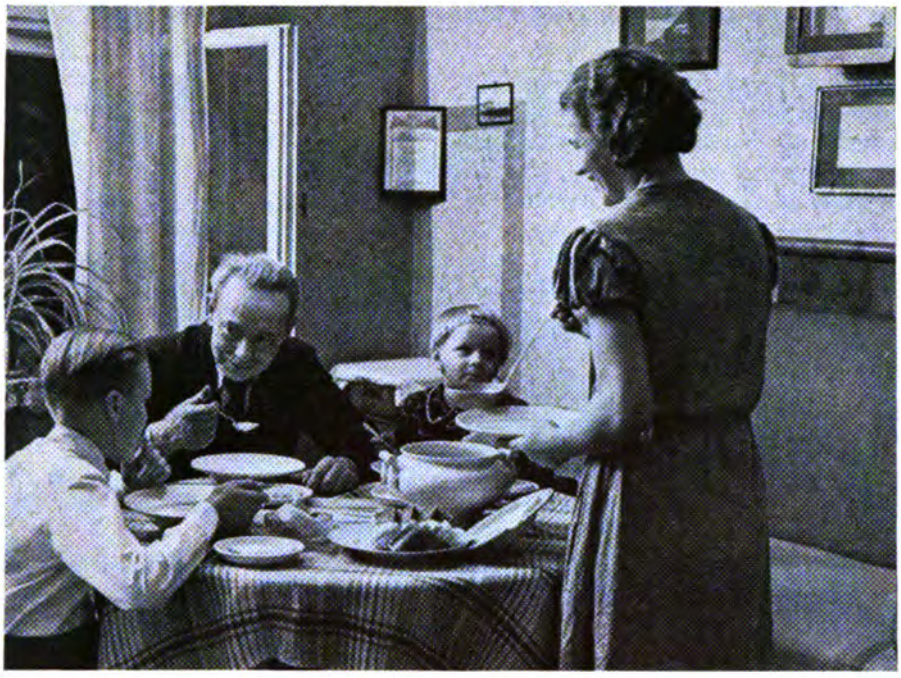
Today our cultural life is fed on great classics and contemporary works of real merit. With delight and love we study the works of Pushkin and Lermontov, Chernyshevsky and Belinsky, Gorky and Sholokhov, Upit and Lazis, as well as those of other writers.

As I glance through the newspapers of present-day Latvia, I learn that in the current, third, decisive year of the postwar Five-Year Plan, production goals have been reached ahead of schedule. I learn of the power of collective effort, of the good of conscientious, creative and joyful labor.

In the newspaper *Soviet Latvia* we read today, for example, that Joseph Bidzin, foundryman of the Hannibas factory, has already produced more than six normal yearly quotas; that Peter Rogachev, team leader of the tool-cutters of the Stars plant, has with his team fulfilled an eight-year production program in 19 months, that Jan Zenberg, veteran molder, promoted to the post of shop-manager, has geared the shop to Stakhanovite methods.

The happiness of emancipated labor, the glory of the right to work, to true human existence is what one reads between the lines of the restrained newspaper items on the life and work of the old and young citizens of our Republic.

LATVIAN SCHOOLBOYS. As in other Soviet republics, education is available to all. A committee prepares the school newspaper.



BREAKFAST WITH FAMILY. Theodor Abiks, mechanic and tool maker, eats heartily with son Egars, daughter, Lena and his wife, Helena.

ASSIGNMENT. Foreman A. Loskot gives Abiks a task in the shop.

Riga Worker's Day

This is the picture story of the life of Theodor Abiks, mechanic and tool maker in the Riga Wagon Building Works. He is a master of his trade and there is not a tool or lathe he cannot handle. He earns 1,800 rubles monthly and his wife, Helena works in a school. Their joint income provides an assured livelihood for the family of four. Their apartment consists of three living rooms, bath and kitchen.

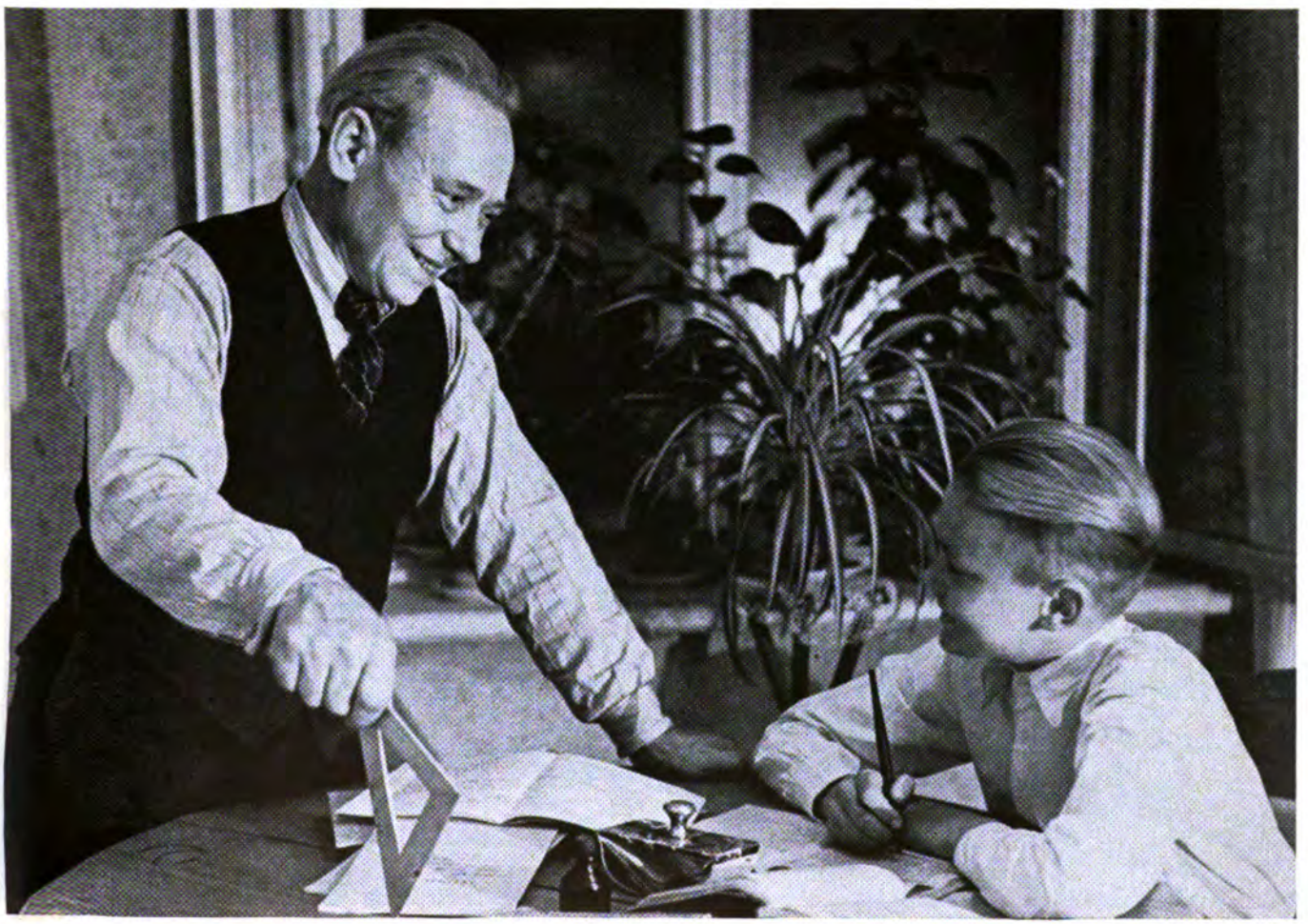
HELPS TRAINEE. Skilled Craftsman Abiks shows young workers how to assemble a truck.

DAY'S END. Abiks walks home from the Riga plant.

KNOW HOW. Abiks is highly skilled and is rightly considered the best worker in the Riga Wagon-Building Works.

RELAXED AT HOME. Abiks enjoys his paper, but even more his children. Here he is with Lena.

AFTER THE MOVIE. The Riga worker and his wife return home after movie.



CHECKS SON'S HOMEWORK. Mechanic Abiks closely follows the progress of his son, Egars. He examines the lad's exercise book.

Voters Get Housing Results Through City Soviet

By V. Barykin

Second of a series on the functioning of local Soviets (legislative bodies). These articles are sequels to a recent series on elections to local Soviets.

THE municipal economy of the capital of the USSR, administered by the Moscow Soviet of Working People's Deputies, totals billions of rubles.

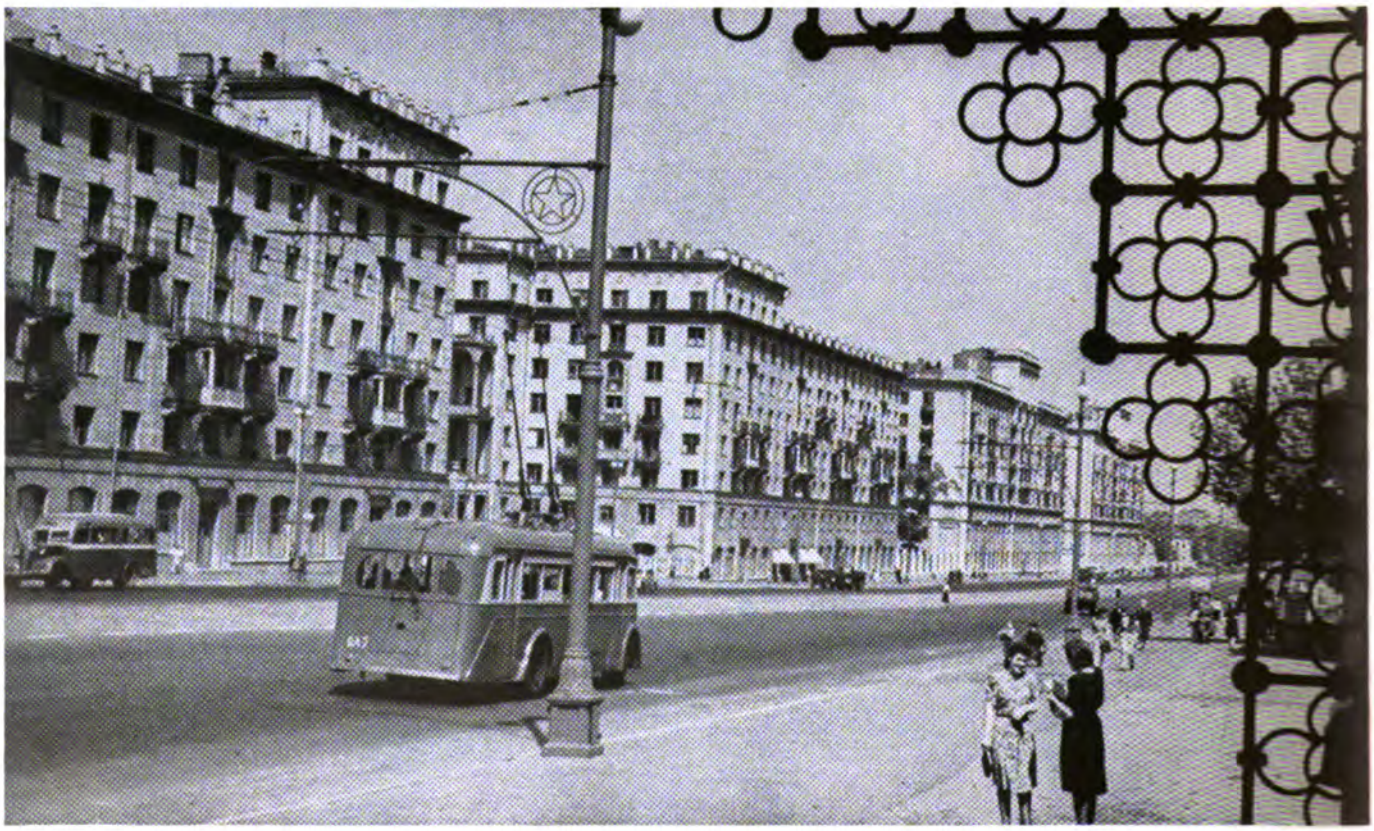
The 1948 budget of the Moscow City Soviet amounts to nearly 3,000,000,000 rubles, of which 1,774,000,000 is allocated for social and cultural measures. Expenditure for the education of the 618 thousand children who are attending the Moscow schools amounts to 540 million rubles a year. Nearly 9,000,000,000 rubles is being invested in the development of the economy of the Soviet capital during the postwar Five-Year-Plan period—1946 to 1950. Of this amount 6,600,000,000 rubles will be spent on improving the living conditions of the Moscow population.

All questions of the city budget, plans for housing construction and other important measures relating to public utility services are decided upon by the sessions of the Moscow Soviet.

In the current year, sessions of the Moscow City Soviet dealt in particular with the Moscow budget for 1948; housing construction; the plan for the restoration and further development of the municipal economy in 1948; planting of trees, shrubs and grass in the city, and the work of the Moscow public health department.

Why did the sessions of the Soviet concentrate on these questions? Simply because when the Soviet was elected, the voters instructed the deputies to devote particular attention to housing, to reconstruction of the municipal economy, to greenery and to public health. The deputies are servants of the people: they consider their first duty to be the implementation of the will and demands of their constituents.

The construction of housing stopped in Moscow during the war. And the war caused great damage to the city's housing: several years of strenuous labor will be necessary to eliminate the consequences of the war in this respect.



MOSCOW HOUSING. Under the direction of the Moscow Soviet, hundreds of comfortable new apartment houses are being built. These are houses in the vicinity of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, occupied by scientists.

Under the current Five-Year Plan, 348 new apartment buildings were built in 1946 and 1947, and another five hundred were under construction in early 1948. But this is not enough. Houses must be built more rapidly, and built in accordance with the general plan for the reconstruction of the capital, a plan made before the war at the instance of J. V. Stalin.

This question was discussed at a session of the Moscow Soviet and the deputies criticized some of the directors of building organizations for the fact that construction of new housing was not proceeding rapidly enough. The session mapped a program of housing construction, determined the types of houses which must be erected, decided on measures for intensifying the tempo of construction, and adopted a decision regarding the control of construction. By decision of the session, 540 million rubles are to be spent on construction of new housing in Moscow and 468 million rubles on repairing the existent housing.

The program of housing construction adopted by the session is being implemented successfully.

In carrying into effect the decision of the session, the Executive Committee of the Moscow Soviet has intensified control over housing construction. The building organizations have improved their work. Every Moscow citizen cannot but be convinced of this when he sees the houses that are literally rising before his eyes. Hundreds and thousands of families have moved into new apartments. The members of the Soviet who adopted the decision on housing construction daily supervise the execution of this decision. In the current year—because of the concern of the Moscow Soviet as a whole, and of its members individually—Muscovites have received 525 new apartment houses whose area totals 4,467,060 square feet.

In accordance with the instructions of their constituents, the members of the Moscow Soviet discussed and adopted a plan for the restoration and development of the Moscow municipal economy for 1948. This plan was widely publicized, and Muscovites noted with satisfaction that their instructions to their deputies are being put into effect.

Here are a few figures that indicate the growth of Moscow's municipal economy in the current year.

MOSCOW SOVIET. Newly-elected deputies at their first meeting.

Consumption of water in the city exceeds the prewar level by 23 per cent; nevertheless, 110 million rubles is being spent this year on the development of the water supply and conduits—twice as much as was spent last year.

More than eight miles of new water mains and conduits are to be dug. Scores of thousands of apartments are being provided with gas, and the occupants of these apartments bear no part of the tremendous expense that is entailed. Central heating is being installed at the expense of the Moscow Soviet in several hundred large apartment houses. City transport is receiving 436 new subway cars, trolleybusses, autobusses and streetcars. The session voted one hundred million rubles for the reconstruction of streets and roads in the capital, 33 million rubles for the building and repairing of public health institutions, 22 million rubles for the repairing and enlarging of laundries and other municipal enterprises.

The instructions of the electors regarding the reconstruction of streets have been carried out. Machine-Builders Street has been transformed into a splendid thoroughfare; Bolshaya Pirogovskaya Street has also been reconstructed and trees have been planted along it. Hundreds of lime trees—40 to 50 years old—were planted in the spring and fall, and now line many of Moscow's central streets.

The budget for 1948 submitted to the session of the Moscow Soviet was thoroughly discussed. Many deputies made concrete proposals, which were adopted—despite the fact that the budget commission of the Soviet had already made many changes in the budget prepared by the city financial administration. Deputy Makarov, chairman of the Budget Commission, criticized the work of a number of administrations and departments of the Executive Committee of the Moscow Soviet. He criticized in particular the work of Ushakov, head of the light industry administration; Chaika, head of the local industry administration, and Mikheyev, chief of the financial administration.

In reconstructing their cities, the citizens of Moscow and Leningrad want to make them more beautiful than ever. It is not surprising, therefore, that the sessions of the Moscow and Leningrad Soviets discussed in detail the question of planting greenery in their cities. Fulfilling the will of their constituents, the deputies adopted sweeping plans for landscape gardening, and voted considerable sums for this purpose. These plans are being successfully fulfilled. Many adult trees have been planted along Nevsky Prospect in Leningrad, which within a brief period has become a splendid boulevard. Many other of Leningrad's streets are now lined with trees, and in Moscow 180 thousand trees have been planted during the year.

The Moscow Soviet spends three million rubles a day on public health. The Leningrad Soviet also spends large sums on public health. Muscovites and Leningraders, like all Soviet people, receive free medical treatment, for this is guaranteed by the Constitution of the USSR. They have the use of well-equipped polyclinics, hospitals and dispensaries, and in addition there are medical establishments in every factory and mill. More than 1,000,000,000 rubles was allocated in Moscow for public health in 1948. This huge sum exceeds the 1940 allocation by 82 per cent.

How were these sums spent? And how is public health organized in the city? What is being done for its improvement?

These and similar questions were discussed at the session of the Moscow City Soviet after a report was heard of the city health department. Before

this, scores of deputies and their constituents had participated in an investigation of the work of medical institutions, had drafted dozens of proposals. These proposals formed the basis for the decision which was adopted by the session on the report of the work of the city health department.

The session of the Moscow Soviet noted with satisfaction that the network of city hospitals has been fully rehabilitated since the end of the war, that the number of hospital beds is now 20 per cent greater than before the war, that in comparision with the prewar year of 1940, the number of polyclinics and dispensaries has increased, and that the network of medical establishments in factories has expanded. Remembering, however, Stalin's statement to the effect that man is the most valuable of all capital, the deputies of the Moscow Soviet decided that even more could be done in the matter of public health; and the session adopted a program for improving it.

Questions of public health were also dealt with by the session of the Leningrad City Soviet. Here, too, the deputies introduced a number of valuable proposals which have already been effectuated.

THIS is the way two typical Soviets serve their people. This is the way thousands of other Soviets, in big towns and small, and rural areas, perform their work as servants of the people. The Constitution of the USSR accords broad rights to local Soviets, as organs of state power. Local Soviets direct the work of the administrative organs subordinate to them, ensure the maintenance of public order, the observance of the laws and the protection of the rights of citizens, direct local economic and cultural affairs and draw up local budgets.

The Constitution of the USSR contains eight articles devoted to the duties of these local organs of state power. They are elected by popular vote for two year terms and elect their administrative and executive organ, an executive committee.

The practical activities of the Moscow and Leningrad Soviets—as of all local Soviets—are controlled by the millions of citizens who take an active part in the work of these legislative bodies.

Polar Flight to U. S. Aided Friendship's Cause

By Olga Chkalova

ON December 15, 1948, ten years had elapsed since the death of my husband, Valeri Pavlovich Chkalov.

A leading flyer of his time, his death was greatly mourned throughout our country, for the people admired him as a great patriot and an aviator whose name symbolized courage and daring.

He was one of those pioneers of flying who—before intercontinental flights were attempted by any but the most intrepid—blazed new trails in the airways of the world, and was the first to cross the North Pole in intercontinental flight.

This flight, of which I wish to speak here, was the nonstop flight made with Baidukov and Belyakov in 1937 from Moscow to the United States via the North Pole.

When, after 63 hours and 23 minutes of hazardous flight, Valeri Chkalov landed his plane safely on American soil, he and his companions had become the first persons to traverse the shortest route between the Soviet Union and the United States. Both the Soviet and the American people hailed the flight as an event signalizing the friendship and close co-operation between the two countries.

From Valeri I heard how warmly the American people received his crew. They were the representatives of the Soviet people, and Valeri considered the welcome he received as an expression of the genuine friendship of the people of the United States for the people of the Soviet Union.

Since this flight our country has fought a bitter war, allied with America, against German fascism. The common victory furthered our feeling of friendship for America.

I know and am proud of the fact that the thoughts and feelings of my people, as expressed in the foreign policy of the Soviet Union, have not changed. Like all the Soviet people, I feel sure that the American people, despite the misanthropic campaign which has been directed against my country by certain circles in the United States, have not changed their attitude toward the Soviet Union, have not forgotten the friendship linking our peoples.

V. P. Chkalov

I should like to remind my readers of the speech Valeri Chkalov delivered at one of the receptions in the United States, a speech which now—just as 11 years ago—reflects the feelings of our people.

He said: "In our flight from Moscow to your country via the North Pole, we on the wings of our machine bore the greetings of the 170 million people of our country to the great American nation.

"In our country there is a song with these words:

" 'We love our country as we should a sweetheart, we cherish it as we would care for our mother' . . . These are the thoughts and feelings of my people! Aboard the plane we three carried the hearts of 170 million; and no cyclones, no arctic storms could stop us, for we were fulfilling the will of our people. We convey to you the greetings and the friendship of the 170 million Soviet people—greetings we have borne on the wings of our plane."

Valeri Chkalov said this on behalf of his people, true in friendship and invincible in battle.

UN

(Continued from Page 762)

time, on the insistence of the USA and Britain, the session adopted decisions to set up some new bodies—the interim committee, the Balkan commission and the Korean commission. This was done in violation of the Charter and contrary to its principles.

The third session of the Assembly took another step backward. It rejected the Soviet proposal for reducing the armaments and armed forces of the Great Powers by one-third within one year. It rejected the Soviet proposal for outlawing the atomic weapon as a weapon of aggression: the very thing accepted as indisputable and unanimously approved by the Assembly in 1946 proved unacceptable in 1948.

On the other hand, this session adopted proposals on the interim committee, on the Greek, Korean and other questions which tend to further and to strengthen the unlawful decisions of 1947. These decisions strike a new blow at international co-operation and interfere with the development of friendly relations among countries.

What explains this downhill tendency in the work of the UN?

This retrogression is explained by the changes which have taken place in recent years in the foreign policy of the countries which have the so-called majority vote in the UN. From whatever angle we may appraise this policy, one thing is indisputable: certain powers no longer regard the United Nations as an instrument of international co-operation designed to promote agreed decisions on the most important current problems, but as an instrument of their own policy. This approach to the international organization is leaving an ever-deeper impression upon its activities.

A bloc of certain powers has taken shape in the UN—powers concerned primarily with their privileged position in the international organization and attempting to use it for securing domination over other countries. This bloc no longer considers its fellow-members as equal parties, in co-operation with whom decisions must be found that are acceptable to all. It now regards those who oppose its policies in the UN as the "minority" and it is trying to dictate its will to this "minority" and to force upon it decisions that are favorable to this bloc.

The aims for the sake of which the international organization was founded are being gradually pushed into the background and condemned to oblivion. At the same time, aims whose very mention was taboo at San Francisco are being openly ascribed to this organization.

The orientation on privileged blocs is gradually swerving the UN to the course of the ill-famed League of Nations. We all know whither this course led. And I believe that all people of good will do not want a return to the past.

The Charter endorsed at San Francisco is the last obstacle in the way of efforts to distort completely the tasks of the international organization and transform it into an instrument of power politics. Is this not the reason why so many plans have been advanced lately for radical revision of the Charter?

Those who consider revision of the Charter inadequate venture still further. There is talk today—talk which would have been unthinkable two or three years ago—about the complete liquidation of the United Nations. Such talk is sometimes camouflaged by all sorts of projects and plans for "reorganization" of the UN, but it is also conducted in a most undisguised form. The utterances of the British Conservative press of the Churchill trend, and of the London *Daily Mail* in particular, may serve as an example of the frank appeals for the liquidation of the UN. In an editorial published on September 29, the *Daily Mail* advocated that an end should be put to the UN and that "it is time to do it now."

The Soviet people, just as the Soviet Government, cannot reconcile themselves to a course designed to undermine and liquidate the UN. The provocative rumors which have been so energetically circulated recently, convey the impression that the USSR is allegedly prepared to withdraw from the international organization. These rumors have nothing in common with the facts. The USSR stands for the preservation of the UN as an instrument of international co-operation, for loyalty to the principles of the UN Charter.

It is believed in the Soviet country that there are many people in the USA as well, who are not inclined to favor a policy of undermining and liquidating the UN, who are not inclined to turn their backs upon the principles of international co-operation which will facilitate friendly relations among nations.

Will the UN return to the principles formulated at San Francisco? Or will it continue its backward trend? That is how the question stands today.

USSR and Czechoslovakia

(Continued from Page 763)

Soviet market, but also by the readiness of the Soviet Union to supply Czechoslovakia with the commodities she most needs and to advance credits on fully acceptable conditions. Taking into account the fact that Czechoslovakia would find it difficult to pay with exports for all her imports from the USSR, the Soviet Government has advanced to the Government of Czechoslovakia short-term credits in 1948.

The foreign economic policy of the USSR, whose aim is to promote peaceful co-operation between peoples, coincides with the economic and political interests of Czechoslovakia. "We are now trading with the East, as well as with the West," declared Prime Minister Zápotocki in his speech at the October session of the National Assembly. "But it is no secret that we now find greater mutual understanding in the East, than in the West."

Her successful realization of her two-year plan has enabled Czechoslovakia to heal the wounds inflicted upon her national economy by German occupation and to create the conditions for a transition from reconstruction to further development of her economy.

The Government of Czechoslovakia has now drafted a five-year economic plan, under which, by the end of 1953, the national income of the Republic is to increase by 48 per cent; her general level of industrial production by 57 per cent (a 70 per cent increase over the prewar year of 1937); and the living standard of the people by 60 per cent over the prewar standard.

There is no doubt that the people of Czechoslovakia will accomplish this gigantic task.

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A Muscovite's Diary

A 318.7-mile pipe line, tapping Europe's richest natural gas deposits in the rolling foothills of the Carpathians, has just recently been completed in the southwest of the USSR.

The line, running from Dashava to Kiev, was started 18 months ago and runs across 9 big rivers; 12 smaller streams; some 40 ravines, bogs and creeks; 23 railway lines and 30 highways and roads.

Fuel from this new source will supply Kiev, the Ukrainian capital, as well as some other cities. The first section of the line has a capacity one and one-half times greater than that of the Saratov-Moscow gas pipe line.

Housing Gains In Donbas

Although the German invaders laid waste to most of the apartment buildings in our Donbas, the tremendous concern of the Soviet Government for housing has seen a remarkable rebuilding achievement during the past five years since liberation of the Donbas.

In the Stalino Region, for example, I am told that housing space is equal to 90 per cent of the prewar total. That, my friends, is truly outstanding when one thinks of the terrible devastation wrought here by the fascist invader.

And the Stalino record is not a single example. In the Byelorussian Republic, 3,500 settlements have been restored and built since its liberation. More than 350 thousand houses have been built in villages and more than 5,300,000 square feet of housing made available to tenants in the cities.

Approximately 21,500,000 square feet of floor space was made available for living quarters in Leningrad between the end of the war and July 1, 1948.

Arctic Nomads Get Late Films

Late Soviet films are following the nomadic reindeer-breeders beyond the Arctic Circle. And a permanent sound-movie center has been installed in Nosovaya, one of the most northerly fishing villages on the Barents Sea coast.

Nine sound-movie centers are functioning in the trans-Arctic settlements of the Nenets National Area. In addition, six reindeer-drawn culture tents (or "Red Chums," as they are called) accompany the deer-breeders on their cattle drives.

The network of cinemas, including some with sound, is growing in various districts of the Archangelsk Region, including the timber camps.

Now Lemon Trees Resist Frost

I never cease to stand in awe of the Soviet horticulturist. Now I learn that two types of lemon trees have been successfully established in Sochi, Krasnodar Territory, in the North Caucasus.

For those unfamiliar with the Soviet Union, permit me to say that this city is on the northernmost borderline for the growth of citrus plants.

Well, these lemons include one on which the boughs creep along the ground rather than grow upward. In this way they are more easily protected against frosts, as nature covers them with a fluffy coat of snow.

The other type in a grove at the Sochi experimental station, prefers locations close to houses and the green boughs creep up the walls. The walls give off the heat absorbed during the day, and also some of the warmth from the inside rooms. These trees withstand frost robustly.

New Stadium In Estonia

Sports-minded readers will be interested to learn that a new stadium to seat 50 thousand has been started in Tallinn, the capital of Soviet Estonia.

This project, to be the largest sports structure in the Baltic Republics, will have two soccer fields, cinder tracks, volleyball grounds, tennis courts, a swimming pool with a 25 meter (82 feet) high-diving board, with lower boards, of course, for the more timid.

The 1949 All-Union track and field competitions will be held in the new Tallinn stadium.

Electric Power Saves Tractor Fuel

Electrification of the farm is not only bringing greater ease to the work, but also saving substantial amounts of fuel in the Kharkov Region of the Soviet Ukraine.

MOSCOW RADIO BROADCASTS IN ENGLISH

December 27 - December 31

Radio programs in English will be broadcast from Moscow to the United States on the following schedule from December 27 to December 31. All time is Eastern Standard.

Half-hour daily morning programs of news and commentary from 7:45 A.M. to 8:15 A.M. on the following frequencies: 6.05, 7.36, 9.54, 9.56, 9.60, 11.72, 11.87, and 11.96 megacycles.

Daily evening programs of news, political commentary and sidelights on Soviet life are broadcast in two periods: from 6:20 P.M. to 7:30 P.M. and from 9:00 P.M. to 10:15 P.M.

Radio listeners may hear the 6:20-7:30 P.M. broadcast over these frequencies: 7.29, 7.36, 11.72, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The 9:00 to 10:15 P.M. programs may be heard on 7.29, 7.36, 9.60, 9.72, 11.72, 11.87, 11.88, 13.71, and 15.23 megacycles.

The following special features are scheduled for the evening programs:

Monday, December 27—program for farmers.

Wednesday, December 29—Scientific and cultural programs; sports review.

Thursday, December 30—program in Russian for American Slavs.

Friday, December 31—talk on life in the Soviet Republics.

On Saturdays there will be a weekly news review, sports talk and replies to letters from listeners; on Sundays concerts and talks on literature.

The "Muscovite" will be glad to have readers' suggestions as to subjects they would like to see covered in future "Diaries." Suggestions should be sent to "Muscovite," c/o USSR Information Bulletin, 2112 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 8, D.C.

A total of 50 electric-power-stations were set up in the villages of the Kharkov Region in 1948. Approximately 25,600 tons of grain were threshed with electrical aid this season, releasing hundreds of tractors for the new, all-important fall field work, at real savings in fuel.

Books by Million For Kazakhstan

Textbooks printed in the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic in 1948 totaled more than 1,300,000 copies. A primer, *Our Native Language*, and other texts in the Kazakh language, were published for the first and second grades in editions ranging from 30 thousand to 100 thousand copies each. These figures are from the textbook publishing house of the Kazakh SSR.

Culture Palace For Farmers

With part of its last year's income of 10 million rubles, the Ray-of-the-East Collective Farm in the Alma-Ata Region of Kazakhstan has launched a major building program.

Ten new dwellings and several large farm buildings were completed within the past few months along with the first section of the farm's Palace of Culture.

The farmers have appropriated 1,500,000 rubles for the Palace of Culture and its first section was completed early in November in time for the celebration of the 31st Anniversary of the Revolution. When finally completed, this structure will include an auditorium seating five hundred, a library, studios for amateur activities, a movie house and a radio relay station.

A large orchard has been planted around the site.

Combine Output Breaks Record

Statistics are generally dry to me, but I must admit a tingle of pride when I read that the Stalin Agricultural-Machinery Plant in Rostov produced 5,100 Stalinets-6 combines in the first nine months of this year. Statistics like this mean not only a better life for the farmers, but more produce and greater abundance for all of us. And that figure is exactly 85 more combines than this same plant sent rolling off its assembly line in 1940.

The Stalin plant in Rostov is the largest of its kind in the USSR. Wrecked by the Nazis, it is now completely rehabilitated. Before the war, this plant alone produced 50 per cent more farm machines than all the nine hundred factories in Russia did before the Revolution of 1917.

LEADING WORKER. Ivan Smirnov, a fitter, helps produce the "Stalinets-6" combine.

The workers in the Rostov plant are to be congratulated—as of October 7 they had completed their part of the state plan for the first ten months of this year.

This success is a result of the devoted work of many thousands of workers participating in a creative friendship between engineers and Stakhanovites. Back of the record too is the fact that there are 1,100 members of the Communist Party in the enterprise, of whom 725 are engaged at the bench or machine. All are meeting their quotas.

Record Tea Crop Exceeds Quota

Tea growing, as many of my friends abroad know, is a major industry in the Soviet Union today. The harvest season has ended on the collective and state farms of the subtropical districts of Soviet Georgia, with a yield 5,500 tons greater than in 1947.

The collective farms of the Makharadzev district, where the largest tea plantations of the Republic are located, gathered 641 metric tons of green tea above set quotas.

Tea planters of Adjaria, Chokhataursk and the Lanchkhutsk Districts picked hundreds of tons above their quotas.

Ah-h, let's pour a cup, now.

Brief Notes In Passing

During 1948 a total of 35 clubs and two Houses of Culture were opened in the towns and villages of Armenia; 80 more clubs are under construction.

A fifth edition of J. V. Stalin's *Problems of Leninism* has been printed in Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan. The volume has won wide popularity in a translation made by the Azerbaijan branch of the Marx-Enge's-Lenin Institute.

In the coal districts of Georgia, Tkibuli and Tkvarcheli, 326 miners and engineers have been awarded government orders and medals for achievements in increasing production and building new mines. Three miners, Alexander Kasradze, Polievkt Chelishvili and Mikhail Alyabyev, won the title of Hero of Socialist Labor.

Within the coming three years, every collective farm in the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic will be supplied with electricity. A decision to carry out this work has been adopted by the Armenian SSR's Council of Ministers.

The existent power stations will be augmented by 86 new ones, of which 16 hydroelectric stations have already been put into operation along with 23 small electric stations and 14 central power and heating plants.

Collective farmers of southern Armenia are building a reservoir in the mountains at an altitude of more than 6,600 feet. It will have a capacity of 110 million cubic meters and will help in the irrigation of the Shirak Steppe, the main sugar beet zone of the Republic.

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